



SUSTAINABLE

Green Tourism and Hospitality Development

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EDITORS: Miriam Mbasera, Innocent Chirisa & Abraham Matamanda

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Edited by **Miriam Mbasera, Innocent Chirisa & Abraham
Matamanda**

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Book Synopses

This book is on sustainable tourism and hospitality. It explains key debates on green tourism and its influence on the environment. The book also highlights how aesthetic values need to be interwoven into the whole process of tourism planning and development to achieve sustainability without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The book also looks into rural and urban situations of tourism and explains how and why greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe. Gender concerns in tourism were also covered in general and then specifically exploring women empowerment and its impact on green tourism. The book also highlights how far small and medium enterprises (SMEs) have adopted sustainable green tourism concepts in the operation of their businesses. Furthermore, the book discourses the foremost environmental impacts caused by tourism and hospitality operations and, finally, the role of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in promoting green tourism. The book brings different thoughts in which sustainability can be archived through human interaction with the environment using simple and manageable ways. It can be useful to all age groups including scholars, academics, tourism and hospitality people and any other individuals.

Chapter 1: Green Tourism Development: Key Debates and Promotability in Developing Countries

Innocent Chirisa and Tinashe Magande

Chapter One investigates specifically the promotability of green tourism in developing countries. The area of green tourism and its influence on the environment has not been fully researched on in developing countries. Primary and secondary research methods to investigate promotability and key debates in the tourism sector, were used, focusing specifically on the green tourism in developing countries.

Chapter 2: Aesthetic Values in Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality Development

Miriam Mbasera

Chapter Two focuses on the importance of aesthetic values in the diverse tourism activities, creating opportunities to attract aesthetic-oriented tourists. Green tourism is one tool in sustainable tourism development that

incorporates aesthetics and has principles hinged on developing tourism without neglecting nature. This chapter explores the aesthetics dimensions in nature-based tourism context, food and beverage products and services, accommodation sector and in all forms of transport.

Chapter 3: Anchoring Territoriality and Spatiality into Green, Responsible and Sustainable Tourism Practice in Zimbabwe

Innocent Chirisa & Thomas Karakadzai

Chapter Three is meant to contribute towards the understanding of rural and urban situations of tourism and how greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. This includes benchmarking, which means appropriating the best standards in green and sustainable tourism regionally and globally. There is also the issue of understanding the interface between what tourist visit to see and the fulfilment of the needs of the communities in terms of access, control, ownership and utilisation.

Chapter 4: Participation of Women in Green Tourism

Alice Zinyemba

Chapter Four discusses the role of women in green tourism and sustainable tourism development. It is observed that while implementing green tourism has brought about positive impacts on women development, there are barriers inhibiting women from participating effectively in green tourism. These barriers include limited information on the sector, lack of education in financial and investment strategies as well as stiff competition from men.

Chapter 5: Application of Sustainable Tourism Concepts by SMEs In Zimbabwe

Shepherd Nyaruwata

Chapter Five focusses on application of sustainable tourism concepts by SMEs in Zimbabwe. The purpose of this chapter is to explore and highlight the extent to which SMEs have adopted green, sustainable tourism concepts in the operation of their businesses. The study covered private-sector operated SMEs, those operated by communities and those operated as partnership ventures between communities and the private sector. The study revealed that SMEs in Zimbabwe have not fully embraced concepts of sustainable tourism development in their operations.

Chapter 6: Environmental Impacts of Tourism and Hospitality Operations

Vitalis Basera, Rudorwashe Baipai and Miriam Mbasera

Chapter Six is on environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations. The chapter has special focus on hotels lodges, restaurants, safari, game parks and transport, as the industry units that contribute to different types of impacts on the environment. Some case studies are highlighted to clearly show the environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations in that context.

Chapter 7: Mega-Events as Catalysts for Sustainable Development: The Role of Event Greening to Hosting Cities

Stephane Sena

Chapter Seven explores the role of mega events greening in host cities. Today there is very stiff competition between countries and cities to host mega events. Staging a mega event offers a unique opportunity for the host cities not only to present themselves to the world and achieve economic development, but there is also the possibility of “greening” the event, that is to mitigate the direct environmental impact or footprint of the event, including carbon dioxide emissions, waste generated, water and energy consumption and biodiversity disruptions.

Chapter 8: The Role of ICTs in Green Tourism Promotion in Zimbabwe: Gaps and Policy Direction

Teurai Matekenya and Fungai Nora Mukora

Chapter Eight explores the role of ICTs in green tourism promotion in Zimbabwe, taking into consideration gaps and policy direction. There is general agreement in literature that ICTs can be used to address the negative socio, cultural impact. The chapter uses the value chain system to highlight the activities undertaken by destination managers to deliver products and services. Based on the value chain, the chapter identifies and discusses opportunities for applying ICTs to promote green tourism

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Chapter 1: Green Tourism Development: Key Debates and Promotability in Developing Countries

INNOCENT CHIRISA, TINASHE MAGANDE AND ABRAHAM MATAMANDA

Abstract

Green tourism is gaining more attention from different stakeholders because of the environmental benefits that it offers. The area of green tourism and its influence on the environment has not been fully researched on in developing countries. This chapter investigates the development of green tourism, specifically looking at key debates and its promotability in developing countries. Primary and secondary research methods were used to investigate the promotability and key debates in developing countries. A case study design, focusing on four selected countries, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe, was adopted. Within the case study design, the chapter employed qualitative methods based predominantly on desk review. The chapter draws on literature from books, journal articles and other publications that were made on tourism in developing countries across the world. Secondary literature review of previous studies done on tourism in developing countries in Africa was also conducted. Literature reviewed indicates that attitudinal, financial and operational factors were major factors affecting green tourism. The study recommends further research into the challenges faced by the tourism industries in fully ensuring that green tourism is adopted in the developing world.

INTRODUCTION

The United Nations (2012) argues that more than a third of travelling tourists favour tourism that is environmentally friendly and are willing to pay more for this experience. Green tourism is about being an environmentally friendly tourist or providing environmentally friendly tourist services (Furqaan *et al.*, 2010). It is a term that can be used to indicate that tourism operations taking place in an area are not harmful to the environment (Font and Tribe, 2001). Tourism has significant potential as a driver for growth of the world economy. The sector's share of the world Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is 5%, while it contributes about 8% of total employment (UNWTO and UNEP, 2012). The same source notes that tourism is one of five top export earners in over 150 countries, while in 60 countries, it is the number one export. The sector is a major source of foreign currency in most developing countries. The sector creates employment directly and indirectly it is estimated that one job in the

core tourism industry creates about one and a half additional or indirect jobs in the tourism related economy (*ibid.*). Tourism has become a key driver for socio-economic progress through the creation of jobs and enterprises, infrastructure development and the export revenue that is subsequently earned (Oh, 2005; Furqaan *et al.*, 2010). Tourism is a quickly growing industry that may end up as the major source of emission of global greenhouse gases. The growth of the sector can be envisaged as a double-edged sword. On one hand, it is a critical source of economic growth and its operations enrich cultural base for communities (2009). On the other hand, tourism involves premium energy absorption and massive contributions to waste generation and carbon dioxide emissions through its various functions and operations (ER, 1996).

There are high expectations that the greening of tourism that involves efficiency improvements in energy, water and waste systems, will reinforce employment potential in the sector with increased local employment, hiring and sourcing. The green tourism or sustainable tourism concept, as it is called by Yu *et al.* (2011), has been promoted in several countries to reduce carbon emissions resulting from tourist and hotel management operator practices. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) defines sustainable tourism as:

...tourism that leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be filled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems (WTO Report, 2002:7).

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2005) acknowledges that green tourism is tourism that yields current and future economic, environmental and social impacts on the needs of the industry, visitors, the host communities and the environment.

Green tourism promotes minimal unfavourable impacts on the local environment and the enrichment and promotion of cultural benefits in the region for its local inhabitants (Jones, 1987). The concept of green tourism seeks to answer the global challenge of climate change one of the objectives of Agenda 2030, sustainable development goal number 13 that seeks to address issues on climate change. Promoting green tourism enhances people's commitment to promote nature-based destination and contribution to a greener environment. It also enhances people's lives when tourism and hospitality sectors identify their operations and management to be subsequently following environmentally friendly measures. A greener or sustainable tourism promotes environmental protection from many environmental problems, such as minimising air, water and soil pollution. It also reduces the

waste produced by travellers and practitioners whilst focusing on maintaining environmentally friendly characteristic of the landscape, habitats, wild plants and animals (Kirkby *et al.*, 2011). With full appreciation of the contributions made by numerous writers towards the progress of tourism research, this chapter attempts to make a critical analysis of the sector focusing on green tourism. The chapter makes a contribution to the green literature through critically analysing the promotability of the sector in developing countries. It also seeks to address current key debates in the field of green tourism in the developing world.

BACKGROUND AND OVERVIEW

Environmental and socio-cultural concerns have arisen in countries and regions of the world with economies that are driven by the tourism sector due to unsustainable tourism. The growth of tourism as the world's fastest growing industry in the 21st century has brought with it major environmental problems that need to be addressed and resolved to achieve sustainability in the short and long term. As a result of natural depletion in many tourist destinations internationally, the world gathered to discuss and present solutions on the need to promote green tourism development to minimise its environmental impacts and to maximise socio-economic overall benefits at tourist destinations. Tourism was not specifically addressed in Agenda 21, an international action plan on sustainable development that was agreed on at the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in Brazil (UN, 1993). The growing economic importance of tourism, significant use of natural resources and environmental impact all contributed to its gradual introduction on the international sustainable development agenda. The tourism industry cooperated with other intergovernmental agencies to form sectorial action plan called Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry. The action plan was the first concrete sectorial action plan for sustainable tourism development launched by the World Tourism Organisation., in cooperation with two business associations in 1996.

The United Nations General Assembly decided that there was need to consider the importance of tourism in the context of Agenda 21 and develop an action-oriented international programme of work on sustainable tourism (UN, 1998) in 1997. This was followed up at the seventh annual session of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD), held in New York in 1999. At this session, the WTO was invited to develop a proposed global code of ethics. The Global Code of Ethics for Tourism was introduced by the WTO in late 1999. The code outlined basic rules for governments, tour

operators, developers, travel agents, workers and host communities and the tourists themselves (Neto, 2003). In 2001, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism. A plan of implementation that identified further measures to promote green tourism development was adopted at the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa, in 2002. The major outlook was to increase the benefits that the population in host communities derive from tourism resources with a view of maintaining cultural and environmental integrity and enhancing the protection of ecologically sensitive areas and natural heritages (UN, 2002b).

In Asia, tourism is growing fast and several countries rate tourism as one of the main contributors to economic growth. Although the concept of sustainability is now part and parcel of economic development in Asia, many countries have existing policy frameworks for greening the tourism industry. There are a few cases for green tourism in the continent that have been evaluated and successful enough to be models for other countries. Asia has experienced rapid economic growth in the past decades, with South East Asia's economy increasing 7.4% per annum (Asian Development Bank, 2010). Zhang (2008) argues that this growth has some environmental consequences. Encouraging collaboration and participation among stakeholders may assist in developing and implementing any efforts by reducing potential or actual conflicts of interest and values. The private sector has been actively participating and investing in the achievement of greener tourism industry in Asia. This has been seen in developed tourism destinations such as Hong Kong, Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand and Nepal (Deike, 2009). Promoting the right climate and providing the right incentives for investment is essential for the greening of the tourism industry.

Coming to Africa, several tools are being used to encourage sustainability, including policies, guidelines, standards and certification. However, additional investment is required in Africa, especially in the advancement and use of appropriate environmental technologies and training. Compared to other continents, Africa is still lagging in the use of modern technologies in various sectors. The enabling conditions for sustainable tourism in Africa are similar to elsewhere. The areas described here include policies and strategies, investment regulations, infrastructure and land, tax incentives and human resources. The continent is facing a series of challenges in trying to achieve sustainable or green tourism development. The government of South Africa

announced its campaign to make tourism a priority industry in the creation of jobs and generation of revenue through foreign exchange earnings. Investment in sustainable tourism projects and programmes has been observed across the African continent. This was accelerated by initiatives from various stakeholders such as the governments, the private sector, donors and non-governmental organisations. Employment in the travel and tourism sector in Africa has also seen some increases but with the global economic crisis, some decrease was observed since 2008 (World Travel Tourism Council [WTTC], 2010a). Countries in sub-Saharan Africa witnessed strong performances in 2017, especially in large destinations like Kenya, Côte d'Ivoire, Mauritius and Zimbabwe. The problems in Africa's tourism are closely related to structural imbalances in their overall development pattern (Dieke, 2009). Tourism has not been integrated in sectorial strategies with other economic sectors in countries such as Cameroon and Nigeria (*ibid.*). The organisation of the sector has been inadequate and lacked control in Kenya, hence lacking profitability. This shows a lack of clear strategies and insufficient development of the sector.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research proposes two theoretical research models based on the Theory of Motivation and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The two theories explain the major factors that lure individuals to act in a certain way in green tourism initiatives. It is critical to analyse the factors that control an individual to act the way they do, since the success or failure of green tourism initiatives is based on these factors.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Existing theories of motivation suggest that motivational incentives are either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature (Frey and Jegen, 2001). Intrinsic motivation is the act of doing something without any obvious reward. The theory says an individual does an activity because it is enjoyable and interesting, rather than an outside reward. Intrinsic motives are tied to structures such as morals, values and obligations. Intrinsically motivated reward is the activity itself, rather than things such as money, status or food (Deci, 1971). When it comes to tourism, one may participate in green tourism behaviour because one thinks it is ethically right to do so for the good of humankind. Such a person values the earth and wants to preserve its resources, or because person feels that he/she must be responsible to ensure a sustainable environment for future generations. In most cases, such intrinsic motivations are often a product of internal standards of behaviours and are specific to the individual.

Understanding the factors that promote intrinsic motivation helps us to see its benefits. Intrinsically motivated factors include curiosity that pushes people to explore and learn, challenge that helps us to work continuously towards achieving certain goals, control that comes from the basic desire to control the environment. Recognition is also part of these factors. Some individuals have an innate need to be appreciated by society when they have done good works on the environment. Others have a strong desire to satisfy their needs of belonging, especially in helping others to achieve a shared goal.

On the other hand, extrinsically motivated behaviour is performed to receive something in return or to avoid certain negative outcomes. Theories of motivation define extrinsic motivation as that drive to engage in an activity to obtain an outcome that is separable from the activity itself (DeCharms, 1968; Leeper and Green, 1978). This kind of motivator acts outside of the individual as opposed to an intrinsic motivator and it acts on the individual. Extrinsic motivations include incentives such as money, status and power. When it comes to tourism, a tourist's action towards sustainability is motivated by tangible financial incentives, such as discounts, coupons or loyalty points that incentivise the green tourism behaviour (Line *et al.*, 2018). Some people are extrinsically motivated to participate in green tourism initiatives because of intangible rewards that they may receive after participation. These rewards include things such as a gain in status or power. Some tourists are encouraged to participate in green tourism behaviour to increase status among their peers. (Griskevicius *et al.*, 2010). This concurs with an argument made by Bird and Smith (2005) who posits that participating in such initiatives results in an increase in social status and power among the person's peer group that the individual can then trade later for intangible resources in the group. By choosing a relatively costlier green product or service, the consumer signals to others in the service environment that he/she has spare resources and can afford to expend those resources for the good of others.

THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

The Theory of Planned Behaviour was propounded by Ajzen (1991). The theory states that there are factors that determine an individual's intention towards his/her behaviour. Amongst these are the attitudes towards the behaviour, the perceived behavioural control and the subjective norms. International tourists are attracted to international tourism destinations with attractive natural and cultural resources, followed by a great range of several aspects and valuable heritage. The theory of planned behaviour is one that can be used to predict the environmental responsible behaviours of international

tourists. The theory can be extended further to include other variables to predict the behavioural intentions of tourists and their actual behaviours. It has been widely used in research to explain people's behaviour. It claims that behaviours stem from individual intention that is defined as a cognitive depiction of the person's willingness to try or to perform the behaviour that in turn, depends on three global hidden predictors: subjective norms, attitudes and perceived behavioural control.

The attitude is defined as favourable or unfavourable feelings associated with a particular action to perform a behaviour. According to Ajzen (*ibid.*), attitude is the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question. Attitude towards behaviour is the difference between desires of people to visit tourist destinations or not to visit. Further, attitude is stated as the positive or negative evaluation of performing that behaviour (Chen and Tung, 2014; Paul *et al.*, 2016). Previous studies found that there were two types of attitudes: a specific type and a general type. While the general type of attitude explicates the attitude toward environmental challenges, the specific type of attitude, on the other hand, indicates the attitude towards a specific green product. Subjective norms are the views that are considered important by the advisor who influences an individual whether to perform a behaviour or not. These are opinions sought from other people like friends, members of the family, teachers, business consultants, pastors, businesspeople and others.

The subjective norm is theoretically determined as the perceived social pressure to engage or not in a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Paul *et al.* (2016) acknowledged the importance of other influences of people closer to the person (teachers, pastors, family members, etc.) to a person's behaviour. Precisely, this social pressure derives from the word-of-mouth opinion from these friends and family members. In contemporary society, word of mouth has become vital in spreading and connecting individuals with information about environmental degradation and has further stimulated individual pro-environmental behaviours. Lastly, perceived behaviour control is taken as a strong factor that influences an individual tourist's decision. Ajzen (1991) has defined perceived behaviour as self-efficacy. This is where people believe that certain behaviour is either difficult or easy to undertake. Perceived behavioural control also encompasses previous experiences and expected hindrances (Paul *et al.*, 2016). Accordingly, previous studies argued that the control beliefs and perceived power through different aspects, such as effort,

cost, time, opportunities and resources, perceived the inconvenience and availability that affected consumer purchase intentions. Therefore, in this context, it is the belief that a tourist holds that influences him/her to venture into green tourism initiatives or not. In developing countries, people pursue green tourism as a result of opinions that they get from advisors and the learned in the industry. In some cases, they copy the history of the old people in the societies they live.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of green tourism is new and still an emerging concept (Dodds and Joppe, 2001), especially in developing countries. Key issues on the topic have been debated on in existing literature in both developing and developed countries. This section reveals the existing literature on the concept of green tourism focusing mainly on developing countries.

Tzschentke (2008) carried out a qualitative study research investigation into tourism firms and the environment. The major aim of the study was to investigate factors that act as barriers to action in green tourism firms. The chapter focuses on the factors preventing a sample of small environmentally accredited businesses from undertaking further action. Attitudinal, financial and operational factors were identified as the major factors in this study. The study argues that to encourage businesses to undertake environmentally responsible practices, the conditions that they operate in must be favourable. These include adequate support and infrastructure. More important, however, is addressing widespread scepticism towards environmental alternatives in both the public and operators, to ensure that going green becomes commercially feasible.

Furqan *et al.* (2010) carried out a research to attempt to discuss green tourism concept. They further discussed the green tourism certification and its processes as well as explained the comparative approaches of green tourism in a few developing countries. The authors noted that only a few consumers understand environmental claims and many claims are not regulated in their countries. They concluded that through green labelling, the tourism industry can legally open up new areas for the more discriminating. Furthermore, tourists or visitors can enjoy the holiday they want with clear integrity with a wider range of the tourism market.

Line *et al.* (2018) carried out research that tried to figure out and understand the factors that motivate tourists to engage in green tourism behaviour. The

research argued that green tourism is an increasingly important topic in the tourism industry. The purpose of the study was to advance the understanding of the motivating factors that underlie tourist reactions to sustainability programmes. Based on the tenets of motivation crowding theory, the research demonstrated that such reactions depend not only on the nature of the incentive that is offered, but also on the image of the destination in which the property is located. The study noted that to incentivise the green tourism behaviour, government should lodge properties to tourists who are willing to participate in property-level sustainability programmes.

Ibnou-Laaroussi *et al.* (2020) investigated the behavioural aspects of international tourists towards the sustainability of green tourism, employing an extended framework of the theory of planned behaviour in north Cyprus. The study model was examined through structural equation modelling, administering a sample of 395 questionnaires to tourists that lodged at 20 randomly selected five-star hotels. The study's ultimate objective was to investigate the behavioural aspects of tourists towards environmental challenges and their decision-making impacts to achieve green growth and environmental degradation reduction in tourism destinations. Findings from the study indicated that the perceptions of tourists on the sustainability of green tourism and their environmental concerns had a significantly positive impact on their attitudes. Results also revealed that subjective norms had a significantly negative impact on intentions of the tourists to participate in sustainability of green tourism. Attitude was found to have a significantly positive impact on the tourists' intentions to participate in the sustainability of green tourism. This concurs with results found by Hsu and Huang (2012) and Wang *et al.* (2019). More so, the study also found that both environmental concerns and the intention of the tourists to participate in the sustainability of green tourism had a significantly positive impact on environmentally responsible tourism behaviour.

Khan *et al.* (2020) carried out a study in Pakistan to assess the role of tourism in shaping the fundamental pillars of development in developing economies. The study employed various econometric techniques and approaches to investigate the causal relationships of tourism with economic growth, energy and agriculture development and poverty. The study highlighted the important role of tourism in the development of emerging or developing economies. The findings of the study suggested that tourism significantly enhances gross domestic product (GDP) by 0.051%. It was also revealed that tourism boosts foreign direct investment (FDI) by 2.647%, energy development by 0.134%,

and agriculture development by 0.26%. It was revealed that tourism reduces poverty by 0.51% in the long run. The study recommended that policy-makers should be advised that through public interventions, development can be advanced by tourism through design and implementation of integrated policies in developing economies. The study recommended that there be policy consistency and coherence for they are essential for competitiveness, sustainable green tourism and maximising benefits from tourism.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter uses primary and secondary research methods to investigate the promotability and key debates in the tourism sector, focusing specifically on green tourism in Zimbabwe. The chapter adopted a case-study design concentrating on four selected countries, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The study was comparative with the four countries of focus. Within the case-study design, the chapter, employed qualitative methods predominantly based on desk review. The chapter draws on literature in books, journal articles and other publications that were made on tourism in developing countries across the world. Secondary literature review of previous studies done on tourism in developing countries in Africa was also conducted.

RESULTS

The study found that green tourism is possible, but is impinged on an individual's motivation and the range of measures that firms in developing countries can undertake to be environmentally friendly. The study found that today's firms and individuals lack social responsibility, resulting in lack of respect for the environment. Lack of education and out-of-mind attitude affected green tourism in remote areas. A negative attitude towards the government also impacted on the success of green tourism in developing countries. It was also found that the act of converting an environment into a sustainable greener tourism one is not a totally free activity, it involves financial costs. The cost involved in the operation is bound to be a drawback for the operation. Passing on the expenses to the consumer, in this case the tourist, is a great concern because asking them to pay a premium for being green is a constraint to further involvement. Financial assets that an individual or a firm holds is an important factor for involvement in green tourism operations. For those who reside in remote and marginalised areas in developing countries, the availability and reliability of green suppliers is an issue of dissatisfaction. Also a perceived shortage of information on new products or technological developments resulted in reluctance to make contributions towards the tourism industry, especially green tourism.

CASE STUDIES

A desk review was done to investigate on the tourism industries four developing countries selected to be case studies. The study focused on developing countries in Africa that is Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa and Zimbabwe.

CASE 1: KENYA

East Africa is a natural destination for tourists, boasting the richest and most varied concentration of wildlife on the African continent. Kenya, a country in east Africa, built a flourishing industry that was safari-based when it saw the potential of being a tourist destination quickly, when it opened its first national park in 1947. Backed by national legislation that aimed at representing the community and protecting the wildlife in the natural environment, Kenya has pursued ecotourism with more determination. Dieke (2009) postulates that when tourism development in some countries has been neglected, in Kenya it has been uncontrolled and excessive. Although there has been unreliable progress in Kenya's tourism industry, West and Carrier (2003) acknowledge that Kenya's ecotourism¹ has been able to deliver concrete benefits to its people. One of the central principles that Kenya has adopted is involving local communities in the industry. Kenyan nationals do not pay admission fees to visit the country's national parks. The country slashed the admission fees to provide an important boost to domestic tourism. Ordinary Kenyans also have been involved in developing tourism in their areas through programmes such as Parks Beyond Parks. Communities have been given a leading role in these programmes, so that they manage and conserve wildlife areas in their own communities. Consequently, the tourism sector has helped immensely in achieving the United Nations Millennium Development goals and sustainable development goals in Kenya. Thus, through providing employment and alleviating poverty, the of the industry has helped societies to raise their livelihoods. Environmental sustainability has been part of the benefits the progress in Kenyan tourism industry has achieved. Through aid offered by donors to developing countries like Kenya, one of the critical benefits of tourism, is that it tends to have a balloon effect, generating revenue in indirect ways (West and Carrier, 2003). Donor countries are more likely to give aid and support to nations that their citizens visit and where tourists beat a path, businesses and non-governmental organisations

1 A trend of tourism that is managed by the host country or region that commits itself to establishing and maintaining the sites with participation of local residents, marketing them appropriately, enforcing regulations and using the proceeds of the enterprise to fund the area's land management and community development (Ziffer, 1989).

(NGOs) often follow. In the West's view, more can be done to exploit the benefits that the individual travellers are willing to give back to the communities they visit to achieve a greener tourist destination.

CASE 2: NIGERIA

Nigeria established a national tourist policy in 1990. Tourism in Nigeria has suffered from political marginalisation, though ethnic groups give it a rich cultural heritage. The country is blessed with natural wonders, unique wildlife and a favourable climate. Little effort has been made at the national level to develop the tourism industry. The majority of foreign visitors in the country come for business or family visits. Adeleke (2008) postulates that an enabling tourism environment does not exist in Nigeria. The issue of peace is a strong factor that impacts on tourism in the country. For a country's tourism to flourish, there is need for peace and safety. Nigeria has a history of political instability, violence, ethnic rivalry and crime. People are especially warned to avoid the Niger Delta where there is violence among local citizens, international oil companies and the national military. If tourism was well established, it could help promote peace in the country. The sector will also help Nigeria to diversify and leave its dependence on oil, its single exportation industry. The oil industry has been the source of many problems in the country, for that environmental problem are not an exception.

Tourism cannot be established in a community that is prone instabilities and conflicts in particular. Adeleke (*ibid.*) notes that there are several other factors that have caused havoc within Nigerian and complicated the thriving of a strong tourism sector. One of the strongest structural barriers is poor infrastructure in the country. The roads in the country are poorly maintained, meaning that tourists, would struggle to travel from one point to another when touring different regions. One example of a region with poor road network is the Niger Delta, where roads are extremely dangerous. In terms of domestic tourism, poverty has hindered local tourism. However, those who have the money, have not developed a culture of tourism in the country. The absence of an institutional capacity is a major barrier to tourism in Nigeria.

At national level, the country has not developed a national tourism strategy. It is difficult to develop a coordinated plan since some of government departments overlap national and regional levels. Organising the sector is also complicated by the government having no reliable figures of people visiting the country from foreign countries. Nigeria is not an exception when it comes to issues of corruption. Corruption has been a serious restraining factor in the

country's tourism sector as it undermines efficiency and limits potential investors in the sector in Nigeria. Corruption has scared away quite a number of visitors, not only in the Nigerian tourism sector, but even in other sectors of the economy and around the world. Little has been done to lift tourism development in some countries or neglected, as in Cameroon and Nigeria (Dieke, 2009). This reveals that notwithstanding that tourism brings benefits to the developing world, establishing a fully-fledged sustainable tourism sector is difficult and has proved to be beyond the capacity of many developing nations including Nigeria. Without peace and stability, combined with strategic planning at a national level, a country will struggle to persuade tourists to visit.

CASE 3: ZIMBABWE

The importance of the tourism sector in Zimbabwe is shown by the government of Zimbabwe identifying it as one of the main pillars of economic growth. Tourism has been put at the top of government's development priority list upon the realisation that it can play a significant role in reviving the economy of the country (Zhou, 2018). Amongst these sectors complementing tourism in driving the country's growth are agriculture, mining and manufacturing. Tourists consume goods and services that have direct linkages to farming, construction and other services (Sharpley, 2002). The country is, therefore, prioritising the implementation of policies that promote both domestic and international tourism to anchor growth and development.

Notwithstanding that tourism has been recognised as an anchor to growth and development in the country, the sector continues to face growth constraining challenges. These undermine the full potential of the sector to contribute foreign earnings, growth, reducing climate change, employment creation and poverty eradication, among other things. The sector continues to face skill flight due to brain drain, poor infrastructure, water and electricity shortages, few flights due to COVID 19 lockdowns, high utility charges that increase the cost of doing business. The dilapidated Zimbabwean roads have also seriously constrained domestic tourism, making it less competitive on international markets (ZEPARU, 2013). The tourism sector in Zimbabwe has been working without a guiding policy framework (*ibid.*). The current effort by the government to develop a national tourism policy is a step in the right direction. With a well-coordinated institutional framework, the tourism sector is bound to realise full potential by having an environment policy that clearly outlines roles and responsibilities for all the stakeholders.

A shared responsibility is required between the government and the private sector for more investment in tourism infrastructure to be realised. The country is building its tourism infrastructure despite years of economic challenges. The government of Zimbabwe should take a leading role in investing in tourism in public infrastructure such as roads, electricity supply, water, sewage reticulation and other related areas. The private sector should do the same, concentrating on private infrastructure. This attracts well-structured partnerships that enhance growth. The draft National Tourism Policy makes pronouncements on a wide range of issues that require specific programmes to be developed and implemented in order for tourism to make meaningful contribution to the economic growth of the country. This should be strengthened by putting together the different pieces of legislation that have a bearing on the development of the sector. Zimbabwe has an abundance of tourism resources that she can bank on to stimulate economic growth and alleviate poverty (ZTA, 2016).

CASE 4: SOUTH AFRICA

One of the major forms of tourist attractions in South Africa is ecotourism. The tourism sector still plays a relatively small role in the development of the South African economy. There is still a long way to go to fulfil the sector's potential to contribute to the overall economy of South Africa. The industry continues to focus on a narrow market that has reduced its potential to breed entrepreneurship and new services like local entertainment and handicrafts, and to drive local economic development. Entrepreneurship in tourism attracts domestic and international tourists and creates opportunities for small entrepreneurs and economic linkages, for example agriculture, hunting, handicraft production and a wide range of service industries that tourists are likely to consume, both in their countries of destination and countries of origin. Having noticed that there are local economic benefits that the country can derive from tourism, South Africa began to work on maximising these local benefits. The country looks forward to benefit from creating more diversified tourism products. Creating a more diversified tourism product and marketing a wider range of experiences, activities and services to tourists will benefit the country in a greatly.

In rural areas, the country seeks to reduce rural-to-urban migration through providing opportunities for employment for the locals, giving them an alternative to moving to urban areas. The sector pursues to promote market-related tourism than community-based tourism to promote other tourism development processes. Market-based tourism ensures that tourism is planned,

implemented and managed according to market demands. The African cultural tourism experience needs to be intertwined with the fabric of the mainstream South African tourism product. Sustainable tourism can create positive opportunities for community development in remote areas. The business sector can choose sustainable tourism over other more polluting ventures. Long- and short-term development plans should be crafted so that tourism and its benefits are spread within the area. However, early developments in the country's tourism sector gave little consideration of the limitations of natural resources, impacts of tourism on wildlife and on local cultures. In tourism development, the sustainability of green tourism in South Africa is affected by too many environmental problems in the country. Most of these are a result of people and business organisations, including those operating in the tourism industry. The human environment and development have been largely ignored.

DISCUSSION

Several insights can be harnessed from results of the desk review presented, insights into theories that can guide us in dealing with individual attitudes towards green tourism. To be successful in promoting tourism at the national, regional and community levels, there is need for development of tourism in harmony with the natural and cultural environment, through development, education and training programmes in the developing world. Tourism cannot be established in a community that is prone to instabilities and conflicts in particular. This is so especially in countries like Nigeria, with issues of terrorist attacks. In order for developing countries to promote green tourism, strategic development plans that environmentally and economically, culturally and socially promote sound sustainable development, is the way forward. This needs public-private partnerships to ensure that the plans succeed. A shared responsibility is required between the government and the private sector, so that more investment in tourism infrastructure is realised. Strategic plans need to be drawn up in such a way that they promote and protect the health and safety of tourists. This must be done in all areas in close partnership with health authorities, tourism operators and security service providers such as the police. Green tourism may help reduce rural-to-urban migration through providing opportunities for employment, giving them an alternative to moving to urban areas. Through providing employment and alleviating poverty, the industry has helped societies raise their livelihoods in developing countries like Kenya. The dilapidated state of tourism infrastructure, such as roads, has also impacted the domestic tourism, making it less competitive on the international market.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Tourism is beneficial at a local level as it comes with benefits through local business linkage initiatives like training, community tour guides and local tourism workers and providing health care services and education to surrounding communities. The study found that green tourism is possible, but is impinged on the individual's motivation and the range of measures that firms in developing countries can undertake to be environmentally friendly. The study found that today's firms and individuals lack social responsibility that results in lack of respect for the environment. The act of converting an environment into a sustainable greener tourism environment is not a totally free activity, it involves financial costs. The financial assets that an individual or a firm holds are important for involvement in green tourism operations.

Developing, adopting and implementing legislation to promote responsible practices in tourism development recommended. Enforcing legislation in the tourism environment would help to ensure that people take serious measures that promote a greener sustainable environment that will help future generations. The government should collaborate with the private sector and local communities in formulating criteria for the sustainable use of natural resources. Involving local communities to design programmes aimed at raising awareness for the development of sustainable green tourism at all levels of society promotes and facilitates their full participation, and explaining the environmental impact studies for the design of tourism projects, to ensure sustainable development. If the responsible authorities work with experts within the tourism and hospitality industry to help explain some tourism projects, it will help societies to understand green tourism. Understanding may also help to raise motivation to participate in green tourism initiatives. Government may also work with national authorities to use tourism earnings as one of the means of alleviating poverty and generate employment in developing countries. This may also help to raise the motives of societies towards contributing in green tourism initiatives since they will be benefiting from the industry.

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Chapter 2: Aesthetic Values in Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality Development

MIRIAM MBASERA

Abstract

Aesthetic values are manifestations of sentiments people hold for nature and help people to understand, love and protect it. Aesthetic values need to be interwoven into the whole process of tourism planning and development to achieve sustainability. Tourism is one of the industries that need to put much focus on sustainable development because it brings both positive and negative impacts on the environment and people. Green tourism is one tool in sustainable tourism development whose principles are in line with developing tourism mindful of nature. The purpose of green tourism is providing insight and concern for the environment, increasing greater appreciation for environmental aesthetics and protecting and preserving the physical environment. This chapter focuses on the importance of aesthetic values in diverse tourism activities, creating opportunities to lure aesthetic-oriented tourists to Zimbabwe as a tourist destination. This chapter explores the aesthetics dimensions in a nature-based tourism context, aesthetic values in food and beverage products and services, aesthetic values in the accommodation sector and aesthetic values in all forms of transport. In brief, this chapter examines the aesthetics in Zimbabwe as a tourist destination.

Objectives of the chapter are:

1. to help the reader to be aware of the importance of aesthetic values in diverse tourism operations;
2. to enable the reader to appreciate and consider the needs of the aesthetic-oriented customer in tourism; and
3. to enable the reader to reinforce their understanding of the concept of green tourism and aesthetic values in Zimbabwe through discussion questions.

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability is the greatest challenge that humans have ever faced (Shrivastava, Ivanaj and Ivanaj, 2012). Sustainable development is a development approach that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Xul *et al.*, 2010). Uygur, Musluk and Iibey (2015) assert that sustainable

development is the starting point of green management. Green management is a paradigm that includes improving environmental awareness, using energy resources and eco-friendly technologies. It also includes re-use of waste and recycling, starting from production activities of business to packaging and delivering to consumers. Commitments to sustainability can be achieved using aesthetics to develop passion and emotional connection for sustainable visits to a tourist destination (Shrivastava *et al.*, 2012). For a sustainable future, the desired tourists are the greens, although they represent only a small fraction of the population (Lohmann, 2004). The largest part of population is ambivalent or not interested in environmental issues (Budeanu, 2007:505).

The world, however, is facing many environmental problems that need solutions if sustainability is to be achieved. Xul *et al.* (2010) note the following problems:

1. The production of large amounts of nitrogen, that remains active in the environment and causes substantial changes to aquatic and terrestrial ecosystem;
2. There is large-scale contamination of rivers and other water bodies and massive water demand resulting in water scarcity and water contamination.;
3. Solid waste disposal and recycling remains very problematic.; and
4. Every year, 50 million barrels of oil are transformed into 500 million plastic bags, millions of which are washed onto beaches, coastlines and riverbeds, thus negatively affecting the aesthetics and beauty of the environment. Some popular tourist destinations are becoming overcrowded and suffer from pollution of water and air, litter, dirty seawater and beach congestion, aesthetic pollution and shortage of resources. Fourth, world energy consumption is essentially composed of non-renewable fossil fuels and their combustion emits billions of tons of carbon in the atmosphere every year. Emitted quantities of carbon cause global mean temperature to rise to levels way above the long-term global goal of limiting warming to below 2°C relative to pre-industrial levels, thus causing incremental climate impacts (Rogelj *et al.*, 2015:519).

To meaningfully address these challenges, there is need to have a clear understanding of their magnitude and the negative effect they have on environmental aesthetics. Options for limiting the global mean temperature increase to below 1.5°C by end of the century (2100) have therefore, become of central interest to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate

Change (UNFCCC). To that end, environmentally-friendly management should be adopted in all sectors of the economy, including tourism and hospitality, with the aims of achieving sustainable development and limiting global warming to below 1.5°C (*ibid.*). Four aims are determined for adopting aesthetic green management by businesses (Uygur, Musluk and Iibey (2015). The aims are:

1. Organisations should determine and control the effects of their activities to the environment;
2. Organisations should establish environment management systems and should include environment awareness, programmes and aims;
3. Top management should engage in environmental protection and uphold it in all developmental policies; and
4. Organisations should be aware of social responsibilities about environment and should train their personnel in environmental consciousness.

Ideally, green management in tourism and hospitality management should involve the upholding of aesthetic values in all business operations to cater for the aesthetic oriented-tourist, who is willing to stay in an environmentally responsible destination.

AESTHETIC ORIENTED CUSTOMER

Following a tourist's decision to take a holiday are the choices related to different elements of a tourism product, starting with the location (destination), transport and accommodation, that will secure a holiday package. Tourism is a travel for pleasure of seeing and having a memorable experience. It is possible to say an increase in overall aesthetic value of a destination leads to an increase in the frequency of revisits by an aesthetic-oriented customer. Bekah (2017:381) noted that there is a positive relationship between aesthetic value and aesthetic experience. Aesthetic conditions of the food and beverages services business entity, accommodation establishment, mode of transport used by the tourist and the attractions visited by the tourist, constitute the customer's experience. Each of these complementary businesses' aim of top priority should, therefore, be to provide customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction is among the determinants of customer loyalty, that can affect customer intentions, and business sustainability (Bekah, *ibid.*:383). There are some customers who prefer and are willing to pay extra for staying at eco-labelled hotels (Budeanu, 2007:59). Such eco-efficient accommodation establishments adopt green management activities,

using technology that does not harm nature in all their production activities (Ilbey, Musluk and Uygur, 2015).

DEFINITION OF AESTHETICS

Aesthetic means the pleasant, positive or artful appearance of a person or an object. An example of the word is to say that a particular house is beautiful and has pleasing eye catching features. Aesthetics is concerned with beauty, artistic impact, or appearance of something, including goods and services. It is a term that predominantly refers to visual elements and can also be used as a noun to describe criteria by which an artistic movement or artist is defined.

WHY CONCERN FOR AESTHETICS IN TOURISM VENTURES?

Tourist's decision to visit a destination is influenced, to a greater extent, by the beautiful and aesthetical nature of the environment. To that end, it is wise to ensure that all tourism goods and services are aesthetic and pleasing to the eye. It has been observed that in tourism, there are natural environments, pure historic sites and man-made environments and events in which aesthetic dimensions play an increasingly important role (Rutes, Penne and Addams, 2001). Without any doubt, aesthetics is a key marketing variable carrying appreciable competitive importance in the market place of tourism products and services. Therefore, aesthetic elements and design issues of tourism products and services constitute important dimensions for information processing and attitude formation of tourism consumers. Aesthetics can, therefore, be treated as a strategic tool that a company within a destination can use to gain sustainable competitive advantage (Veryzer, 1995). The experience value of a product is a dominant factor influencing consumer's motivation to buy a tourism product or service.

WHAT IS AN AESTHETIC VALUE IN TOURISM?

In tourism, aesthetic value is commonly used for judging natural and man-made resources within a destination and is also one of the criteria for judging cultural resources. Aesthetic value is the feeling people have about landscapes and scenery. The scenery can resonate with certain emotions for them and each individual may place a different aesthetic value on the same scenery based on their different value system. To ensure good memories for tourists, the aesthetic perceptions must be incorporated into tourism planning (Wang, Xia and Chen, 2008).

To improve aesthetic values in tourism, aesthetic knowledge should be promoted to tourists. This can be done by communicating effectively with them about the natural landscape and providing them with local geographic and cultural knowledge. Local tour guides have the responsibility to explain the beauty of the scenery using appropriate aesthetic knowledge and tools such as oral descriptions, exhibitions and brochures. On one hand, enjoyment of scenery by tourists from specific angles can be achieved when tour guides lead tourists. On the other hand, information centres can organise exhibitions of photographs to stimulate the aesthetic zeal of tourists. The tour guides and staff manning the information centres should receive education on aesthetics within a destination.

AESTHETIC VALUES IN FOOD AND BEVERAGES BUSINESS ESTABLISHMENTS

Food and beverages business establishments include hotels, restaurants, catering services, fast food outlets and bed and breakfast lodges, to name a few. These places are visited for eating, drinking and gaining experience. Today's customers seek not only a delicious meal and a tasteful beverage when they visit a restaurant, but also an enjoyable dining experience. Accordingly, aesthetic value is considered an important part of the experiential value in these food and beverages establishments. Aesthetic values address and stimulate all five senses of a customer of sight, hearing smelling, touching and taste (Bekar, 2017). A growing body of scientific research now suggests that the experience of taste and flavour is, to a large degree, determined by expectations that are generate prior to tasting. Such expectations can result from branding, labelling and packaging). The smell and aroma of food and drink are clearly important in generating expectations prior to tasting food and drink (Pence, 2015:2). Aesthetics also has great influence on customer perceptions, appealing to the sense of smell.

Culinary practitioners have intuitively developed guidelines to try and enhance the visual appeal of food. Certainly, what we see on the plate rapidly generates expectations concerning the taste, flavour liking and presumably also the probable healthiness of a given dish (Michel, Velasco, Fraemohs and Spence, 2015:4). The visual arrangement (composition, the garnishing or decorations) of food elements on a plate, exert a profound influence over what a customer thinks about the dish. It has often been suggested that we eat first with our eyes (Led, 2014; Spence, 2015). By and large, frequency of repeat visits and loyalty to the food and beverage establishment is determined by the satisfaction they get from quality services provided.

Physical appearance, the design of the created environment and facility aesthetics can cause either positive or negative emotional restaurant experiences in customers. Facility aesthetics means architectural design, interior design and décor that contribute to the attractiveness of a dining environment. Bekar (2017:383) established that there is a positive relationship between interior and exterior visual appeal of food and beverages business premises and revisit intentions of customers. Thus, appealing to the sense of sight is imperative in the growth and sustainability of a food and beverages business entity. In this way, food and beverages business units can increase visit frequency of their customers by designing interior and exterior details like colours, décor, music temperature, cleanliness, lighting, smell and ambiance, or objects that are known to have an influence on customer's perceptions and mood in a way that customers can gain positive aesthetic experiences (Bekar and Zurucu, 2015).

Restaurant owners should, therefore, deliberately create some effects and awareness over customers, creating a unique experience for the customer and obtaining a competitive advantage (Bekar, 2017:383). Lee (2011) concurs that aesthetic value components, such as ambiance, colours, décor and service that can bring in and aesthetic dimension to a hospitality facility, should be used to place one's business in a much better position than those of competitors. This is supported by Bekah (2017: 382) who found out that overall aesthetic value of the food and beverages business unit has a significantly positive effect on revisit intentions of customers and sustainability of the enterprise. Facility aesthetics can be critical in attracting and retaining customers and is imperative for sustainability of business (Ryu and Han, 2011).

Attractive table setting should be another important element of the atmosphere in a food and beverage establishment. Bekar and Kilic (2015) determine that there is a positive relationship between attractiveness of table and satisfaction levels in customers. For example, a restaurant should be designed to deliver a prestigious image to attract upper-class customers, by using high quality flatware, china, glassware and linen, all effective tools to influence customers' perceptions of overall establishment service quality (Ryu and Han, 2011). The way the table is decorated with attractive candles and flowers can also make customers feel they are in a prestigious environment. Table setting is assumed to affect diner's cognitive and affective responses that, in turn, influence customer's behaviour (*ibid.*). Therefore, it can be concluded that the repeat visit intentions of customers would increase with improvement in overall aesthetic value of the business unit and quality of service delivery.

Service staff has a bearing on the quality of service delivered in a food and beverage establishments. Service staff refers to the employees in the service setting. Their interaction between service staff and customers and their appearance positively or negatively influence customers' repurchase intentions (*ibid.*).

AESTHETIC VALUES IN ACCOMMODATION ESTABLISHMENTS

Related to the choice of destination is the selection of accommodation. Lee (2011) emphasizes that aesthetic dimension to tourism facilities should be used to move their businesses a point ahead of their competitors. Physical appearance of an accommodation establishment brings out varied emotional experiences in customers. Accommodation services may be impacted by high resource consumption (water and energy) and waste generation (wastewater and solid waste) (Budeanu, 2007:500). In this world of abundance and mass production, consumption of products and services is becoming progressively more fashion-sensitive and dependant on aesthetics and well-designed products and services. Today accommodation establishments are visited by tourists not only for board and sleep, but also for an enjoyable, healthy environment, perfect service and memorable experience.

Once inside the accommodation establishment, customers often spend time observing the interior of the dining area. Their evaluations are likely to affect their attitudes towards other services provided within the accommodation facility. In addition to the appeal of the accommodation space, such as the rooms' architectural design, customers may be influenced by the colour scheme of the room, such as those adorning its walls and floor coverings. Other aspects of interior design, including furniture, pictures, paintings, plants/flowers or wall decorations may serve to enhance the perceived quality of the entity's environment, enlisting emotions in a customer and influencing decision and behaviour (Ryu and Han, 2011). Ryu and Jang (2008) found that facility aesthetics was a significant antecedent of customer's pleasure arousal and behavioural intention in an accommodation unit. So to achieve sustainability, accommodation providers" must put in place measures such as upholding aesthetic values, high quality and green product development (Dobers and Strannegard, 2005).

AESTHETICS IN TRANSPORTATION

Another aspect related to the choice of destination is the selection of tourist transport (Budeanu, 2007:500). Vehicles and other recreational modes of transport are commonly used during tours in forest ecosystems. These at times

create noise disturbance, landscape damage and pollution. Transportation is said to contribute about 75% of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions generated by global tourism of which air traffic contributes 40%, car traffic, 35% and travel by bus or train 13% (Sustainable Travel International, 2010:35). Green management mitigation strategies have, therefore, become imperative throughout the world (Mbasera, 2014:45). Thus, towing a caravan instead of other holiday alternatives based on carbon output (especially flying), is preferred in reducing the carbon footprint through transportation. Nature walks, camping, rock climbing and mountain hiking are some examples of activities popular for green management in tourism (Sustainable Travel International, 2010:35). Mitigating greenhouse gases from transportation activities in the tourism sector and adapting tourism businesses and destinations to changing climate conditions, are important steps in green management and maintaining aesthetic beauty of a tourist destination (Mbasera, 2014: 64).

The inside environment within the form of transport used by travellers is an important determinant of consumer psychology. Customers may remain within the travelling confines for many hours and take in their physical surroundings, before during and after the journey (Han and Ryu 2009; Kim and Moon, 2009). In addition to transportation services during the journey, a pleasant physical setting (e.g., innovative interior design, ambience, odours, appealing food service and attractive service staff) determine, to a large extent, the degree of overall customer satisfaction and loyalty (Liu and Jang, 2009; Magini and Parker, 2009).

AESTHETICS AT ATTRACTIONS

Tourists visit holiday destinations for purposes of leisure and pleasure where nature is admired for its tranquillity, relaxing, beauty and aesthetics potentials and also for business (Rahmanita, 2018:356). However, some tourism activities such as recreation and special events have led to changes in the outlook of the environmental because of the overuse of natural resources, deforestation, rivers and lakes pollution, elimination of animals, aquatic and plant species that are of interest to the tourists (Walker and Walker, 2011:17). Given that an unspoilt environment is both a vital constituent of service quality and a significant factor behind the attractiveness and aesthetics of any tourist destination, it is in the interest of tourism destinations to ensure long-term environmental sustainability (Bohdanowicz *et al.*, 2011:798). Efforts are being made to reverse the increasing negative effects on climate change, also

referred to as global warming, that is increasingly becoming an issue of great concern to tourism planners. The importance of creating and maintaining an environmentally friendly attraction has increasingly generated attention amongst managers in tourism, as it is considered a key factor in luring and satisfying customers. Moreover, a distinctive attraction is an important determinant of tourists' decision to pay repeat visits, thus increasing financial performance by maximising income and market share in a tourism destination (Liu and Jang, 2009; Magini and Parker, 2009). The pleasure in the aesthetics of nature tourism in many destinations is found in the beauty of nature for instance when viewing vast seas, slopping beaches, beautiful scenery, and mountains (Rahmanita, 2018:356).

In Zimbabwe, attractions are viewing the sun setting, wild animals, birds, beautiful scenery, lakes, waterfalls, and mountains, to name a few. The expected growth of tourism worldwide is expected to increase the pressures on environmental aesthetics (Budeanu, 2007:500). There is, therefore, need to change of the mindset of the tourist. This may be achieved by encouraging environmentally responsible behaviour amongst tourists that upholds environmental aesthetics (Budeanu, 2007:501). In certain instances, some quicker and more radical changes in tourists can be achieved through increasing fines and fees for environmentally destructive behaviour. Tourists also need to be made aware of the consequences of their behaviour and provided with education on how they can behave responsibly for the sustainability of the environment they are visiting (Budeanu, 2007:501). Such shows concern for loss of wilderness and animals, flora and fauna, scenic areas and aesthetic beauty at destinations and a desire to protect biodiversity by the service providers.

CONCLUSION

Aesthetic values need to be interwoven into the whole process of planning, development and all operations of tourism and hospitality businesses. This is important in catering for the needs and expectations of an aesthetic oriented tourist. Conditions of business entities in tourism and hospitality within a destination determine the customer's experience and, to a large extent, influence the customer's decision to stay and revisit intentions. Therefore, to achieve sustainability in Zimbabwe, much has to done to preserve the environment and uphold aesthetic values in all forms of tourism and hospitality business development and operations. An increase in overall aesthetic value of a destination leads to a high frequency of revisits by an aesthetic-oriented customer.

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Chapter 3: Anchoring Territoriality and Spatiality into Green, Responsible and Sustainable Tourism Practice in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

This chapter aims at contributing towards the understanding of the challenges and opportunities in putting urbanity and rurality as critical territories for green, responsible and sustainable tourism. The point of departure in putting across this debate is that tourism always happens in a space and territory, that is either rural or urban. Nevertheless, a dissection towards an understanding of the dynamics and their implications in the planning and development of these areas towards the achievement of each of these aspects of the dichotomy is little understood. The purpose of the chapter is to differentiate the requirements including looking into the needs of the rural areas and those of the urban. Using the multi-case method approach, the chapter seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the rural and the urban situations of tourism and how and why greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe. It is observed that achieving green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe is a matter of ensuring that the matrix is filled up to include benchmarking and standardisation, social ecology, financing and corporate will being the mainstays for achieving this goal. Benchmarking includes appropriating the best standards in green and sustainable tourism globally and regionally and seeing how they fit or fail to fit with the aim of plugging the gap. Social ecology involves understanding the interface between what tourists visit to see against the fulfilment of the needs of the communities surrounding the attractions (in terms of access, control, ownership and utilisation). Financing is about that putting financial resources into the projects with the view of seeing them implemented and well monitored. Corporate will is about organisations involved being able to accept public policy and related instruments towards achieving responsible tourism. Overall, this chapter is about answering how communities and organisations (including businesses and government agencies) are putting resources towards achieving green, responsible and sustainable tourism in rural and urban Zimbabwe.

INTRODUCTION

The impact of tourism on the environmental, social and cultural characteristics of a destination has long been a matter of discussion in international debate and has triggered the search for alternative forms of tourism development. It gave the consideration of territorial competitiveness of tourism necessarily implying thinking about what and how the tourist space operates. This chapter is a contribution towards the understanding of the challenges and opportunities in putting urbanity and rurality as critical territories for green, responsible and sustainable tourism. The main thrust of putting across this discussion is that tourism always happens in a space and territory, that is either rural or urban. However, in the design and reconfiguration of the frameworks for sustainable tourism for both rural and urban areas, careful attention should be given to identifying investment and livelihood opportunities that can be built. This can help to answer how communities and organisations (including businesses and government agencies) are directing resources towards achieving green, responsible and sustainable tourism in rural and urban Zimbabwe.

The methods chosen to carry out this study were desktop study, case study approach and thematic content analysis. By using the multi-case method approach, the chapter seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the rural and urban situations of tourism and how and why greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe. Secondary data was based on document analysis. A review of the international literature on tourism in both rural and urban setups and the context in which it takes place globally, regionally and Zimbabwe, in particular, was done. The reviews were meant to establish current trends in other countries, be it developing or developed.

This chapter is organised as follows: the first part of the study is a review of the theoretical framework. It provides the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The second part of the study is the literature review. It looks at the published work in books, journals, case studies and other publications in relation to the study area. The third part of the study sets out the research methodology. It specifies the research methods and techniques used. The fourth part is concerned with the presentation and analysis of the research findings and trying to evaluate the conceptual issues in light of the research findings. The last part of the chapter is basically concerned with the summary of work, conclusions and recommendations.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section explains various theoretical terms in relation to the context of this study, namely place, territoriality, spatiality and rurality versus urbanity. Location is a key concept in tourism sector analysis, given the dependence of this activity on the natural, built, cultural and social characteristics of a certain territory. Tourism is a sector whose final motivation depends largely on enjoyment or carrying out activities linked to resources that, in many cases, are geographical/territorial, or involve geographic relationships. This entails a series of features such as the impossibility of moving many of these tourist resources, as they are relational and idiosyncratic, namely they are linked to a specific time (culture) and space (geography) (Barrado, 2014). Geographers have a long-standing interest in tourism planning and development (Hall and Page, 2014). The tourism industry operates as a link and medium between local and larger spatial scales and socio-economic and environmental systems. Arguably, these core – periphery/global – local relations, often characterised by inequalities and uneven power structures, call for critical tourism and planning geographies (Saarinen *et al.*, 2017). The consideration of territorial competitiveness of tourism necessarily implies thinking about what and how the tourist space operates. When it comes to tourism, consumers must go to the location as the services provided cannot be moved. These specific services are built around resources that stem from cultural, aesthetic, entertainment or recreational values that can neither be moved nor accumulated (Barrado, 2014). Undeniably, destinations become the stage for the interaction of touristic stakeholders, who build their products based on the geographic characteristics of the destination and the relationships they establish with other institutional and economic agents.

As a result, the tourist zoning is an important instrument for delimiting tourist areas in accordance with multiple criteria, to lay the foundations for finding the most suitable solutions of turning to good account the resources in this field (Constantin *et al.*, 2018). Spatial planning strategies operating at multiple scales have, in the last decade, come to be viewed as key policy instruments for effective territorial governance (Albrechts *et al.*, 2003; Vigar, 2009). Informed by the emergence of radical relational approaches to the theorisation of socio-spatial relations recent thinking on space, place and scale, has led to a fundamental questioning of the traditional and long-established notion of the “region” as a “closed”, “bounded” and territorial entity (Pike, 2007: 1144).

The debate surrounding the development of social and economic tourist activities is, therefore, based above all on analysing a territory, understood as:

the set of material and immaterial values, such as people, culture, historical legacy, urban and artistic heritage, infrastructures, localisation and any other type of situation that can increase the value of the single parts (Kotler *et al.*, 1993: 93).

A territory can be analysed through several different keys, emphasizing certain aspects, in particular those concerning the economic fabric and the demographic structure of the territory, or its natural, landscape-based and cultural resources. If these are intrinsically consistent resources, in both quantitative and qualitative terms, this naturally influences the local development processes, where they can help to achieve competitive goals, such as economic growth and social well-being. Well-being and tourism development are clearly interrelated (Heather *et al.*, 2016). Tourism development induces changes on the social character of a destination. Such changes affect the sustainable development of the destination and the relationship between hosts and tourists. Social carrying capacity, that is the maximum visitor density in an area at which the tourists still feel comfortable and uncrowded, needs to be managed carefully if a community is to continue benefiting from tourism and minimising the negative effects of tourism (Tarlow, 2014). Monterrubio *et al.* (2012) argue that crime, alcoholism and prostitution could also become issues of unstable social environment.

The influence of territory as a significant variable, pointing out that there is competition between territorial destinations to attract external investment, obtain market share or of their productive role in the division of work on the national or international scale. In this sense, the concept of territorial competitiveness is justified based on two different approaches for the concept of territory. There is a conceptualisation that could be called “traditional” and that is based on the importance that the territory has, as a dependent variable, in the provision of resources and production factors that companies could use individually. It could be said that this is based on “the role that territory plays in providing competitive environmental tools to individual companies” (Camagni, 2002: 2395). Indeed, the most traditional approach attributed to the territory from economic geography accepts the fact that the territory is part of the productive process, whether as fixed capital assets —generally understood as the land occupied by the various processes. Moreover, and essential for this more traditional vision, the territory must also be understood as a space - time

of access, either as the origin of resources or markets and depending on this, as cost. This forces one to take into consideration significant concepts for business and territorial competitiveness such as location and accessibility.

The second aspect that justifies the existence of true territorial competition is much more novel. It is a matter of understanding the territory and the resources that are available, such as historic, cultural and socially constructed facts and not just as pre-existing physical-natural realities (Barrado, 2014). Based on this new assessment, the territory is starting to be seen as an essential factor,

in the processes of knowledge accumulation and in the development of interpretative codes, models of cooperation and decisions on that the innovative progress of local companies is based (Camagni, 2014).

This conception of territory as a socially constructed fact gives it an enormous complexity and explanatory potential, among other aspects, from the standpoint of its role in the way production is organised and, in the generation and dissemination of innovation. In fact, while mass production is, to a great extent, supported by generic resources that tend to be evermore ubiquitous and mobile, new developmental models are based on specific resources, anchored and unmoved to the extent that their value is based on a set of environmental, social and cultural relationships that depend on a territorial basis (Albertos *et al.*, 2004). Thus, the consideration of territorial competitiveness of tourism necessarily implies thinking about what and how the tourist space operates. The second fundamental conceptual step is where applying economic management models to a tourist destination results in a “place” being defined as a “product” (Solima and Minguzzi, 2014).

The terms “urban” and “rural” are applied according to the space density of inhabitants, even though they are multifaceted and the term “rurality”, for example, is not easily defined (OECD, 1994). In a broader sense, urban environments are considered to be characterised by the predominance of economic sectors, secondary and tertiary education to higher levels, increased access to services and information, an attenuated sense of community, the greater spread of liberal and progressive ideas, lower fertility of the population, shorter average lives and higher proportions of immigrants. Urban tourism activity can be either integrated into the urban fabric or confined to distinct urban tourist zones. These geographic areas, that are planned and

managed for tourists, have been described by such terms as “tourist bubbles” (Judd and Feinstein, 1999). Tourism, in urban areas, is a spatially selective activity with tourist nodes or precincts clustered unevenly throughout a city (Pearce, 2001). The number of tourist nodes depends on both the size and geomorphology of a destination. Tourist nodes can be focused around icon attractions, shopping and business precincts or anchored by hotels (Pearce, 1998). But even though tourism may be perceived as a dominant facet of such zones, in reality it may not be the primary activity and tourists may not be the central user group (Ashworth and Page, 2011). Various commentators have pointed out that the use of culture to advance a range of social and economic goals is most apparent in cities (Griffiths, 2006); and urban arts festivals have proliferated to a greater degree than any other type (Pejovic, 2009). In the last 20 years, countless arts festivals have been staged in the interest of invigorating urban economies, regenerating entire cities or city districts and introducing or repositioning cities on the evermore competitive global stage (Yardimci, 2007).

Alternatively, rural settings are more devoted to primary activities, to agriculture and forests, inhabited by a population with a lower level of education, with less access to services and information, a greater sense of community, increased fertility, longer average lives, densification of traditional ideas and resistance to innovation, depopulation and high rates of migration to developing countries (Lall *et al.*, 2006). The expression “urban planning” is to be understood in its broadest sense – that is, the planning of man-made environments, indicating that there is still a degree of separation between urban and non-urban, that could be defined as the “urban-rural divide” (Scott *et al.*, 2007). Faced with the persistence of the “urban-rural divide”, the concept of rurality in Europe has become more complex because of the many tasks assigned to agriculture (including forestry) by recent common policy (Van Huylenbroeck *et al.*, 2007) and the actual European “mixture” between urban and rural ways of life.

Rural tourism development is a negotiated process involving several social actors: individuals, groups and organisations who interact to reach their own ends through negotiations with other social actors (Verbole, 1999). Consequently, understanding how rural tourism development evolves, requires answers to such questions as: Who initiates the development process?

How are terms of development negotiated? Who participates in such negotiations? Who benefits or loses from the process? Rural development is often determined and planned by outside social entities (governmental, quasi-public agencies, etc.) with only a few cases documented where local communities themselves initiated tourism development (Long, 2013). Considering the multitude of tourism impacts and the need to address them, it is clear that to define sustainable tourism, one needs to take into account the diverse and fragmented nature of the industry and that any attempt towards sustainable tourism practices needs a united and coordinated effort among all parties involved. Therefore, sustainable tourism must be the collective and conscious effort of all tourism businesses, governmental policy-makers and planners and key stakeholders (the society, the non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the community-based organisations (CBOs) and the tourists) to prioritise environmental and social issues in their daily undertakings. This definition precludes the idea that tourism impact management is solely the responsibility of one key tourism player or the government alone, because without cooperation from the numerous and diverse key stakeholders in tourism, any move towards sustainable tourism would seem incomplete. Table 1 presents the different concepts that define the relationship between the environment and tourism. The concepts shown in the table are derived from the sustainable development definition and have specific similarities and differences between themselves.

Table 1 *A typology of concepts applied to the relationship between the environment and tourism (Aall, 2014)*

Level of environmental awareness	Environment-sensitive tourism (reducing environmental impacts of tourism)	Environment-dependent tourism (utilising the environment as a resource basis for tourism)
Narrow	Green tourism	
	Environmentally-friendly tourism	Nature-based tourism
Deep	Eco-tourism	
	Sustainable tourism	Slow tourism
Broad	Geo-tourism	
	Alternative tourism	Rural tourism

Sustainable tourism is an approach to minimise the impact of tourism on the host community and destination, while trying to generate income and employment through tourism (Harrison, 2008). The approach got international

recognition and support with the World Conference on Sustainable Tourism, held on the island of Lanzarote in 1995. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) defines sustainable tourism as:

tourism that leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological process, biological diversity and life support systems (World Travel and Tourism Council *et al.*, 2015).

The key aspects of sustainable tourism are environmental sustainability, cultural sustainability and economic or developmental sustainability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this section is to contribute towards the understanding of challenges and opportunities in putting urbanity and rurality as critical territories for green, responsible and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe. The literature provides an insight to the reader towards an understanding of the moral premise of rural and urban tourism and how financing and benchmarking standards were used in other countries. The review goes further, showing the present gaps in our knowledge about the capabilities of such a mechanism being applied to a Zimbabwean scenario.

The profound and rapid changes that have taken place in the world in the past two decades have been mirrored in changes in tourism. Global political and economic reorganisations have resulted in the expansion of tourism both in a spatial sense and in terms of a significant increase in the size of the tourist market. Although these changes have been rapid and, in many cases, not anticipated, they have not had revolutionary effects upon tourism; rather, they have enabled it to grow in an evolutionary fashion (Butler, 1999). From both praxis and theoretical perspectives, the intangible and tangible manifestations of Indigenous tourism development have gained an academic following since the mid-20th century.

The mass tourism phenomena that emerged in the mid-twentieth century made tourism a growing feature in European cities from various aspects. Changes in the environmental sphere, however, appear likely to be more fundamental and even revolutionary in terms of their effects upon tourism, perhaps because they have been slower in coming to the fore and could be viewed as long overdue (*ibid.*). Geographers have long been interested in the relationships between tourism and the environments, both physical and human, in which it operates and it is logical that they would be particularly interested in the

discussion and application of sustainable development in the context of tourism. The extent and scope of tourism growth raises a question about its negative environmental and social impacts. By nature, tourism offerings depend greatly on environmental and cultural resources. As the industry offers predominantly resource-based activities that constantly interact with the natural systems, tourism has the capacity to initiate significant changes in the physical environment (Wahab and Pigram, 1997; Hassan, 2000).

The inevitable link between tourism and the physical and social environments implies that tourism's survival depends highly on its ability to minimise its negative impacts on these environments and societies. In other words, the quality of tourists' interaction will be diminished considerably if the natural setting of a tourism activity is polluted, degraded or loses its aesthetic qualities as a result of a poorly planned tourism development. The field of Tourism Studies has given substantial attention to the issue of sustainability since the late 1980s. However, despite the plethora of publications, conferences, plans and strategies that deal with sustainability, tourism is arguably less sustainable than it has ever been. Høyer (2008) has noted that tourism practices presenting themselves as environmentally-friendly, using headings like "eco-tourism", "green tourism", "sustainable tourism" and the like, have a tendency to imply longer travel distances to more remote places and more frequent use of air and private car transportation than the "standard" forms of tourism. The relationship between tourism and the environment has been greatly discussed, with the roots of this discourse reaching back to the very start of the tourism industry itself (*ibid.*).

Early works, with varying degrees, have been underpinned by the principles of sustainability and thus often espoused development that not only facilitates the economic well-being of indigenous peoples and ensures conservation of Indigenous cultural landscapes and the environment, but also (and above all), ensures tourism development is used as a positive opportunity for enhancing the social, cultural and place identity of indigenous peoples (Amoamo and Thompson, 2011; Lemelin *et al.*, 2013). These researchers explored issues around economic prosperity, tensions associated with the marketing of culture, enhancement of the socio-economic well-being of indigenous peoples and challenges within the broader contexts of environmental, economic, social and cultural sustainability when pursuing sustainable livelihoods. The shared global experiences of indigenous businesses were explored by Fletcher *et al.* (2016). Their paper presents a comparative review of Australian and North American international case studies of indigenous tourism ventures utilising

policy reviews, stakeholder interviews and on-site observations. They conclude that “best practice” approaches to sustainable development are dependent on the local context and stress the need for broader governing enablers (i.e., policy and land tenure), opportunities for collaboration that empower indigenous stakeholders and increase diversity within indigenous tourism product development.

Pereiro’s (2016) ethnographic fieldwork offers insights into Latin American indigenous communities with lessons from a specific case study on the Guna sustainable tourism model. The chapter conceptualises trends in Latin American indigenous tourism and debates best/bad practice arising from cultural commodification before presenting reflections and findings from collaborative anthropological fieldwork conducted in Guna Yala from 2003 to 2013. The Guna (1996) “Statute of Guna Tourism” enabled the Guna people to respond to growing visitor numbers via indigenous-led planning and monitoring of the visitor sector (Pereiro *et al.*, 2012). Thus, the community could respond through involvement in the provision of accommodation, activities and retail development. While the Guna may shape tourism, rather than being shaped by tourism, they still grapple with social and environmental challenges. Pereiro (*ibid.*) also observes cultural changes being shaped by factors other than tourism.

Reggers *et al.* (2016) undertook a longitudinal study (between 2004 and 2014) on the establishment of the Kokoda Trail in Papua New Guinea. Their richly informed paper critiques the implementation of a CBT approach to sustainable development, utilising participatory rural appraisal (PRA) techniques such as social mapping, where villagers could record amenities and plan tourism infrastructure. The authors express the need to be culturally and politically aware and utilising cautious approaches when collaborating with communities to ensure that planning (including their own adaptation of CBT and PRA within a Papua New Guinea context) is not merely adopting the latest “trend” or using development “buzzwords”. Issues of community rivalry, community dependency and the long-term commitment of Indigenous tourism researchers in a participatory planning process are also detailed within the paper.

Whitney-Squire (2016) presents a collaborative study that was undertaken with the Haida First Nation people of Haida Gwaii in British Columbia, Canada. Whitney-Squire discusses the significance of language to sustaining

indigenous communities and culture whilst, through language-based tourism initiatives, connecting individual indigenous peoples with their collective identity. Whitney-Squire examined related issues of empowerment and product development, self-identification and cultural integrity, not only with the Haida, but also with the Maori people of New Zealand and Hawaiians. She alerts readers to the culturally laden, multi-dimensionality of language and warns that whilst language can enhance or be central to tourism product development that revitalises community culture, caution is needed to ensure language is not stripped of its meaning and thus used out of context.

Hillmer-Pegram (2016) explores tourism impacts, particularly the burgeoning cruise tourism sector), on the values of the indigenous Inupiat people of Barrow, Alaska. Drawing on literature from sustainable tourism, indigenous tourism and the radical political economy of tourism, the chapter presents data that are analysed using a theoretical framework that examines issues around spaces of confluence and divergence with tourism development, tourists and the Inupiat. Shultis and Heffner (2016) examined indigenous management involvement in a co-managed national park in the Yukon Territory of Canada. It explores new approaches to integrate traditional ecological knowledge and cultural values that can inform decision-makers and protected area managers planning the conservation of biological diversity. The future role of indigenous peoples in the management of outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism in protected areas is the focus and they examine the barriers to conservation discourses that enable meaningful engagement by indigenous peoples. Indigenous tourism, underpinned by the principles of sustainable development, arguably provides opportunities to realise unique, often innovative, developments or management approaches that can be very beneficial to indigenous peoples.

Indeed, the increasing tourist flows have served to irrevocably alter many contemporary cities. Numerous airports, for instance, have been transformed from mere landing strips with small terminals into massive complexes that include shopping malls, hi-tech industrial parks and hotels (Gottdiener, 2000). Historical cities have become magnets for tourism to such an extent that their physical and social carrying capacities are actually placed in jeopardy (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000). Tourism works as a socio-spatial regime of transformation in everyday life in places around the world (Stein, 2008). Tourism destinations are replete with spatial configurations that include legal and property rights frameworks, itineraries, land-use regulations, enclosures,

ecologies and set ideas about who is a tourist, what is tourable and what is desirable to the tourist eye. Touristic socio-spatial regimes define (in)appropriate and often (il)legal, tourable objects and subjects and attempt to regulate and transform socio-natural relations by direct coercion and repression (Devine and Ojeda, 2017). The commodification of places, identities and experiences in tourism heightens the spatial stakes, identity politics and territorial struggles in practices of production and consumption in different regions in the developing world.

Over the past decade, tourism in the developing world has expanded at a rapid rate and will continue to flourish in the foreseeable future. In 2005, the WTO estimated that international tourists spent US\$203 billion in the developing world (UNWTO, 2005). As well, “tourism was the primary source of foreign exchange earnings in the 50 least developed countries” (UNWTO, 2007: 4). The popularity of alternative forms of tourism, such as ecotourism and rural tourism, ensures that many of these tourists visit the rural areas of the developing world and encourages the industry to expand into more remote destinations. The effect of tourism development in rural areas has been a topic of interest not only to tourism researchers, but also to scholars in development studies, geography, anthropology, sociology and planning, among others.

Some scholars have asserted that ecotourism and other alternative forms of tourism may resolve the problems associated with local retention of revenues, as these tourists are typically interested more in experiencing local conditions and are thus more willing to patronise locally owned establishments (Hampton, 1998). However, critics have pointed out that problems still persist, perhaps in part because of an exploitative core-periphery relationship that can take place on an international scale (Britton, 1982), national scale (Weaver, 1998) and regional scale (Walpole and Goodwin, 2000). These studies have argued that less developed regions are frequently unable to take full advantage of tourism, as the more developed regions tend to own a majority of tourism businesses and less developed regions must import goods used in the tourism industry. Additionally, because the local communities in the periphery typically do not have the capital to create substantial businesses or the expertise to gain upper-level employment, they are often limited to menial labour or selling cheap crafts. This lack of local involvement often results in high external leakages that hinder economic development (Britton, 1982; Lindberg *et al.*, 1996; Lindberg, 1998). Rural areas are typically unable to

supply the tourism industry with the goods it needs to sustain itself at a competitive price. This requires goods to be imported from other areas.

In many respects, the imagined Africa has been strongly linked to wild environments and wilderness, that represents an opposite to culture and civilisation in Western thinking (Saarinen, 1998). The resultant domination of nature-based tourism activities has left local people and cultures in a relatively smaller role in tourism products. Thus, in the past, the position of cultural tourism occasionally was characterised as being a complement to wildlife, safari and wilderness tourism, rather than having its own distinctive profile and justification as a regional tourism product (Manwa, 2007). Currently, across southern Africa, cultural tourism is becoming more visible and important in the region's tourism development, including for the region's tourism policy-makers.

As Manwa, Moswete and Saarinen (2016) record, southern Africa is endowed with diverse cultural resources that include numerous ethnic groups, languages, communities, traditions, religions, archaeological sites, museums, industrial sites, townships, battlefields, San rock art paintings and carvings, rural landscape, cuisine, vineyards and other heritage resources (Tomaselli, 2012). As a result, nowadays several countries in the region see the promotion of cultural tourism as a viable strategy that can be used for poverty alleviation, inclusive growth and socio-economic development. Many African countries, including Botswana, Ghana, Mali, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zimbabwe, are using cultural tourism as a niche product to diversify their tourism economies (Rogerson, 2012).

Zimbabwe has a unique abundance of exceptional natural landscapes, fauna and flora that attract an emerging breed of domestic and international wildlife tourists who seek the experience of being able to explore an unspoilt ecosystem and its inhabitants. There is need to put urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective for green, responsible and sustainable tourism practice through appropriating the best standards in green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe and see how they fit or fail to fit with the aim of plugging the gap.

RESULTS

This section embarks on presentation, analysis and discussion of the research findings. The findings of the study are analysed following the dominant themes that emerged in the study. The main themes were benchmarking and

standardisation, social ecology, financing, corporate will and how communities and organisations mobilise resources. The findings and the discussion thereof are presented below.

BENCHMARKING AND STANDARDISATION

It is noted from the study that all certification programmes, no matter what they are certifying or what kind of criteria they use, should follow some set of best practice standards in terms of operational and procedural aspects. The sector was limping in terms of strategic direction and also without well-orchestrated development and an informed growth path resonating with one key centre of focus. This, in turn, had placed the nation and sector in a negative competitive advantage in the region (*Newsday*, 2018).

In line with benchmarking and standardising activities in the tourism industry the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry (MoTHI) submitted formal requests for support in aligning the Tourism Act [Chapter 14:20] with the Constitution. The project provided technical research support in the review of the Tourism Act [Chapter 14:20] for purposes of identifying legislative gaps that are inconsistent with the Constitution and international conventions and treaties relating to tourism that the Government of Zimbabwe is party to. The Tourism Act was regarded as inconsistent with the standards in the UNWTO, that the State has a legal obligation to implement and incorporate into legislation and policy in accordance with Section 34 of the Constitution. Gaps and issues identified in the Tourism Act were:

1. the definitions of tourism and tourist in the Act are inconsistent with the definitions in the UNWTO;
2. the Act does not adequately addressing internal tourism in a similar manner as in the global code of ethics for tourism of the UNWTO;
3. there are no guidelines in the Act by which the responsible Ministry can implement tourism ethics in the global code of ethics;
4. issues such as sustainable tourism, eco-tourism, among others, are not addressed in the Act that simply focuses on the establishment of the ZTA; and
5. the linkage between the national and local boards is not defined.

The Act should encompass issues to do with cultural tourism under the framework of “Culture” pronounced in section 16 of the Constitution (Stakeholder Consultation Report, 2015).

To ensure benchmarking and standardisation in the tourism sector, the National Tourism Master Plan was developed. The process was led by Keois Consultants, with funding from the African Development Bank. Consultation of over 1 000 people to come up with an implementable master plan was done. The National Tourism Master Plan had identified 11 development zones that include Bulawayo, Midlands, Victoria Falls, Mavhuradonha and Kariba and two national projects, the National Heritage Trails and the National Tourism Signage project that would enhance the visibility and uniqueness of Zimbabwe as a destination. The plan is expected to drive the growth and success of the sector in the next two decades and help attain the vision of Zimbabwe becoming one of the top five tourism destinations in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) (*Newsday*, 2017). The target is to have the tourism sector improving its earnings from the current \$1 billion to over \$5 billion, with tourist arrivals expected to multiply to 12,5 million by 2035.

In line with the United Nations General Assembly designated 2017 the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development, Zimbabwe launched a Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development under the theme, *Travel, Enjoy and Respect* on June 2017. The global designation was used as a way of bringing all stakeholders together to exchange ideas to foster sound partnership to advance tourism for sustainable development and poverty eradication in Zimbabwe. A plethora of tourism certification programmes have sprung up in Zimbabwe to recognise tourism businesses that truly work to reduce negative impacts by using sustainable practices. Accreditation provides certification programmes with the legitimacy and credibility they need to differentiate their programmes and thus the certified tourism businesses, from others with weaker standards and may eventually lead to a shift of the tourism industry towards more sustainable practices. Since the tourism industry is so diverse, offering both products and services, and has such a far-reaching supply chain, certification across the industry is not an easy task in Zimbabwe. Most certification programmes have, therefore, focused on certifying lodging facilities that are at the heart of most tourists' vacations. A small but growing number of programmes certify other sectors of the tourism industry such as tourism operators, tour guides, parks, convention centres, golf courses and transport providers. Another challenge for the success of sustainable tourism certification is the difficulty in creating criteria that accurately measure triple bottom line standards of social, economic and environmental sustainability. Socio-cultural criteria are noted as being especially open to interpretation.

SOCIAL ECOLOGY

It is noted from the study that understanding consumer behaviour and, more specifically, tourist behaviour, helps organisations design their products and services, improve their strategies and satisfy their clients. Creating synergies between culture and tourism for permanent and temporary citizens is one more step for sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe. As the spaces and administrative contexts in which culture, creativity and tourism most frequently, come together, rural and urban areas need to react to and increasingly direct such relationships. However, tourism is often blamed for producing negative sociocultural, ecological and economic impacts in Zimbabwe (Kabote, 2013). Community concerns and visitor satisfaction are psychological measures of tourism impacts that are collectively labelled as a people-centric approach, because communities or visitors set the limits of acceptable change. Being a subjective measure, the perception of impacts varies within and between communities and tourists, as they may have their own perceptions of impacts, or they may have different preferences about the nature of tourism development. For example, at Great Zimbabwe, there are at least four communities that are living in the ten-kilometre buffer zone. It is noted that acculturation and commoditisation of culture were major concerns raised from the communities who feared losing their traditional way of life (Marunda *et al.*, 2014).

FINANCING

The Government of Zimbabwe provided some incentives that were meant to support refurbishment and expansion programmes of tourism facilities. It was noted from the study that the \$15 million Tourism Revolving Fund was set up by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe as a way to undertake major renovations at Cresta Oasis, Cresta Lodge, Cresta Churchill in Bulawayo and Cresta Sprayview in Victoria Falls (*Herald*, 2017). The US Agency for International Development (USAID) provides financial assistance for tourism-related infrastructure and ecotourism activities as part of its economic development and environmental programmes. Development cooperation includes grants to governmental and non-governmental organisations, including technical assistance and provision of equipment. The European Community (EU) has led the way in providing support for the expansion of tourism in developing countries, including Zimbabwe. The British Department for International Development (DFID) underwent an evaluation of its role in tourism and decided to focus on nature tourism in particular. SNV, a Dutch development cooperation agency, also has been active in tourism over the years and has undergone internal consideration and discussion of desired involvement in this

field. SNV supports this kind of development through research, training, marketing and transfer of knowledge and finance (SNV, 2012). It was noted from the study that the major challenge for sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe is lack of low-cost financing for the tourism sector. Tourism infrastructure development is limited by lack of capital, given the liquidity crunch in the economy and limitations with regards to offshore financing due to the country's external payment arrears. Furthermore, access to domestic credit remains constrained by the not so conducive lending tenures being offered by the market. For instance, it was noted that the average tenure of the lending, though improved from between 30 and 90 days in January 2010 to levels of 180 days, did not meet long-term borrowing requirements for capital expenditures. Such terms and conditions are not supportive of long-term capital investments. In addition, when funds are available, they are often prohibitively expensive compared to external borrowing. As of end of 2012, lending rates ranged from 10% to 35% per annum, compared to interest rates offered by some donor agencies, that are concessionary in nature, for example, the World Bank and some government-to-government facilities attract interest rates of below 2% over lengthy tenures. Hence, a deliberate effort should be put in place to resolve the enablers issue, that has become a challenge to the whole economy (World Bank, 2012).

CORPORATE WILL

This study shows heightened attention and enthusiasm to corporate social responsibility in the sector an escapable priority. Zimbabwe's Pamushana Lodge sounds alarmingly opulent. Malilangwe's Neighbour Outreach Programme spending on community projects totals over Z\$31m. The list of concrete achievements includes the construction of clinics and classrooms, the provision of bursaries to over 280 primary, secondary and tertiary students and the donation of textbooks worth the Z\$450 000 to schools (Siyabona Africa, 2017).

Corporates and organisations are providing support, research, education and training and campaigns on tourism and hospitality sustainability practices and procedures. These corporates are working with partners committed to moving the agenda forward in reducing the negative and enhancing the positive economic, environmental and social-cultural impacts of tourism and related industries. For example, Rainbow Tourism Group (RTG) has realised the benefits of adopting lasting solutions to social responsibility values programmes through engaging and participating in initiatives that add value not only to local communities, but to its business as well. The group continued

with its sponsorship drive in areas of environment and health. During the first quarter of 2010, the Kadoma Hotel and Conference Centre donated a water pump to Kadoma Provincial Hospital. The provision of the water pumps alleviated the plight of pregnant women and new-born babies in the Mashonaland West Province. The group, through Environment Africa was in 2010, awarded the 2009 Corporate Environment Award in recognition of its initiatives in raising awareness in local communities on the benefits of adopting environmentally sustainable practices. This initiative focused on the fundamentals of environmental awareness and advocated for a hands-on approach in the replenishing of trees in view of the desertification the country is faced with (Rainbow Tourism Group, 2010).

HOW COMMUNITIES AND ORGANISATIONS MOBILISE RESOURCES

Stakeholders have a role in continuing this form of sustainable tourism. This encompasses organisations and individuals. The private sector provides tourists and the tourism sector goods, facilities and services. They have the responsibility of specific infrastructure, accommodation services, specific activity in tourist attractions development and promotion through marketing activities. Local communities take part in identifying and promoting tourist resources and attractions that form the basis of community tourism development. Through the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme, empowerment and resident participation are considered essential. Some CAMPFIRE communities raise income by leasing land to tour operators such as the horseback safari company in Mavuradona. National Museums and Monuments in Zimbabwe (NMMZ) at Great Zimbabwe World Heritage site attempts to engage local communities in the management of the site through establishment of a local committee called Local Community Management Committee. These local people are usually the chief's representatives and are supposed to report back to the chief and the community of all developments at the site. However, communication between the trustees and the communities has not been effective and hence the relationship is not cordial. It is further argued that community participation in decision-making increases people's trust and confidence in the tourism industry. It also provides the local community with a voice in design and decision-making to improve plans, service delivery and, finally, promotes a sense of community by bringing together people who share common goals. The perceived hospitality of the local community is a major social factor forming part of the macro environment with regards to warmth of reception, ease of communication, willingness of residence to provide

information to tourists and attitudes towards tourists and the tourist industry (Nhuta, 2015).

It is observed that achieving green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe is a matter of ensuring that the matrix is filled up to include benchmarking and standardisation, social ecology, financing and corporate will, being the mainstays for achieving this goal. From the study, it is noted that various pieces of legislation in place have a bearing towards access, control, ownership and utilisation. These pieces of legislation include the Constitution of Zimbabwe 2013, the Regional Town and Country Planning Act, the National Monuments Act, the Parks and Wildlife Act, the Rural District Councils Act, the Urban Councils Act, the Traditional Leadership Act and the National Tourism Master Plan. These pieces of legislation form the crux of putting urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective for green, responsible and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe (*Herald*, 2017).

It is noted that the Constitution of Zimbabwe (Amendment Act 20) of 2013 is the supreme law of the country and all laws, practices, norms and values are subject to it. For purposes of tourism legislation, it is instructive that the obligations imposed by the Constitution are binding on every person, natural or juristic, including the State and all executive, legislative and judicial institutions and agencies of government at every level and must be fulfilled by them. It must be borne in mind that the State is enjoined by the Constitution to take measures to preserve, protect and promote indigenous knowledge systems, including knowledge of the medicinal and other properties of animal and plant life possessed by local communities and people. As such, it should be noted that each and every piece of legislation conforms to the principles of the Constitution, be it rural or urban areas, in a way to promote sustainable tourism.

Apart from the Constitution of Zimbabwe, it was also noted that the Regional Town and Country Planning Act (RTCPA) of 1976 (revised 1996) provides for standards and principles that determine who is supposed to practise what, how, where and when. The general framework of the RTCPA provides for the guideline of accessing and controlling, resources in both rural and urban areas. Part I11 Section 10-11 and Part 1V, Section 13-21 of the RTCPA of 1976 provided for the preparation of master and local plans tourism areas. In the preparation of these plans, the responsible authorities are required by the Act to follow procedures that ensure that there is a large degree of conserving and improving the physical environment and in particular promoting health,

safety, order, amenity, convenience and general welfare. The essential theory is that all areas will have a statutory long-term plan and that all subsequent development will be managed and controlled in accordance with such plans. The RTCPA guides harmonious development in both rural and urban areas.

In addition, the National Museums and Monuments Act (Chapter 25:11) aims to provide for the preservation of ancient, historical and natural monuments, relics and other objects of historical or scientific value or interest. Through the Act, the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ) administer monuments in the country. Like any other piece of legislation, the Parks and Wildlife Act plays a pivotal role on how access and control in parks and wildlife is undertaken. The Act laid the foundation for the initial and subsequent development of the wildlife industry in Zimbabwe. The passing of the National Parks and Wildlife Act devolved appropriate authority over wildlife to landowners and laid the foundation for private wildlife conservation in Zimbabwe. Through this Act, the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZIMPARKS) was established in 2001. The Authority is mandated to conserve Zimbabwe's wildlife heritage through effective, efficient and sustainable protection and utilisation of natural resources for the benefit of present and future generations.

It is noted that areas that require sustainable tourism lie in different jurisdictions. The Rural District Councils Act and the Urban Councils Act cater for rural and urban jurisdictions, respectively. The two acts provide for the setting up of urban/rural councils and or urban/rural settlements. For example, the Rural District Councils Act includes a schedule that clearly specifies the areas in which rural councils enjoy privileges of enacting legally binding by-laws.

Lastly, the Traditional Leadership Act provides for best practices in green and sustainable tourism in Zimbabwe. It is enshrined in the Act that traditional leaders are the custodians of the areas under their jurisdictions. Traditional societies enforced wildlife conservation by discouraging indiscriminate killing of animals and birds. It was believed that wanton killing of wildlife was punishable by the spirits and control mechanisms were found in traditional taboos, totems and customs. Traditional taboos and customs enabled the people in pre-colonial Zimbabwe to live in harmony with nature by maintaining a healthy balance between them and their environment. However, the advent of colonialism in the last decade of the 19th century in Zimbabwe severely disrupted the harmony and close ties that had existed between

indigenous peoples and nature. The established colonial administration introduced protective and command type natural resource and wildlife conservation legislation to preserve once plentiful wildlife populations.

DISCUSSION

The findings point to a deep-seated lack of good governance within the Zimbabwean natural resource management system that renders some programmes inappropriate to context. Involvement of various actors in tourism has created confusion in all aspects of environmental governance, especially in the structure of the government in terms of which ministries, agencies and departments has control over what aspect of the environment or environmental management and the hierarchy of this governance. There is a further confusion about the policies in place in Zimbabwe, with many different actors from international to local scales attempting a plethora of different activities that frequently conflict, overlap or duplicate each other. This confusion is best shown at district level, where the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Management (DNPWM) give Appropriate Authority (AA) RDCs.

In the design and reconfiguration of the frameworks for tourism, careful attention should be given to identifying investment and livelihood opportunities that can be built. In particular, green, responsible and sustainable tourism practice needs to be institutionally located in a way that allows it to play a role in putting urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective. Planning can and should play a significant role in overcoming governance fragmentation in public policy formulation and decision-making, since most national and local development policies and related investments in tourism have a spatial dimension. It can do this most effectively through building horizontal and vertical relationships using place and territory as loci for linking planning with the activities of other policy sectors, such as infrastructure provision. Therefore, regulatory power needs to be combined with investment and broader public-sector decision-making.

Spatial planning strategies operating at multiple scales have in the last decade come to be viewed as key policy instruments for effective territorial governance. Informed in particular by the emergence of radical relational approaches to the theorisation of socio-spatial relations recent thinking on space, place and scale, has led to a fundamental questioning of the traditional and long-established notion of the “region” as a “closed”, “bounded” and territorial entity. Considering the multitude of tourism impacts and the need to

address them, it is clear that to define sustainable tourism, one needs to take into account the diverse and fragmented nature of the industry and that any attempt towards sustainable tourism practices needs a united and coordinated effort among all parties involved.

CONCLUSION, POLICY OPTIONS AND PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter set to explore the gaps, that exist between urban and rural areas in Zimbabwe for sustainable tourism. Putting urban and rural territoriality and spaces into perspective for green, responsible and sustainable tourism practice requires planners to engage and work with the tourism industry, investigate issues related to governance and regulation and doing research for the tourism sector. The key issues that have been noted include the design and reconfiguration of the frameworks for tourism, paying particular attention to benchmarking and standardisation, social ecology and financing. It is noted that sustainable tourism must be the collective and conscious effort of all tourism businesses, governmental policy-makers and planners and key stakeholders to prioritise environmental and social issues in their daily undertakings. It is concluded that the inevitable link between tourism and the physical and social environments implies that tourism's survival depends highly on its ability to minimise its negative impacts on these environments and societies.

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Chapter 4: Participation of Women in Green Tourism

ALICE ZINYEMBA

Abstract

This chapter discusses the role of women in green tourism and sustainable tourism development. The terms ecotourism” and “green tourism” are often used interchangeably, especially as they relate to sustainable tourism development. Gender concerns in tourism in general and women empowerment and its impact on green tourism are explored. While implementing green tourism has brought about both positive and negative impacts on women development, there are barriers that inhibit women from participating effectively. These barriers include limited information on the sector, lack of education in financial and investment strategies, stiff competition from men, poor access to land ownership, among others. However, the major challenges for gender equity in tourism include access to and control of sectors of the economy that generates income. Green tourism can contribute to gender equality if empowerment policies are put in place.

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this chapter are to increase the reader’s knowledge and understanding of:

1. Green tourism and sustainable tourism development;
2. Gender issues in green tourism development;
3. Empowerment of women in green tourism; and
4. Impact of green tourism on women.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a fast-growing industry worldwide. It is utilised as a tool for job creation and for increasing domestic and foreign investment. Sustainability is of great concern and a major issue when it comes to tourism and hospitality industry. Sustainable tourism rests on three pillars, namely environmental, social and economic sustainability. Participation of women in these three pillars of sustainable tourism is very important because more women than men are employed in this sector. Although women tend to be concentrated in the lowest paid and lowest status jobs in tourism in general, they perform a large amount of unpaid work in family tourism businesses. Despite women activism and policies such as affirmative action and quota systems instituted

by governments worldwide, there continues to be under representation of women leaders in all sectors of the economy worldwide.

The Global Report on Women in Tourism (2011) also notes that in terms of employment women are well represented but tend to be working at a service or clerical rather than professional or decision-making level in all sectors of the economy. The same report also notes in that entrepreneurial sector, women are almost twice as likely to be employers in the tourism industry than in other sectors and often employ more women than men. While tourism often contributes to community development and provides opportunities for women's self-employment, the same report finds that women are contributing a large amount of unpaid work in tourism family businesses, especially when compared to other sectors, hence the need for women to be empowered.

Zimbabwe is a patriarchal society where women are subordinate to men (FAO, 2017). Women are responsible for performing household duties such as cooking, cleaning and caring for children and other family members. About 60% of the women participate in the labour force against a figure of 74.3% men (*ibid.*). There is enough justification for the need to empower women in the tourism industry. The tourism industry is heavily reliant on its natural environment and sustaining and enhancing that environment must be a key long-term objective for the industry. Sustainable tourism is an all-encompassing term that can also be applied to many green tourism practices, although a sustainable tourism operation would also include social and economic principles and green environmental practices. There is also a growing market for green products and in the tourism industry, the green tourist is becoming increasingly interested in ensuring that their holiday experiences are undertaken sustainably and that environmental management and sustainability principles are adopted and evident in the service provision. Women can play a big role in providing such green products and services.

The chapter presents the definitions of green and sustainable tourism, the drivers of tourism, women's participation and gender issues in green tourism, positive and negative benefits of green tourism and makes recommendations for the empowerment of women in green tourism and sustainable tourism.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) defines ecotourism as "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and

improves the well-being of local people”. As such, eco-tourism is an aspect of sustainable development. It rests on the principles of minimising the impact, promoting biodiversity, building environmental awareness and respecting local culture. The primary attractions for eco-tourists are flora, fauna and cultural heritage. Eco-tourism is described as a more “alternative’ and “hard” form of tourism that is primarily nature-based. It must, in some way, assist with conservation efforts for biodiversity and involve the participation of local indigenous people and cultures in a way that protect their quality of life and sustains their well-being. It should involve a learning experience and be carried out in an ecologically sustainable way. Ecotourism involves people travelling to endangered environments or locations where the ecosystem is overly fragile, offering them some type of education regarding the local ecosystem and offering solutions as to how it can be better preserved.

The term “green tourism” is sometimes used interchangeably with the term “ecotourism”. Green tourism implies taking concrete steps to conserve natural resources, protect plants and wildlife and must contribute to the well-being of local communities. It is a term that can be applied to any form of tourism that relates to the natural environment and cultural heritage of an area or that undertakes good environmental management (or green) practice.

Green tourism is a form of ecotourism. It is low-impact tourism with an eye toward protecting the environment and culture of an area. Green tourism aims at protecting green environment with concepts of green consumption activities, to achieve social responsibility, economic development and ecological sustainability.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM ACTIVITY

Most researchers agree that a successful sustainable tourism activity should have the following characteristics (Ecotourism Association of Australia, 1998):

1. Dependent on the natural environment;
1. Is ecologically sustainable;
2. Contributes to conservation;
3. Features interpretation and education;
4. Incorporates cultural considerations; and
5. There is a net return/benefit to the local community.

Any tourism activity must exhibit those characteristics for it to be termed sustainable.

CRITERIA FOR SUSTAINABLE GREEN TOURISM ACTIVITY

All green tourism activities need to show evidence of preventing or minimising impacts to the environment. The above characteristics of sustainable tourism apply to green tourism activities. However, there are three special considerations for a tourism practice to be considered “green [and these are:

1. The wise use of resources such as raw materials, water and energy;
- b. The prevention of pollution (air, land and water); and
- c. The protection and, where possible, the enhancement of biodiversity.

If a tourism activity meets these three criteria, then it qualifies to be called a green tourism activity.

A vacation can also be greened and there are many ways of greening up a vacation. Green tourism activities range from recycling and grey water systems to tents on tree house-like platforms with a rain forest canopy. Simple efforts, such as keeping to designated pathways, eating where locally grown cuisine is served and visiting cultural areas, instead of typical tourist attractions, can go a long way toward “greening up” a standard vacation. In all these activities, women can play a major role in green tourism.

A very green holiday can be spent studying the local flora, fauna and cultural heritage of the area and learning ways to protect and preserve it. Guides, tours and wildlife-viewing platforms help tourists experience all that an area must offer while making little or no impact on the environment. There also are trips available in which vacationers take an active part in improving the local area by working to preserve the natural habitat, helping to build a school or performing other services that benefit the area. These vacations can be hard work, but many people find them to be very rewarding and interesting learning experiences.

PRINCIPLES OF ECOTOURISM APPLICABLE TO GREEN TOURISM

Butler (1992) outlined eight key principles of ecotourism as follows:

1. It must be consistent with a positive environmental ethic, fostering preferred behaviour;
2. It does not denigrate the resource. There is no erosion of resource integrity;
3. It concentrates on intrinsic rather than extrinsic values;
4. It is bio-centric rather than homocentric in philosophy, in that an ecotourist accepts nature largely on its terms, rather than significantly transforming the environment for personal convenience;

5. It must benefit the resource. The environment must experience a net benefit from the activity, although there are often spin-offs of social, economic, political, or scientific benefits;
6. It is first-hand experience with the natural environment;
7. There is, in ecotourism, an expectation of gratification measured in appreciation and education, not in thrill-seeking or physical achievement;
8. There are high cognitive (informational) and effective (emotional) dimensions to the experience, requiring a high level of preparation from both leaders and participants.

DRIVERS FOR GREEN TOURISM

There are several factors that push or drive the need and demand for green tourism. These factors include the following:

1. Environment conservation is receiving high profile coverage in media. There is a worldwide societal consciousness about nature, protection and appreciation.
2. At the individual level there is a growing interest for the need to “reconnect” with nature and to seek out experiences of a more spiritual and thought-provoking nature coupled with physically challenging experiences.
3. There is increasing pressure in the workplace for conserving the environment with companies being encouraged to set up environment friendly practices that reduce pollution and generally save the nature. Many companies have set up Safety, Health and Environment (SHE) departments responsible for reducing the negative impacts of industrial operations on the environment.
4. At the global level, there is improved access to the countryside and more free time and disposable income for an increased number of people.
5. Rural and agricultural communities in remote areas of the world are increasingly becoming interesting vacation destinations. There is a growing recognition and interest in preserving heritage and culture of such communities

In other words, green tourism, does not necessarily mean the leisure time spent in tourism sites with comforts and contributes to local environment, culture or economy, but on the contrary, it is also an adventure to balance the relationship between people and the environment in the sense of physical and emotional.

There is growing concern with issues of sustainable environment practices. Green tourism represents a new paradigm that requires holistic ecological approaches or strategies that effectively address the needs of tourism consumers and meeting the needs of suppliers of tourism services while, at the same time, maintaining sustainable environment. The international tourism industry has grown to include alternative types of tourism, one of the most popular being ecotourism. Green tourism is an aspect of ecotourism. The global environmental movement of the late 1970s stimulated the growth of ecotourism and by the 1990s, ecotourism had become one of the fastest growing alternative tourism industries.

GENDER ISSUES IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM

The Global Report on Women in Tourism was launched in March 2011. The report highlighted the following findings:

1. Women make up a large proportion of the formal tourism workforce
2. Women are well represented in service and clerical level jobs, but poorly represented at a professional level;
3. Women in tourism are typically earning 10% to 15% less than their male counterparts;
4. The tourism sector has almost twice as many women employers as other sectors;
5. 20% of tourism ministers worldwide are women;
6. Women make up a much higher proportion of own-account workers in tourism than in other sectors; and
7. A large amount of unpaid work is being carried out by women in family tourism businesses.

While tourism often contributes to community development and provides opportunities for women's self-employment, the Global Report found that women were contributing a large amount of unpaid work in tourism family businesses, especially when compared to other sectors. It is important that gender is considered by proponents of ecotourism for three major reasons:

1. Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Number 5 is "achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls". The engagement of women in tourism in general, and green tourism in particular, is essential to the realisation of this goal.

2. Women play a big role in heritage and culture preservation. Participation of women in all activities of sustainable tourism and green tourism in particular is of great importance.
3. More women than men are found in rural and agricultural areas. Gender issues are important to promote good natural resource management that protects key resources upon which ecotourism is based.

It is important to consider gender to ensure that ecotourism and green tourism initiatives benefit from the skills and knowledge of a broad range of members at the local community levels.

Gender equity is recognised as a basic human right. It is endorsed in the SDGs and seen as a key principle by many development partners who fund ecotourism initiatives in developing countries around the globe. According to this rationale, women and men should both participate in decision-making fora concerning ecotourism development and management. They should share equitably the benefits flowing from ecotourism initiatives. A gender-sensitive approach to tourism can, therefore, be seen as in the interests of all tourism stakeholders, whether their main motivation is conservation, equity, or business success.

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) is a specialised agency of the United Nations. It is committed to enhancing the positive impact of tourism on the development of women. By so doing it contributes to SDG Number 5. In furtherance of this commitment, the UNWTO dedicated the World Tourism Day in 2007 to the theme of “tourism opens doors for women”. It also organised a forum on Women in Tourism at the 2008 edition of the Berlin Tourism Fair. Ever since, the UNWTO has been working closely with UN Women to bring gender issues to the forefront of the tourism industry. It does this through its Ethics and Social Responsibility Programme, in partnership with UN Women. Through this partnership, it promotes gender equality and women’s empowerment and encourages member states to mainstream gender issues in their respective tourism policies.

BARRIERS TO WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN GREEN TOURISM

Women participation in green tourism is hampered by several entry barriers to the industry. These barriers include limited information on the sector, lack of education in financial and investment strategies, stiff competition from men, poor access to land ownership, among others.

Major challenges for gender equity in tourism include access to and control of sectors of the economy that generate income. This observation is true for Kenya as well. Barry (2012) observed that most women in Kenya, as elsewhere in the developing world, are overburdened by culturally defined roles, such as water-fetching, child-rearing and housework. She noted that these daily chores are essential for their survival, but do not generate hard cash. By creating a venue for women to generate hard cash through ecotourism projects, these gender roles can become a thing of the past and help ease the physical burden on women.

THE ZIMBABWE GENDER POLICY AND IMPLEMENTATION

In 2017, Zimbabwe had a total population of 13 061 239, 52% of which were female (6 780 700) and 48% male (6 280 539) (FAO, 2017). Its urban population comprised 33% of the population, while 67% were rural. The revised 2013-2017 Zimbabwe National Gender Policy stated that women's political and economic empowerment is key to the country's economic development (*ibid.*). Its vision is for a Zimbabwe where there is equity between men and women, equally contributing and benefiting from the development of the country as equal partners (*ibid.*). A theme group, the National Gender Forum, coordinated by the United Nation Women's Organisation (UN Women) was formed to provide a platform for regular dialogue between government and civic society. It comprises academics, representatives of the private sector with interest in gender equity and the girl child and faith-based organisations (SADC, 2015). Through the Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF), the United Nations is working to achieve gender equality by implementing and monitoring laws and policies and empowering women and girls to actively participate in social activities (ZUNDAF, 2014).

These gender issues apply to women participation in green tourism. Green Tourism is a certification programme based in the UK. It works on the following principles of green tourism:

1. It should be profitable for business;
2. It should conserve and enhance the environment;
3. It should protect and support people and community; and
4. It should improve the visitor's experience.

Green tourism members are listed on their web site. Zimbabwe offers Green Tourism awards using the above criteria.

WOMEN AND EMPOWERMENT IN GREEN TOURISM

DEFINITIONS OF EMPOWERMENT

There are many definitions of empowerment. For the purposes of this chapter, empowerment is defined as the enhancement “of an individual’s or group’s capacity to make choices and transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes” (Andrews, Barbera, Mickle and Novick, 2013). Women must be empowered socially, economically, psychologically and politically to effectively participate in green tourism.

WOMEN EMPOWERMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The engagement of women in tourism in general and green tourism in particular is essential to the realisation of SDG Number 5. The engagement of women in all aspects of tourism activities is essential and considered vital. This aspect is acknowledged by the UNWTO. Theoretically, tourism development may contribute to gender equality. For this to happen women’s empowerment policies must be put in place. For women to participate effectively in green tourism development, they must be empowered.

DIMENSIONS OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

With regards to tourism studies, empowerment can be classified into four dimensions of community capacity that include economic, social, psychological and political empowerment.

Scheyvens (1999) has identified and discussed these dimensions of empowerment. Given that development is multidimensional in nature, it is important to consider issues such as whether the local community derives financial or monetary benefits from ecotourism (Scheyvens, 2000).

ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Economic empowerment happens when the local community has control over an ecotourism venture. As regards women, economic empowerment implies fair distribution of economic benefits of tourism activities by the local community. Economic empowerment can also be defined as “increasing fiscal means and power in a woman’s life such as increase in income and position in the household”. Rural tourism products include homestays, ecotourism, agrotourism, cultural and heritage-based tourism. All these tourism activities have the potential to enhance local community livelihoods. Snyman, 2015). One such alternative form of sustainable livelihood is ecotourism. The authors argue that the creation of income-generating activities for women through

ecotourism would help alleviate poverty, improve the status of women and promote sustainable development of the local communities.

As regards economic empowerment, available literature reveals that local women are often ignored in formal employment, especially when lodges and other ecotourism sites are established. Women miss out on formal employment opportunities in ecotourism, because social norms continue to restrict the type of economic activities in which women may engage. The discrimination of women in formal employment has been reported in Kenya (Mwangi, 2005). In her analysis of the social impact of ecotourism project in the Selenkei Ranch in Amboseli, Kajiado County, Mwangi found out that women were not employed at the conservancy as their role was to take care of children. Similar observations have been reported in Asia. Wilkinson and Pratiwi (1995) have established that women are overlooked when it comes to tour guiding in the Himalayas and Indonesia. Many women felt that they could not exploit this relatively lucrative economic opportunity, because the women who would be involved in such activities would be labelled as “prostitutes”. Sustainable tourism development can be realised if the local community actively participates in tourism activities and derive economic benefits from it. In summary, economic empowerment implies increasing fiscal means and power in a woman’s life.

POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT

A community that is politically empowered by ecotourism has a say on the development of any ecotourism project from the feasibility stage to implementation and monitoring. The various interest groups within a community, such as women and youths, need to have representation in the decision-making bodies. Mwangi (*ibid.*) also established that the attitude of male community members towards women is an important one because it determines the extent to which females can participate in decision-making at the conservancy. The reason given for excluding women in decision-making was that they were regarded as children. Thus, it is important not to assume that if women have benefited economically from an ecotourism venture, they will have greater voice within their communities and beyond (Scheyvens, 2000). Political empowerment implies that the voices of women must be heard and their concerns considered in the development of ecotourism projects. Locals, especially women and youth, should participate in the decision-making process.

SOCIAL EMPOWERMENT

Social empowerment can be defined as a situation in which a community’s sense of cohesion and integrity has been confirmed or strengthened by an

activity such as ecotourism. Sustainable tourism development can be realised if the local community actively participates in tourism activities and derive economic benefits from it.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

The term “psychological empowerment” refers to the extent to that “local community is optimistic about their future, has faith in the abilities of its residents, is relatively self-reliant and demonstrates pride in traditions and culture” (Scheyvens., 1999: 245-249). The recognition by outsiders towards the works of arts and crafts done by women increases their sense of community pride and it makes them participate in tourism activities with pride and enthusiasm. They gain respect within their communities, thereby improving their self-esteem.

IMPACT OF GREEN TOURISM ON WOMEN

Available tourism literature presents two perspectives on the impact of green tourism on women. One perspective is that green tourism has a positive impact on women, while the other perspective is that it has a negative impact on them.

POSITIVE IMPACT OF GREEN TOURISM ON WOMEN

Wearing and Larsen (1996) showed how ecotourism can empower local communities by giving them a sense of pride and awareness of the importance of their natural resources and control over their development. In many cases, women have a close connection with the physical environment of their community. Usually, it is women who have the know-how of producing crafts. They also have special knowledge of uses of various plants and walking routes. It, therefore, makes sense that women should be involved in managing green tourism projects. This would help improve their relative economic well-being. Scheyvens (*ibid.*) makes the same argument in his description of experiences from the developing world where women are empowered through their involvement in ecotourism.

Besides, there is ample empirical evidence to show that money in the hands of women benefits the livelihoods of the children in the community, such as increased expenditure on nutrition, clothing and schooling. Green tourism activities have the potential to provide formal and informal employment opportunities in areas in which women have existing skills, e.g., cultural performance and crafts. Women thus can gain respect for the roles they play

in continuing/reviving cultural practices. Green tourism activities can also provide women with employment in areas outside of traditional gender stereotypes. Such activities include tour guiding. Gainful employment in green tourism activities increase men's respect for their partners.

Participation of women in green tourism activities provides them with opportunities to gain confidence from interactions with people from outside their area. This may lead to husbands accepting that they need to engage in more domestic duties to support their income-earning wives

NEGATIVE IMPACT OF GREEN TOURISM ON WOMEN

Scheyvens (*ibid.*) argued that women do not benefit significantly from ecotourism projects. Sindiga (1995), holds similar views. However, in other cases, in terms of formal employment, local women are often ignored when lodges and other tourist sites are established. In many contexts, women miss out on formal employment opportunities in tourism, because social norms continue to restrict the type of economic activities in which women may engage (Scheyvens, 2000).

It has been observed that generally, men and women are unequally impacted by tourism. This view is expounded by Bolles (1997) who states that women's importance in the industry is often minimised or referenced primarily in terms of sex work. He argued that tourism becomes a vehicle for exploring the differences and commonalities among women. The status and remuneration of women's jobs are often inferior to that of men. When women's work is associated with cooking and cleaning, they receive no or little pay. Many women are expected to work a "double day", meeting both the demands of formal employment and unpaid domestic services. Women may feel that they are neglecting their children and their religious or social obligations. Communal benefits may be distributed to male heads of households, ignoring the needs of female-headed households and polygamous societies. Competition for ecotourism income among different groups in a community undermines social cohesion. Vested interests dominate park management boards, ecotourism associations and other decision-making bodies, making it difficult for women to voice their opinions. Competition associated with ecotourism partners may exacerbate existing fissures within communities and lead to social disharmony (Scheyvens, 2007:191-192).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN GREEN TOURISM

For women to participate fully in the green tourism sector, they must be empowered. Business procedures for registration must be simplified and incubator programmes set up for activities related to green tourism. For ecotourism to be helpful, there must be proper management of land use to avoid such things as loss of pasture. Ecotourism must benefit the home community, if it does not then it's not ecotourism. Theoretically, tourism development may contribute to gender equality. For this to happen, women's empowerment policies must be put in place.

There is a wrong perception among ecotourism researchers that gender issues will be addressed if ecotourism is approached through a participatory planning approach in which community development is targeted. However, as Scheyvens (*ibid.*) argues, much deeper appreciation of the complex nature of communities is needed before ecotourism ventures are implemented. She further stated that direct efforts must be made to support poorer, less powerful groups, that often include women, if ecotourism is to be effective in meeting conservation and development goals. However, in past development initiatives, women's voices have often been ignored as development consultants, researchers, and government officers seek the opinions of chiefs, the local elite and entrepreneurs, the vast majority of whom are men. To translate the rhetoric of sustainable management of natural resources into reality, local people, including women, children, the elderly and indigenous minorities, must be allowed to actively participate in the decision-making process.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the role of women in green tourism. Definitions of green tourism and sustainable ecotourism were presented. It was highlighted that the terms green tourism and ecotourism are often used interchangeably. Characteristics and principles of ecotourism applicable to green tourism were presented and discussed. The chapter discussed the various issues relating to gender and empowerment of women in green tourism. Both positive and negative impacts of green tourism on women were discussed. It concludes by making recommendations for effective participation of women in green tourism.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the characteristics of sustainable green tourism activity.

2. What criteria is used to determine if a tourism activity is a green activity?
3. Discuss the various dimensions of empowerment of women in green tourism.
4. What are the positive and negative impacts of green tourism activities on women?
5. Discuss gender issues related to the participation of women in green tourism activities.

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Chapter 5: Application of Sustainable Tourism Concepts by Small and Medium Enterprise in Zimbabwe

SHEPHERD NYARUWATA

Abstract

The concept of sustainable development has taken centre stage globally in the development of any sector. The concepts involve, among other the things, waste minimisation through re-use and recycle, energy efficiency and the use of clean energy, efficient use of water resources, employment of appropriate waste management strategies, appropriate land-use planning and management, staff and community involvement in environmental issues and respect for cultural authenticity. Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) constitute a large proportion of enterprises that are involved in the development of the tourism industry in Zimbabwe. The purpose of this chapter is to investigate and highlight how far the SMEs have adopted sustainable tourism concepts in the operation of their businesses. Data and information for this study was collected through extensive literature and document review, observations at some SMEs and interviews with key informants. The study covered private-sector operated SMEs, those operated by communities and those operated as partnership ventures between communities and the private sector. The business areas included accommodation facilities, tour operations and cultural villages. The results showed that SMEs in tourism in Zimbabwe have not fully embraced concepts of sustainable tourism development in their operations. There is inadequate awareness of the importance of the concepts of sustainable development. Further, SMEs do not seem to appreciate the relationship between adoption of sustainability concepts and the overall profitability of their enterprises. It is recommended that government implements an intensive awareness programme on sustainability concepts targeted at SMEs in the country. It is further recommended that the government develops guidelines on how to implement sustainable tourism concepts in the sector. Finally, the government needs to embark on an inspection programme that will ensure that SMEs adhere to implementation of sustainable tourism concepts in their business operations.

The objectives of the chapter are:

1. To highlight the concepts of sustainable development in the tourism sector;
2. To assess the level of application of sustainable tourism concepts by Zimbabwean SMEs; and
3. To proffer recommendations that will encourage SMEs to adopt sustainability concepts in their business operations.

INTRODUCTION

The notion of sustainable tourism development evolved from the concept of sustainable economic development that was initially highlighted in the 1987 Brundtland Report, “Our Common Future”. At the centre of sustainable tourism development is the need to ensure that current utilisation of a destination’s resources has an inbuilt mechanism that guarantees long-term continuity of the sector. This chapter assesses how far tourism SMEs in Zimbabwe have integrated the concept of sustainable development in their operations.

BACKGROUND

The Brundtland Report raised the need to make considerations for future generations in all forms of economic development. The report emanated from the general global concern about the form and nature of economic development approach of the post-2nd World War period that viewed world resources as infinite and seemed to have minimum concern about the needs of future generations. The report defined sustainable development as follows (:41) : “Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to their own”

The concept of sustainable development became a major global agenda after the publication of the Brundtland Report. The main focus has been coming up with global policies and frameworks that guide overall economic development to ensure that future generations are able to meet their own needs with the resources that are available in the world. Some of the highlights of the global agenda on sustainable development include the following:

1. The 1992 Rio Earth Summit - attended by 172 countries that built on the outcomes of the Brundtland Report and focused on the development and adoption of a global framework for development;

2. The 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development, Johannesburg - that followed up issues agreed upon at the Rio 1992 Earth Summit and added new dimensions to the agenda;
3. The 2010 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) -10 core development goals that were aimed at bringing equity and balance in overall global economic development; and
4. The 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) -17 core development goals adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 25th September 2015 in New York in the United States.

The notion of sustainable tourism was, on one hand, a result of the diffusion of the general concept of sustainable development to the tourism sector. On the other hand, it was a reaction to the overall economic, social and environmental impacts of the growth of mass tourism that occurred during the 1960s and the 1970s (Sharpley, 2009). As has been experienced in the case of the general sustainable development agenda, there also have been several key developments that have occurred in the evolution of sustainable tourism development. Key milestones in the development of the concept include the following:

1. 1992 inclusion of tourism in Agenda 21 of the Rio Summit;
2. 1992 establishment of Sustainable Tourism journal;
3. 1992 Tour Operators Initiative on Sustainable Tourism Development;
4. 1993 World Travel and Tourism Council Green Globe Initiative;
5. 1999 World Travel and Tourism Council Proposal to governments and the private sector on programmes to implement sustainable tourism; and
6. The 2002 Cape Town Declaration on sustainable tourism development that focussed on the following principles-
 1. minimising negative environmental impacts,
 2. minimising negative social and cultural impacts;
 3. generating greater economic benefits for local people and enhancing the well-being of host communities,
 4. improving working conditions and access to the industry;
 5. involving local people in decisions that affect their lives;
 6. making positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage and to the maintenance of the world's biodiversity;
 7. providing more enjoyable experiences for tourists through more meaningful connections with local people;

8. providing access for people with disabilities and socially disadvantaged people; and
9. engendering respect between tourists and hosts.
10. 2003 launch of Tourism for Tomorrow Awards by the World Travel Tourism Council (WTTC);
11. The 2005 UNWTO/UNEP Report: “Making Tourism More Sustainable-A Guide for Policy Makers” that covered, among other issues, employment quality, community well-being, biological biodiversity, economic viability, local control, environmental purity, visitor fulfilment and social equity; and
12. The 2015 inclusion of sustainable tourism targets in SDGs numbers 8, 12 and 14.

The extensive global advocacy on sustainable tourism development has led governments and the private sector in different parts of the world to attempt to adhere to the principles of the sustainable development agenda (*ibid.*). However, the level of commitment to the concept differs from country to country, depending on broad national approaches to economic development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of sustainable tourism took centre stage in academic circles during the early 1990s (Sharpley, *ibid.*; Day, 2012). During the same period, international organisations involved in tourism began to initiate frameworks that would assist destinations to come up with practical guidelines for implementing sustainable tourism at both national and local levels (Sharpley, *ibid.*). The concept has received international endorsement in both policy and academic circles as the core tourism industry paradigm. However, what became clear during the period was the lack of clarity on what constituted sustainable tourism from both a theoretical and operational perspective (Moscardo and Murphy, 2014). According to Day (2012:1) the term is “ambiguous”. The assessment by Day is a reflection of the challenges that academics and practitioners at different levels have grappled with in trying to come up with what precisely constitutes sustainable tourism.

The challenge of the ambiguity of concept is seen through the multiplicity of definitions that have been given by different authors and organisations. In his review of the concept, Butler (1999:10) highlighted eight definitions that had varied emphasis, depending on the conceptual/ideological orientation of the

author. Having reviewed the challenges of the different definitions, he proposed the following as the most appropriate one (Butler: 12):

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

Having come up with an all-encompassing definition, Butler was still of the opinion that it was most unlikely that there ever will be a consensus on the definition of the concept because it means different things to different people. He pointed out that academics of different ideological persuasions, planners in government and international organisations, business operators, politicians and consumers will always have different notions of what the concept means and entails.

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)'s definition of the concept was articulated as follows

“tourism that takes full account of the current and future economic, social and environmental impacts addressing the needs of the visitor, the industry and the host communities” (UNWT/UNEP, 2005:11)

Whilst the definition of the concept by UNWTO is extensive, it is not prescriptive and, hence does not give planners a clear roadmap when coming up with national frameworks (Day, 2012). The challenge of consensus on the definition of the concept has been compounded in recent years by a mushrooming of competing concepts relating to green tourism (*ibid.*). These include, among others, alternative tourism, ecotourism, community-based tourism, adventure tourism, wilderness tourism and volunteer tourism. Day (*ibid.*: 2) further postulates that there is no single way of practising sustainable tourism. He goes on to highlight the need to recognise a continuum of practices that are found at different scales of operations, ranging from international, national, business to non-governmental organisations, to communities. In his view, the key issue is to create adequate awareness about the body of knowledge on sustainable tourism to a broad range of stakeholders so that there will be a willingness to adopt innovative ways to develop future tourism.

An extreme position is taken by Moscardo and Murphy (2014:2538) who argue that there is no such thing as sustainable tourism. They advocate for a new approach to the concept of sustainable tourism and introduce the concept of the Quality of Life (QoL). They posit that the QoL concept should cover a range of capital types that include financial capital, natural capital, build capital, social capital, human capital and political capital. Each variable is given a detailed description of what it encompasses. They further argue that for tourism in a given area to be considered sustainable, each of the capital variables must show a net positive contribution.

It is evident from the exposition of Moscardo and Murphy, that the fundamental issue of lack of consensus on the definition still persists even if one was to fully embrace their approach. A similar view to that of Moscardo and Murphy is expounded by Nepal *et al.* (2015:2) who claim that sustainable tourism can exist only in rhetoric and that it is not a realistic concept in practice.

Whilst it is important to acknowledge the flaws that are inherent in the concept of sustainable tourism, what is important to appreciate is the fact that the tourism industry is complex and dynamic and that economic sustainability and hence sustainable tourism is a value-laden concept that must be understood in the cultural context in which the development is taking place (Soontayatron, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

The qualitative approach was used in gathering data for the study. Extensive literature review was undertaken with a view of getting a comprehensive review of the debates that have surrounded the topic since it started to dominate academic circles in the 1990s. The internet was used as the main tool for accessing current and past publications on the topic. Observations were made at several SMEs business sites in the country that claim to practise sustainable tourism with a view of assessing what forms of sustainable tourism was practised and how far those practices were in conformity with the current understanding of the concept. The tourism projects were chosen using purposive sampling during a broader study aimed at producing a tourism master plan for the country. Interviews were also held during the period with owners of businesses at these sites and key informants in the six provinces

were the businesses were located. A total of six SMEs was observed in the Masvingo, Manicaland, Mashonaland Central, Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Bulawayo Provinces.

CASE STUDIES

The three SMEs case studies that were chosen for deeper interrogation are located in Masvingo Province, Mashonaland Central Province and Manicaland Province. The types of business enterprise cover accommodation, cultural centre and tour operations. The case studies help to illustrate how SMEs in Zimbabwe are trying to incorporate the concept of sustainable tourism in their operations. The three business enterprises further help to highlight the challenges that tourism business enterprises in general, and SMEs in particular, face when they try and balance the broader issues of business sustainability and the need to minimise the environmental, economic and social impacts of tourism in a destination.

CASE 1: ECO WILDERNESS LODGE, MAVURADONA

The Eco Wilderness Lodge is located in the Mavuradona wilderness area north of Centenary town in Muzarabani District in Mashonaland Central Province. The lodge is one of a few non-consumptive successful Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) projects in the province. The wilderness area was declared a protected area in 1988 by the Muzarabani Rural District Council (MRDC) because of its scenic beauty and richness in biodiversity. Part of the area is designated as Important Bird Area, with 229 bird species having been recorded. The protected area covers some 600km along the Zambezi escarpment. The wilderness area is part of the Mavuradona Tourism Development Zone (IDZ) (National Tourism Master Plan, 2016) that covers other attractions like Tengenenge Stone Sculpture Village and Mashumbi Pools tourism resort. The TDZ northern section forms the boundary of Zimbabwe –Mozambique (ZIMOZA) Transfrontier Conservation Area (TFCA), and in the west, it is adjacent to the hunting concessions of Dande, Doma and Chewore. The whole area forms part of the tourist route to Mana Pools National Park and to the lower Zambezi area of Kanyemba.

Figure 1 shows the TDZs in the country as established in the National Tourism Master Plan. The case studies are all located in the these zones. The Eco Lodge is located in Mavuradona.

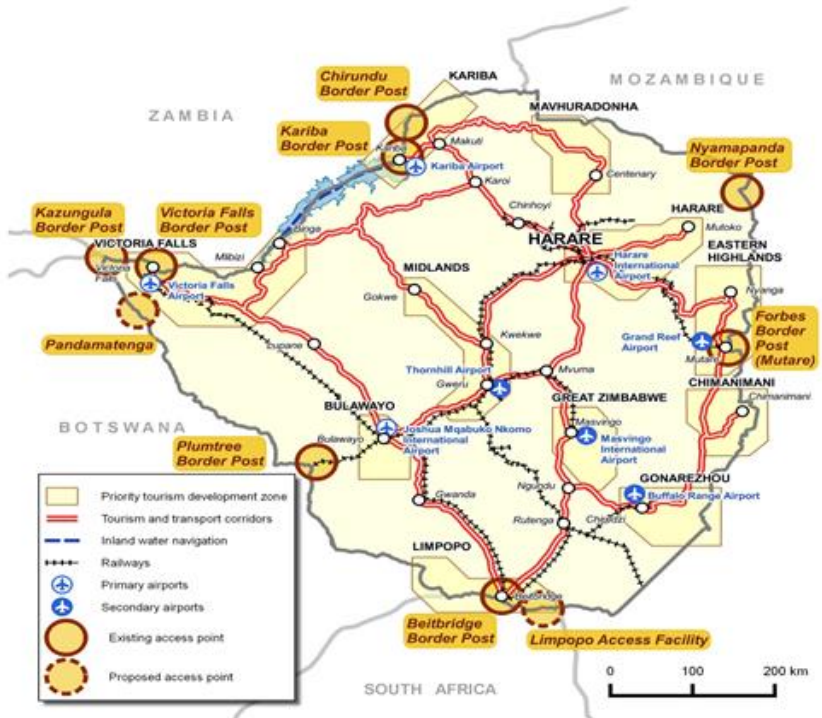


Figure 1: Location of Tourism Development Zones where the study cases are found (GoZ - National Tourism Master Plan, 2016)

The lodge offers a variety of accommodation facilities that blend well in the wilderness area's environment. There are four bashes that accommodate two persons per night. A total of six chalets, with different capacities, are also available at the property. Several camping sites are also available at the lodge. At full capacity, the lodge accommodates a total of 100 clients spread in different modes of accommodation.

Figure 2 shows a basha and a single chalet accommodation type, whilst Figure 3 depicts multiple room chalets and a public area.



Figure 2: *A basha and a single chalet* (Author's photo library)



Figure 3: Multiple room chalets and a public area with another basha in the background (Author's Photo Library)

The core activities offered by the lodge are as follows:

1. Hiking within the wilderness area where tourists choose from several set routes of different duration and difficulty;

2. Mountain climbing - major opportunities offered by the Zambezi Escarpment;
 3. Sight-seeing that includes the tour of the Showe Falls;
 4. Walking safaris and game viewing on horseback - 41 wildlife species identified in the area;
 5. Cultural tours in the idyllic villages surrounding the Eco Lodge; and
 6. Corporate conferences and team building activities.
- Some of the activities require fitness on the part of the clients.

Figure 4(a) and (b) show clients going up the sides of the Showe Falls. A.



B.



Figure 4a): Going up on the sides of Showe Falls; **(b)** Resting at the top of the waterfall (Author's Photo Library)

The guides offered by the lodge for both site seeing tours and mountain climbing are well trained and familiar with dangers that clients might face as indicated in Figure 5, a reminder of the tragedy that befell some clients in 1998.



Figure 5: A memorial to clients who perished at the Showe Falls (Author's Photo Library)

In recent years, the lodge has witnessed the growth of volunteer tourism. The customers, mainly international tourists, stay for periods ranging from two to five weeks. These groups undertake several activities in the area that focus on wildlife and biodiversity conservation and community projects. For example, clients interested in wildlife and biodiversity conservation undertake the following programmes during their stay at the lodge:

1. Foot patrols in the wilderness area to prevent poaching;
2. Camp management, including repairs and maintenance of the facilities of the lodge; and
3. Wildlife photography and research.

Clients who are keen on community projects participate in activities that include the following:

1. Building projects - schools, clinics etc;
2. Teaching and mentoring of local students; and
3. Training and awareness on human wildlife-conflict issues.

The tour packages for the volunteer tourism clients range from US\$1 452 for a two-week package to US\$2 255 for a five-week package (www.smallworldlodge.com) The prices include return transfers from Robert Mugabe International Airport to the Lodge and accommodation on a full board basis.

The current developments in the Kanyemba area is likely to increase the popularity of the destination and hence management will need to put in place strategies that will ensure that the increased numbers of visitors will not jeopardise its focus on sustainable development by making sure that the physical and social environment is not negatively affected.

CASE 2: KAMBAKO “LIVING MUSEUM”, CHIREDDZI

The “Living Museum” is a cultural Shangaan village that focuses on showcasing Shangaani cultural tradition and demonstrating the traditional skills of the Shangaan people. The cultural village is located in Masvingo Province in the Chiredzi District, adjacent to the Malilange Trust Conservancy. The conservancy is located within the Gonarezhou Tourism Development Zone (NTMP, 2016). One of Zimbabwe’s most high-end accommodation facility, Singita Pamushana, is located within the conservancy. Other tourism properties within the area includes: Nkwali, Nduna and Simbiri Lodges.

The attraction is a partnership arrangement between the Malilangwe Trust Conservancy and the Shangaan community that resides adjacent to the conservancy. It is located about a 45- minute drive from Singita Pamushana

Lodge. The “Living Museum” was set up by the Malilangwe Trust Conservancy to facilitate the preservation and showcasing of Shangaan bush craft.

For the community, it gives them the opportunity to teach the young generations the skills that have been passed on from generation to generation that helped the community to survive in their natural environment. The “Living Museum” enables the Singita Pamushana and the other lodges to offer their clients a cultural product whereby they are able to interact directly with members of the community. Visitors to the museum are able to participate in the following activities:

1. Making fire from friction using wood;
2. Water divining;
3. Pounding and winnowing of indigenous grains;
4. Beer-brewing using indigenous grains;
5. Smelting and forging of iron;
6. Basketry making;
7. Traditional Shangaan dances;
8. Food production and cooking; and
9. Bow and arrow making and practising shooting with the tool;



Figure 6: *Tourists arriving at the Kambako “Living Museum” (Author’s Photo Library)*

Being located on the boundary of Malilange Conservancy and the Shangaan communal area, the museum has been set up with a deliberate focus on conservation of the biodiversity of the area. Attempts have been made to minimise disturbance of the ecological balance of the area. Visitors to the area are carefully managed in terms of frequency of visits to the museum and the total number of clients per visit.



Figure 7: *Visitors being taught bush craft skills by a Shangaan elder at the museum (Author's Photo Library)*

Visitors are given lessons on how to undertake certain activities and are later encouraged to try some of the activities, for example fire making or water divination using a forked stick.



Figure 8: *Visitors immersed in education on Shangaan culture with the Shangaan women adorned in their cultural dresses (Author's Photo Library)*

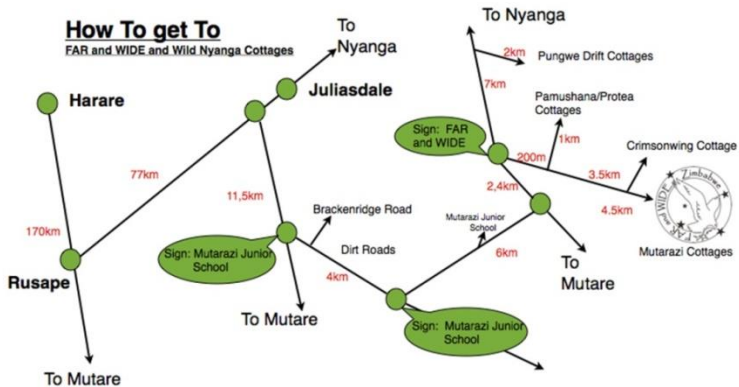
The marketing of the tours to the attraction is done by Singita Pamushana as part of its overall marketing of their products within the Malilangwe Trust Conservancy. The project is also part of the organisation's corporate social responsibility in the area. Besides helping preserving the Shangaan culture, the project also brings in financial benefits to the community as the tourists are charged to visit the museum as part of their tour package to the Malilangwe Trust Conservancy. The money is paid to Singita Pamushana Lodge as part of the tourists' holiday package. The lodge disburses the funds to the community at the end of each month. The community then decides how to spend its earnings that are normally used to undertake community projects.

CASE 3 FAR AND WIDE TOUR AND TRAVEL, NYANGA

The tour operator is based in Nyanga in the Manicaland Province. The company started its operations in 1991 and has gradually developed a wide range of products, all based in the Nyanga/Honde Valley area of Manicaland Province (www.farandwide.co.za). Its initial product offerings were in response to schools' demand for outdoor activities for students. However, with time the tour operator has broadened its products to include those that

cater for corporates, families, general leisure travellers seeking soft adventure and those that are seeking to connect with nature.

Figure 9 shows the location of the centre of the activities of the company and how to get to the area.



Please leave enough time to travel in the light.
This map is a sketch map and is not to scale.

Please note distances especially decimals!
FAR and WIDE mobile telephone: 0772 469 229

Figure 9: Location of Far and Wide cottages (Far and Wide website)

Activities offered by the company include the following:

1. Fly fishing;
2. White-water rafting on the Pungwe River;
3. Kayaking;
4. Rock climbing;
5. Mountain bike trails;
6. Hiking trails - across rivers, waterfalls, valleys, mountain peaks, gorges and different vegetation ecosystems; and
7. Sky walking across the Mutarazi Falls.

Figures 10-13 show some of the activities offered by the tour operator in the area.



Figure 10: *White-water rafting in the Pungwe River (Far and Wide)*



Figure 11: *Bird watching in the Honde Valley (Far and Wide)*



Figure 12(a): *Hiking in Nyangani Mountains (Far and Wide)*



Figure 12(b): *Hiking trails in the Nyangani Mountains (Far and Wide)*



Figure 13: *Sky-walking across the Mutarazi Falls, Nyanga (Far and Wide)*

The tour operator has invested in accommodation facilities that it uses as a springboard for its activities. It also uses the lodges of the Aberfoyle tea estate to house clients who will be on hiking trails within the Rhodes Nyanga and Mutarazi National Parks areas. Efforts have been made to ensure that the accommodation facilities blend well in the physical environment in which they are located. The Education Centre in the Mutarazi National Park has a total of 72 beds in six wooden cabins built on stilts. Tented camps are also provided and are used mainly to house students. The Aberfoyle area offers three luxury cottages that houses 24 clients.

Figures 14-16 show the type of accommodation offered by the tour operator.



Figure 14: *Tented accommodation at the Far and Wide Education Centre (Far and Wide)*



Figure 15: *Lodge accommodation at Mutarazi Falls (Far and Wide)*



Figure 16: *Aberfoyle lodges (Far and Wide)*

It is evident from the above description of the products and services offered by the tour operator that the company has endeavoured to follow its original vision of focussing on sustainable tourism.

CONCLUSION

The case studies outlined in this chapter reveal that the concept of sustainable tourism development in the Zimbabwe is still confined to special cases. These cases are a result of either the geographical location of the enterprise or the vision of the entrepreneur involved in the business. In the majority of cases, tourism development in Zimbabwe is dominated by lip-service to the concept of sustainable tourism development. It is, therefore, essential for the government through the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) to embark on an awareness programme to educate tourism stakeholders on the need to have a paradigm shift in tourism development that is anchored on the principles of sustainable development. The government of Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of 2015 and hence overall economic development in the country need to be anchored on the SDGs.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. ‘Adoption of sustainable development philosophy in tourism enterprises make business sense’. Discuss this statement using specific examples from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region to illustrate your arguments.

2. How far do you think it is practical for SMEs in tourism in Zimbabwe to adopt sustainable tourism practices in their daily operations?

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Chapter 6: Environmental Impacts of Tourism and Hospitality Operations

VITALIS BASERA, RUDORWASHE BAIPAI AND MIRIAM MBASERA

Abstract

Tourism and hospitality industry operations pose several striking environmental impacts, depending on the type of operations. The operations consume resources such as water, energy and wildlife on a day-to-day basis, creating an unwarranted pact of waste and reduction of resources. Hotels, lodges, restaurants, safari game parks and transport are illustrations of the industry units that make more information available on the environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations. This chapter discourses the foremost environmental impacts caused by tourism and hospitality operations and pinpoints the different types of impacts. Development of tourism impacts on the environment is broadly explained at global level, cascading down to the local level and their subsequent effect to tourism activities. Examples and case studies are highlighted to clearly show the environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations in context.

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

1. To describe the main types of environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations;
2. To understand effects of environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations;
3. To describe global environmental impacts of tourism development and the subsequent effect to tourism activities; and
4. To discuss the implications that these issues have for the good management of the tourism and hospitality industry.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter articulates the impact of tourism and hospitality operations on the environment. The environment is made up of both the natural and man-made features. Countryside zones may comprise a large number of tourist attractions and the towns may contain many hospitality facilities. In argument and description, the tourism and hospitality operations cannot be totally separated, hence their impacts can be one and the same. The term “environment” is often assumed to mean natural features only. The natural

environment is commonly referred to as physical environment that includes the landscape, mountains, beaches, animals and vegetation. Figure 1 illustrates five facets of the environment that consist of the natural environment, wildlife, the farmed environment, the built environment and natural resources.

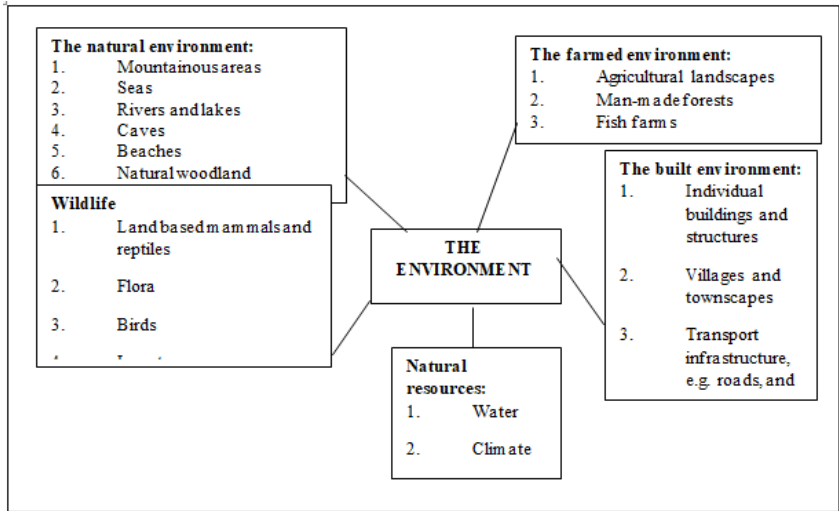


Figure1: *The scope of the concept of environment* (Swarbrooke, 1999)

This chapter helps the reader to know and understand the environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations. At the end of the chapter, the reader will be able to answer questions in relation to: Where, When, What and How significant is tourism and hospitality operations impacts the environment? Generally, Milanés-Montero *et al.* (2014), in their international analysis of environmental impact, noted that some environments are more susceptible to impacts than others, depending on type, time and place of tourism and hospitality operations. An urban environment is affected differently from rural environment.

BACKGROUND

There is need for mankind to take care of the environment, to maintain and enhance the ability of the earth to sustain future generations. Some impacts to the environment are very obvious in our day-to-day lives, such as increasing traffic levels, together with the associated air pollution and loss of the green

belt. An environmental impact is defined as any change to the environment, whether adverse or beneficial, resulting from a facility's activities, products, or services (Hanania *et al.*, 2021). In other words, it is the effect that people's actions have on the environment. In industrial development, Oláh *et al.* (2020) expressed environmental impact adverse effect caused by a development, industrial, or infrastructural project or by the release of a substance in the environment. This also raises the need for sustainability development, a development that meets present needs without endangering the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Sharma and Sharma, 2019).

An environmental impact can be a negative or positive aspect of human activity on the biophysical environment. Considerably, Boz *et al.* (2020,) in a review of consumers consideration for sustainable packaging, noted that consumers prefer environmentally responsible businesses and this has extended to travelling where consumers are considering environmental matters when making travel plans and purchases. A reflection of this is seen in the growth of ecotourism, which has grown by 30% worldwide in recent years compared to 8% for traditional tourism (Wondirad, 2020). Environmental impact ascends sustainability development in the hospitality industry.

Several industries, including and not limited to, mining, manufacturing, tourism and agriculture are affected by environmental impacts. At first the concern was linked only to the industries that produced direct pollution to the environment. But now it has turned out to be a broader issue and narrates not only to the outputs but also to the entire operations of industries. The tourism and hospitality industry also turns out to be a core industry to be discussed in this issue of environmental impacts, as it exposes many of the conflicts that arise in implementing environmental policies. Several hotels and restaurants are located in areas of outstanding natural beauty, in historic cities and in regions with a delicate ecological balance (Rampha and Nicolaides, 2014). So, there might be a question whether this addition of new facilities will destroy the uniqueness or its habitat that is already suffering from tourism overdevelopment. But the hospitality industry is linked with various other industries that cooperate to bring in a successful business that is focused mainly on profit (KPMG Canada, 2003). The hospitality industry is also a major customer-oriented industry. Customers, many of whom seek the hospitality experience to be spoiled with smashing of hot water, high pressure showers, freshly laundered linen, an ample supply of towels, copious supplies of food and drink, the availability of swimming pools and saunas and the limousine to take them to the airport, must be considered. Whatever we do to reduce the environmental impact of hotels can only be either with the consent

of customers or taking the main consideration as customer satisfaction. Many hospitality organisations are situated in locations suitable for the customer or according to the customer needs and It is, therefore, not situated in a place where there will be minimal effects from traffic, cooking smells and the noise of the disco and other adverse outputs.

The main environmental impacts caused by the tourism industry are carbon monoxide emissions, chlorofluorocarbon (CFC) emissions, noise, smoke, smells, waste energy, wastewater, waste food, waste disposal, agricultural ecology, sale of souvenirs made from endangered species and wood and disturbances to ecology due to location of hotels in fragile environments (Sunlu, 2003). According to the annual report of the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2018) environmental review,

there is a recognition that environmental issues will become much more prominent as a factor that influences consumers, regulators, pressure groups and destinations and that the tourism industry will need to show increasing concern for these issues.

The WTTC have developed a strategy, known as the “GREEN GLOBE”, to promote environmental management among hotel and travel environment. These vary from waste management to the development of eco-hotels and the classification of hotels on the basis of environmental impact.

The world is not infinite; the very resources we promote through tourism and compete for with other industries are in danger of degradation. As more regions develop their tourism industry, it produces significant impacts on natural resources, consumption patterns, pollution and social systems. For mitigation of environmental impacts of tourism, Nhuta (2015) echoed the need for sustainable or responsible planning and management is imperative for the industry to survive as a whole. For better understanding of environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality industry, there is need to appreciate some facts and figures on tourism and hospitality operations impacts at a global perspective as highlighted in mega trends shaping the future of tourism by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2018).

An estimated 1.3 billion people travelled internationally in 2018 and this is expected to reach 1.8 billion by 2030 (UNWTO, 2019). The global travel and tourism industry creates approximately 10% of the world's direct and indirect employment and 10% of total global Gross Domestic Product (GDP). European Wilderness Society in 2019 reported the tourism and hospitality industry environmental impact facts and figures as showing a massive impact on water resources, carbon dioxide emissions and extinction of wildlife

species. The average Canadian household used 326 litres of water per day, a village of 700 people in a developing country uses an average of 500 litres of water per month and a luxury hotel room guest uses 1 800 litres of water per person per night. The average person in the UK uses approximately 150 litres of water per day, three times that of a local village in Asia (Rossberg, 2020). According to Lenzen *et al.* (2018) tourism is responsible for about 5% of the global carbon dioxide emissions and in terms of radiative forcing, tourism contributes to 4.6% of global warming. The transport sector, including air, car and rail, generates the largest proportion, with 75% of all emissions. In terms of carbon emissions, air causes 54-75% while coach and rail 13%. Air travel is considered the main tourism contributor to global warming: It is responsible for 40% of the total carbon emissions caused by this sector.

The accommodation sector accounts for approximately 20% of emissions from tourism (Filimonau *et al.*, 2011). This involves heating, air-conditioning and the maintenance of bars, restaurants, pools and so on. Clearly, this varies according to the location and size of the accommodation and the type of establishments – hotels having greater energy consumption than pensions or camping sites. Activities such as museums, theme parks, events or shopping also contribute to certain amounts of emissions (approximately 3.5%) (Inkson and Minnaert, 2012).

The Western world, with 17% of the worlds' population, currently consumes 52% of total global energy and seawater is expected to rise 70cm in the next 10 years (Tourism Sustaining, 2020). In 2017, UNEP postulated that by 2050, climate change could have directly led to the extinction of 30% of species, the death of 90% of coral reefs and the loss of half the Amazon rainforest. Since 1970, a third of the natural world has been destroyed by human activity (Begum, 2019). The United Nations Department of Economics and Social Affairs prospects that half the world's population lives in urban areas and this figure is expected to increase (United Nations, 2018). In Latin America and the Caribbean, 76% of the population live in urban areas. In urban guide cars report by Chesterton (2019), he estimated that by 2036, there will be 2.8 billion vehicles on earth, almost double the number today. The UN Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) observed that for every one degree rise in temperature above 34°C, yields of rice, maize and wheat in tropical areas could drop by 10% (FAO, 2019). Every day 90 million tonnes of carbon pollution are dumped into our atmosphere (UNEP, 2017). Water as a critical resource in human life and it is the worst polluted resource on earth as only

3% of water is potable although the 70% of the earth's surface is water (National Geographic , 2020). According to the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), a new record 4.1 billion passengers were flown by the aviation industry on scheduled air services in 2017.

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Ever since, the environment has been a significant attraction rather a pull for visitors. There is indication of conflict between tourism activities and the wish to conserve landscapes and habitats. Like other impacts, it is possible to divide the environmental impacts into positive and negative impacts. The position of the observer will affect their assessment of whether the impacts are grouped as positive or negative (Mason, 2003). Conventional positive and negative impacts of tourism and hospitality are given below.

POSITIVE IMPACTS

1. It sometimes educates the public about the local environment and the importance of protecting it, for example, the Great Barrier Reef.
2. The tourism and hospitality industries often create employment and business opportunities in an area, contributing to the local economy.
3. Hospitality and tourism buildings and venues are being designed and redesigned so that impacts on the environment are reduced and they merge with the local environment better.
4. Many enterprises are now employing sustainable practices to promote a green image that appeals to consumers, for example, using organic products, recycling, using fewer toxic chemicals and using more energy and water efficient fittings.
5. Tourism may provide revenue for preservation of historical buildings, cultural and heritage sites and wildlife through entrance fees.
6. Tourism may stimulate measures to protect the environment (landscape, wildlife, natural resources, buildings, etc.)

NEGATIVE IMPACTS

1. The presence of buildings and tourists may destroy the local environment and habitat of native animals.
2. The hospitality tourism industry contributes to waste issues, disposing food scraps, oil and chemical disposal, litter dropping can contribute to the pollution of water courses.

3. Many hospitality venues are noisy.
4. The hospitality and tourism industries are massive consumers of energy and water, e.g. electricity for air conditioning, refrigeration.
5. Tourism may result in footpath erosion.
6. Tourism can contribute people and traffic congestion.

A more complex situation regarding the impacts of tourism on the environment is shown in Table 1. A form of balance sheet has been created by Hunter and Green (1995) to compare the positive and negative effects of tourism in relation to key themes. More negative than positive effects do not mean negative effects are more important as quantity of impacts does not necessarily equate with quality of impacts.

Table 1: *Balance sheet of environmental impacts of tourism* (Hunter and Green, 1995)

Area Of Effect	Negative Impacts	Positive Impacts
Biodiversity	Disruption of breeding/feeding patterns. Killing of animals for leisure (hunting) or to supply souvenir trade Loss of habitat and species composition Destruction of vegetation	Encouragement to conserve animals as attractions Establishment of protected or conserved areas to meet tourist demands
Erosion and physical damage	Soil erosion Damage to sites through trampling Overloading of key infrastructure (e.g. water supply networks)	Tourism revenue to finance ground repair and site restoration Improvement to infrastructure prompted by tourist demand
Pollution	Water pollution through sewage or fuel spillage and rubbish from pleasure boats Air pollution (e.g. vehicle emissions) Noise pollution (e.g. from vehicles or tourist attractions: bars, discos, etc.) Littering	Cleaning programmes to protect the attractiveness of location to tourists
Resource base	Depletion of ground and surface water Diversion of water supply to meet tourists needs (e.g. golf courses or pools) Depletion of local fuel sources Depletion of local building material sources	Development of new/improved sources of supply
Visual or structural change	Land transfers to tourism (e.g. from farming) Detrimental visual impact on natural and non-natural landscapes through tourism development Introduction of new architectural styles Changes in urban functions Physical expansion of built-up areas	New use of marginal and unproductive lands Landscape improvement (e.g. to clear urban dereliction) Regeneration and or modernisation of built environment Re-use of disused buildings

□

Environmental impact of the use of natural resources and products report by van der Voet *et al.* (2009) broadly categorised environmental impact as:

1. Depletion of natural resources

2. Pollution
3. Physical impacts

DEPLETION OF NATURAL RESOURCES

Tourism development can put pressure on natural resources (land, water) when consumption increases in areas where resources are already scarce.

Water Resources — Water, especially fresh water, is one of the most critical natural resources. The tourism industry generally overuses water resources for hotels, swimming pools, golf courses and personal use of water by tourists. This can result in water shortages and degradation of water supplies and generating a greater volume of wastewater (Perez *et al.*, 2020).

In dry and hot regions like the Mediterranean, the issue of water scarcity is of particular concern. Because of the hot climate and the tendency of tourists to consume more water when on holiday than they do at home, the amount used can run up to 440 litres a day (Sunlu, 2003). Golf course maintenance can also deplete fresh water resources. In recent years, golf tourism has increased in popularity and the number of golf courses has grown rapidly. Malviya (2005) posits that tourism operations like golf courses require an enormous amount of water every day and as with other causes of excessive extraction of water, can result in water scarcity. If the water comes from wells, over pumping can cause saline intrusion into groundwater. Golf resorts are more and more often situated in or near protected areas or areas where resources are limited.

Local Resources — Tourism can exert great pressure on local resources like energy, food and other raw materials that may already be in short supply. Greater extraction and transport of these resources exacerbates physical impacts associated with their exploitation. Because of the seasonal character of the industry, many destinations have ten times more inhabitants in the high season than in the low season. High demand is placed upon these resources to meet the high expectations tourists often have (proper heating, hot water, etc.).

Land Degradation — Important land resources include minerals, fossil fuels, fertile soil, forests, wetlands and wildlife. Increased construction of tourism and recreational facilities has increased pressure on these resources and on scenic landscapes. Direct impact on natural resources, both renewable and non-renewable, in the provision of tourist facilities, can be caused by the use of land for accommodation and other infrastructure provision and the use for

building materials. Forests often suffer negative impacts of tourism in the form of deforestation caused by fuel wood collection and land clearing. For example, one trekking tourist in Nepal, an area already suffering the effects of deforestation, can use four to five kilograms of wood a day (UNEP, 1999).

POLLUTION

Tourism can cause the same forms of pollution as any other industry: air emissions, noise, solid waste and littering, releases of sewage, oil and chemicals, even architectural/visual pollution (Sunlu, 2003; Lan, 2019).

Air Pollution and Noise — Transport by air, road and rail is continuously increasing in response to the rising number of tourists and their greater mobility. The International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) reported that 4.1 billion international air passengers worldwide were flown by scheduled air transportation in 2017, indicating a rise of 7.1% over 2016 (ICAO, 2019). One consequence of this increase in air transport is that tourism now accounts for more than 60% of air travel and is, therefore, responsible for an important share of air emissions. One study estimated that a single transatlantic return flight emits almost half the carbon dioxide emissions produced by all other sources (lighting, heating, car use, etc.) consumed by an average person per year (*ibid.*). Transport emissions and emissions from energy production and use are linked to acid rain, global warming and photochemical pollution. Air pollution from tourist transportation has impacts on global level, especially from carbon dioxide emissions related to transportation energy use and it can contribute to severe local air pollution. Some of these impacts are quite specific to tourist activities. For example, especially in very hot or cold countries, tour buses often leave their motors running for hours while the tourists go out for an excursion because they want to return to a comfortably air-conditioned bus (Sunlu, 2003).

Noise pollution from airplanes, cars, buses and recreational vehicles, such as snow mobiles and jet skis, is a problem of modern life. In addition to being a nuisance, stress and even hearing loss for humans, it causes distress to wildlife, especially in sensitive areas (Mengu, 2020).

Solid Waste and Littering — In areas with high concentrations of tourist activities and appealing natural attractions, waste disposal is a serious problem and improper disposal can be a major despoiler of the natural environment, rivers, scenic areas and roadsides. For example, cruise ships in the Caribbean are estimated to produce more than 70 000 tons of waste each year. Solid

waste and littering can degrade the physical appearance of the water and shoreline and cause the death of marine animals (UNEP, 2017).

In mountain areas, trekking tourists generate a great deal of waste (FAO, 2019). Tourists on expedition leave behind their garbage, oxygen cylinders and even camping equipment. Such practices degrade the environment with all the detritus typical of the developed world, in remote areas that have few garbage collection or disposal facilities.

Sewage — Construction of hotels, recreation and other facilities often leads to increased sewage pollution. Wastewater pollutes seas and lakes surrounding tourist attractions, damaging flora and fauna (Sunlu, 2003). Sewage runoff causes serious damage to coral reefs because it contains lots of nutrients and it stimulates the growth of algae, that cover the filter-feeding corals, hindering their ability to survive. According to the UNFCCC (2007), changes in salinity and transparency can have wide-ranging impacts on coastal environments and sewage pollution can threaten the health of humans and animals.

Aesthetic Pollution - Tourism often fails to integrate its structures with the natural features and indigenous architecture of the destination. Large resorts of disparate design may look out of place in a natural environment and may clash with the indigenous structural design. A lack of land-use planning and building regulations in many destinations has facilitated sprawling developments along coastlines, valleys and scenic routes (Belsoy *et al.*, 2012). The sprawl includes tourism facilities themselves and supporting infrastructure such as roads, employee housing, parking, service areas and waste disposal.

PHYSICAL IMPACTS

Attractive landscape sites, such as sandy beaches, lakes, riversides and mountain tops and slopes are often transitional zones, characterised by species-rich ecosystems (UNEP, 2017). Typical physical impacts include the degradation of such ecosystems. An ecosystem is a geographic area including all the living organisms (people, plants, animals and microorganisms), their physical surroundings (such as soil, water and air) and the natural cycles that sustain them (Sunlu, 2003). The ecosystems most threatened with degradation are ecologically fragile areas such as alpine regions, rain forests, wetlands, mangroves, coral reefs and sea grass beds. Threats to and pressures on these ecosystems are often severe because such places are very attractive to both tourists and developers. Physical impacts are caused not only by tourism-

related land clearing and construction, but by continuing tourist activities and long-term changes in local economies and ecologies (UNFCCC, 2007).

PHYSICAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Two broad impacts of tourism were given as construction activities and infrastructure development (Belsoy *et al.*, 2012). The development of tourism facilities such as accommodation, water supplies, restaurants and recreation facilities, can involve sand mining, beach and sand erosion, soil erosion and extensive paving. In addition, road and airport construction can lead to land degradation and loss of wildlife habitats and deterioration of scenery (Sunlu, 2003).

Deforestation and intensified or unsustainable use of land — Construction of ski resort accommodation and facilities frequently requires clearing forested land. Coastal wetlands are often drained and filled due to lack of more suitable sites for construction of tourism facilities and infrastructure (Sigh, 2008; Lan, 2019). These activities can cause severe disturbance and erosion of the local ecosystem, even destruction in the long-term.

Marina development — Development of marinas and breakwaters can cause changes in currents and coastlines (Kudale, 2010). Furthermore, extraction of building materials such as sand affects coral reefs, mangroves and hinterland forests, leading to erosion and destruction of habitats. In the Philippines and the Maldives, dynamiting and mining of coral for resort building materials has damaged fragile coral reefs and depleted fisheries (Hall, 2001).

Overbuilding and extensive paving of shorelines — This can result in destruction of habitats and disruption of land-sea connections (such as sea-turtle nesting spots). Coral reefs are especially fragile marine ecosystems and are suffering worldwide from reef-based tourism developments. Evidence suggests a variety of impacts to coral reefs result from shoreline development, increased sediments in the water, trampling by tourists and divers, ship groundings, pollution from sewage, over-fishing and fishing using poisons and explosives that destroy the coral habitat (Lan, 2019).

PHYSICAL IMPACTS FROM TOURIST ACTIVITIES

Trampling — Tourists using the same trail over and over again trample the vegetation and soil, eventually causing damage that can lead to loss of biodiversity and other impacts. Such damage can be even more extensive when visitors frequently stray off established trails (Kudale, 2010). Trampling

impact on vegetation include breakage and bruising of stems, reduced plant vigour, reduced regeneration, loss of ground covers and change in species composition. Trampling impacts on soil include loss of organic matter, reduction in soil macro porosity, decrease in air and water permeability, increase in runoff and accelerated erosion (Sunlu, 2003).

Anchoring and other marine activities — In marine areas (around coastal waters, reefs, beach and shoreline, offshore waters, uplands and lagoons) many tourist activities occur in or around fragile ecosystems. Anchoring, snorkelling, sport fishing and scuba diving, yachting and cruising are some of the activities that can cause direct degradation of marine ecosystems such as coral reefs and subsequent impacts on coastal protection and fisheries (Kudale, 2010; Lan, 2019).

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM AT THE GLOBAL LEVEL

LOSS OF BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY

Tourism, especially nature tourism, is closely linked to biodiversity and the attractions created by a rich and varied environment. It can also cause loss of biodiversity when land and resources are strained by excessive use and when impacts on vegetation, wildlife, mountain, marine and coastal environments and water resources exceed their carrying capacity (Tourism Sustaining, 2020; Belsoy *et al.*, 2012). This loss of biodiversity means loss of tourism potential.

Exotic species of insects, wild and cultivated plants, and diseases brought in by tourists and suppliers can cause enormous disruption and even destruction of ecosystems (FAO, 2019; IOM, 2018).

The effects on loss of biodiversity:

1. It threatens our food supplies, opportunities for recreation and tourism and sources of wood, medicines and energy (CBD, 2000; Sigh, 2008).
2. It interferes with essential ecological functions such as species balance, soil formation and greenhouse gas absorption (Sunlu, 2003).
3. It reduces productivity of ecosystems (Begum, 2019).
4. It destabilises ecosystems and weakens their ability to deal with natural disasters such as floods, droughts and hurricanes and with human-caused stresses, such as pollution and climate change (Belsoy, *et al.*, 2012).

DEPLETION OF THE OZONE LAYER

The ozone layer, is situated in the upper atmosphere (or stratosphere) at an altitude of 12-50 km, protects life on earth by absorbing the harmful wavelengths of the sun's ultraviolet (UV) radiation, dangerous to humans and animals in high doses (National Geographic , 2020). For example, one of the reasons scientists have put forward for the global decrease of amphibian populations is increased exposure to UV radiation. Ozone depleting substances (ODSs) such as CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons) and halons have contributed to the destruction of this layer. The tourism industry may be part of the problem. Direct impacts start with the construction of new developments and continue during daily management and operations (Sunlu, 2003). Refrigerators, air conditioners and propellants in aerosol spray cans, amongst others, contain ODSs and are widely used in the hotel and tourism industry. Emissions from jet aircraft are also a significant source of ODSs. Air travel is predicted to be contributing half of the annual destruction of the ozone layer (Ritchie and Roser, 2018).

CLIMATE CHANGE

Climate scientists now generally agree that the Earth's surface temperatures have risen steadily in recent years because of an increase in the so-called greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, that trap heat from the sun (*ibid.*). One of the most significant of these gases is carbon dioxide, that is generated when fossil fuels, such as coal, oil and natural gas are burned (for example in industry, electricity generation and automobiles) and when there are changes in land use, such as deforestation. In the long run, accumulation of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere can cause global climate change, a process that may already be occurring (Belsoy *et al.*, 2012). Global tourism is closely linked to climate change. Tourism involves the movement of people from their homes to other destinations and accounts for about 50% of traffic movements; rapidly expanding air traffic contributes to the production of carbon dioxide (Mason, 2003). Tourism is thus a significant contributor to the increasing concentrations of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. Air travel itself is a major contributor to the greenhouse effect. Passenger jets are the fastest growing source of greenhouse gas emissions (ICAO, 2019).

How global environmental impacts affect tourism:

1. NATURAL DISASTERS

Catastrophes like floods, earthquakes, wildfires, volcanoes, avalanches, drought and diseases can have a serious effect on inbound and domestic

tourism and, thus, on local tourism industries. Cyclone Idai affected tourism in the Chimanimani region of Zimbabwe and Beira region of Mozambique as tourism infrastructure was destroyed by heavy rains in 2019 (Mercy Corps, 2019)

2. *CLIMATE CHANGE*

Tourism not only contributes to climate change, it is also affected by it as well. Climate change is likely to increase the severity and frequency of storms and severe weather events that can have disastrous effects on tourism in the affected regions (Sunlu, 2003). Some of impacts that the world risks as a result of global warming are drought, diseases and heat waves. These negative impacts can keep tourists away from the holiday destinations. Hruby (2020) stated the effects of global warming to tourism as:

1. Less snowfall at ski resorts, meaning shorter skiing seasons in the Alpine region. In already hot areas like Asia and the Mediterranean, tourists will stay away because of intense heat, and out of fear of diseases and water shortage.
2. Harm to vulnerable ecosystems such as rainforests and coral reefs because of rising temperatures and less rainfall. A major risk to coral reefs is bleaching that occurs when coral reefs are stressed by temperature increases, high or low levels of salinity, low water quality and an increase in suspended sediments.
3. Rising sea levels, the result of melting glaciers and polar ice. Higher sea levels will threaten coastal and marine areas with widespread floods in low-lying countries and island states, increasing the loss of coastal land. Beaches and islands that are major tourism attractions may be the first areas to be affected.
4. Increased events of extreme weather, such as tornadoes, hurricanes and typhoons. These are already becoming more prevalent in tourist areas in the Caribbean, Southern parts of Africa and South East Asia. Cyclone Idai, for instance, heavily affected tourism in the Beira region of Mozambique. Wind damage, storm waves, heavy rains and flooding caused major losses in the local tourism sector.

HOW TOURISM CAN CONTRIBUTE TO ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION:

Furthering from the balance sheet of environmental impacts of tourism, the tourism and hospitality industry have positive impacts on the environment through conservation. Tourism financial contributions, improved management of environment, environment awareness raising, protection and preservation

of resources and regulatory measures are enablers of positive tourism impact to the environment.

1. FINANCIAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Tourism can contribute directly to the conservation of sensitive areas and habitats. Revenue from park entrance fees and similar sources can be allocated specifically to pay for the protection and management of environmentally sensitive areas (Font *et al.*, 2004). Special fees for park operations or conservation activities can be collected from tourists or tour operators. Some governments collect money in more far-reaching and indirect ways that are not linked to specific parks or conservation areas. User fees, income taxes, taxes on sales or rental of recreation equipment, bed taxes and license fees for activities such as hunting and fishing can provide governments with the funds needed to manage natural resources (Sharma and Sharma, 2019). Such funds can be used for overall conservation programmes and activities, such as park ranger salaries and park maintenance (ZTA, 2017; Zimparks, 2015).

2. IMPROVED ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING

Sound environmental management of tourism facilities and especially hotels can increase benefits to natural areas. But this requires careful planning for controlled development, based on analysis of the environmental resources of the area (Kiper, 2013). Planning helps to make choices between conflicting uses, or to find ways to make them compatible. By planning early for tourism development, damaging and expensive mistakes can be prevented, avoiding the gradual deterioration of environmental assets significant to tourism.

Cleaner production techniques can be important tools for planning and operating tourism facilities in a way that minimises their environmental impacts. For example, green building (using energy-efficient and non-polluting construction materials, sewage systems and energy sources) is an increasingly important way for the tourism industry to decrease its impact on the environment (Sunlu, 2003) and because waste treatment and disposal are often major, long-term environmental problems in the tourism industry, pollution prevention and waste minimisation techniques are especially important for the tourism industry (Nyaruwata, 2011; Mbasera *et al.*, 2016).

3. ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS RAISING

Tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and spreading awareness of environmental problems when it brings people

into closer contact with nature and the environment (UNEP, 2017). This confrontation may heighten awareness of the value of nature and lead to environmentally conscious behaviour and activities to preserve the environment.

If it is to be sustainable in the long run, tourism must incorporate the principles and practices of sustainable consumption (Boz *et al.*, 2020). Sustainable consumption includes building consumer demand for products that have been made using cleaner production techniques, and for services, including tourism, that are provided in a way that minimises environmental impacts. The tourism industry can play a key role in providing environmental information and raising awareness among tourists of the environmental consequences of their actions. Tourism and hospitality businesses consume an enormous quantity of goods and services, moving them toward using those that are produced and provided in an environmentally sustainable way could have an enormous positive impact on the planet's environment (Sharma and Sharma, 2019).

4. PROTECTION AND PRESERVATION

Tourism can significantly contribute to environmental protection, conservation and restoration of biological diversity and sustainable use of natural resources (Sigh, 2008). Because of their attractiveness, pristine sites and natural areas are identified as valuable and the need to keep the attraction alive can lead to creation of national parks and wildlife parks.

In Hawaii, new laws and regulations have been enacted to preserve the Hawaiian rainforest and to protect native species (Mitchell *et al.*, 2005). Coral reefs around the islands and marine life that depend on them for survival are also protected. Hawaii now has become an international centre for research on ecological systems and the promotion and preservation of the islands' tourism industry was the main motivation for these actions. Grupo Punta Cana, a resort in the Dominican Republic, offers an example of how luxury tourism development and conservation can be combined. The high-end resort was established with the goal of catering to luxury-class tourists while respecting the natural habitat of Punta Cana. The developers set aside 10 000 hectares (24 700 acres) of land as a nature reserve and native fruit tree garden. The Punta Cana Nature Reserve includes 11 fresh water springs surrounded by a

subtropical forest where many species of unusual Caribbean flora and fauna live in their natural state. Guests can explore a "nature path" leading from the beach through mangroves, lagoons of fresh water springs and dozens of species of Caribbean bird and plant life. Other environmentally protective policies have been put into effect at the resort, such as programmes to protect the offshore barrier reefs and the recycling of wastewater for use in irrigating the grounds.

Tourism has had a positive effect on wildlife preservation and protection efforts, notably in Africa but also in South America, Asia, Australia and the South Pacific (Higginbottom *et al.*, 2001). Numerous animal and plant species have already become extinct or may become extinct soon. Many countries have therefore, established wildlife reserves and enacted strict laws protecting the animals that draw nature-loving tourists. As a result of these measures, several endangered species have begun to thrive again (IUCN, 1996; UNEP and WTO, 1992).

5. REGULATORY MEASURES

Regulatory measures help offset negative impacts; for instance, controls on the number of tourist activities and movement of visitors within protected areas can limit impacts on the ecosystem and help maintain the integrity and vitality of the site (Begum, 2019). Such limits can also reduce the negative impacts on resources. Limits should be established after an in-depth analysis of the maximum sustainable visitor capacity.

This strategy is being used in the Galapagos Islands, where the number of ships allowed to cruise in this remote archipelago is limited and only designated islands can be visited, ensuring visitors have little impact on the sensitive environment and animal habitats (UNEP, 1998).

CASE STUDY

THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AT DOMBOSHAVA NATIONAL MONUMENT IN ZIMBABWE

ELISHA WOYO AND EDITH WOYO (2016)

The Domboshava National Monument is situated 35km from Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe

(NMMZ) manages Domboshava National Monument and was given National Monument status in 1936. The monument houses rock paintings and the rock paintings are found in a rock shelter on the eastern base of an extensive and imposing granite hill as shown in Figure 1. The hill, located in the Chinamhora Communal Lands, commands a magnificent view of the surrounding countryside. Major attractions include an Interpretive Centre or Site Museum, beautiful rock art panels, geological formations and a natural scenic environment such as abundant wooded vegetation, peaceful flowing stream, pools and walking trails.

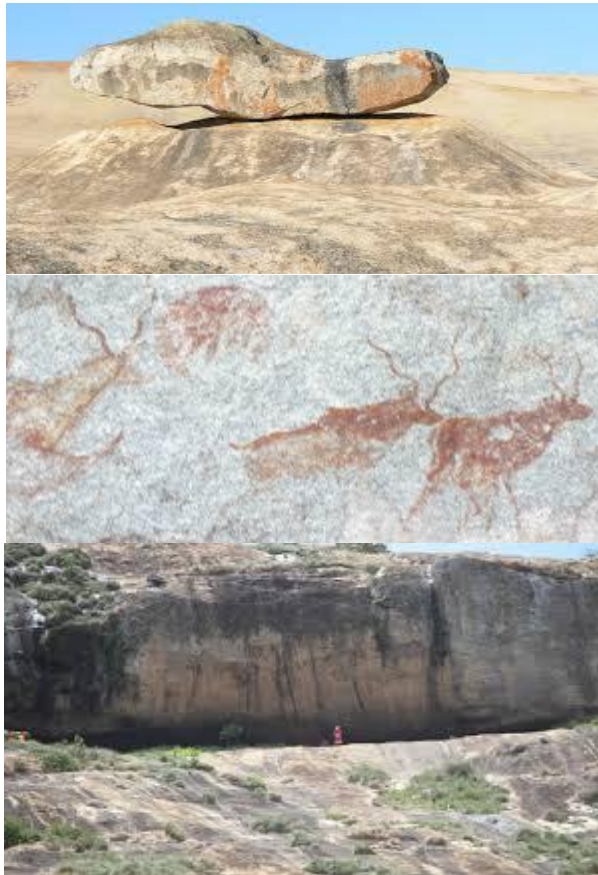




Figure 1: *Domboshava National Monument*

The tourism operations of the NMMZ is divided into five regions as indicated in Figure 2 and Domboshava National Monument falls into the Northern region.

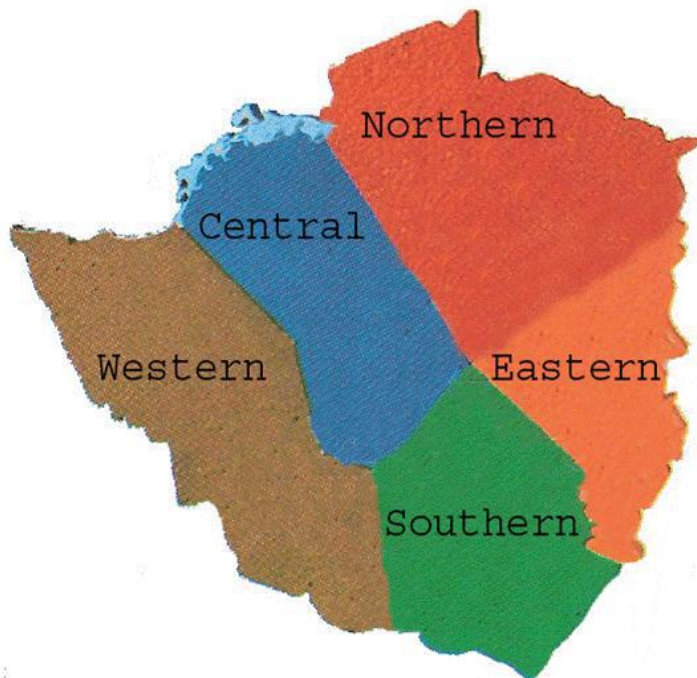


Figure 2: *Delimitations of NMMZ*

Questionnaires were administered to a sample of the Chinamhora residents, tour guides, tourism developers, site managers and local leaders to find out the impacts of tourism development at the Domboshava National Monument. The study used mean as a decision point at 2.5 and any mean value that was 2.5 and above was regarded as agree and below 2.5 was regarded as disagree. The survey instruments were coded to reflect whether they mentioned positive or negative tourism impact at the monument. Several positive impacts were identified by respondents as shown in Table2 below.

Table2: Impacts of tourism development at Domboshava National Monument

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Decision
Improvement of the Environment	50	1	2	2.52	Agree
Positive Image of the Monument Area	50	1	2	2.52	Agree
Source of Ecological and Heritage Information	50	1	2	2.52	Agree
Income Generation	50	1	2	2.56	Agree
Infrastructural Development	50	1	2	2.54	Agree
Desecration of Cultural Values	50	1	2	2.52	Agree
Spirituality of the Monument Compromised	50	1	2	2.52	Agree
Promotion of Cultural and Heritage Tourism	50	1	2	2.46	Disagree
Infrastructural Development Pressures	50	1	2	2.46	Disagree
Conservation of the Cultural Heritage Site	50	1	2	2.48	Disagree
Employment Creation	50	1	2	2.50	Agree
New Business Enterprises	50	1	2	2.42	Disagree
Valid N (listwise)	50				

Table 2 shows that 90% of the respondents indicated that tourism development has got more positive impacts on the Domboshava National Monument and the surrounding Chinamhora community. In addition, there was a general consensus that tourism development at the monument should continue in the future for the greater good of future generations of Chinamhora. Reactions of both residents to tourism and the tourism developers at the Domboshava National Monument are satisfied with the way tourism has been developing at the monument. Perceptions of personal impacts and community impacts show that on average, they are positive at both levels. Thus, on the overall, it was found that tourism development at the Domboshava National Monument has got more positive impacts than the negative outcomes of the development process. Chinamhora's residents view of tourism is more positive than negative. In Table 2, more positive impacts

were identified, while only four negative impacts were singled out by the participants in this study. This finding is quite encouraging when compared with negative impacts of tourism development that took place during the construction of certain tourist hotels in Zimbabwe.

SPECIFIC IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT — PERCEIVED ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AT DOMBOSHAVA CAVES

The physical appearance of the monument has been enhanced by tourism development taking place at the monument ($m = 2.52$). It was also noted that there was improvement in terms of environmental conservation of the heritage and the surrounding environment of the area around the monument ($m = 2.52$). The study could not establish the claims that were made by Pwiti & Mvenge (1996) regarding the decline of the available habitat for local wildlife of the area. Negative impacts at the monument were cited as infrastructural development pressures and litter due to many vendors near the monument. Tourism development at Domboshava is luring more people to reside close to the site or have a business close by, thus contributing to development pressures.

CONCLUSION

Tourism and hospitality operations are hinged on the environment as a resource. The environment can be divided into the natural environment and the man-made environment, (built environment). Attractions for visitors are provided in or by the environment so any negative impact on the environment may lead to reduction in number of tourists and the opposite is true of positive impact on the environment.

Negative impacts of tourism on the environment include river pollution, marine pollution, soil erosion (footpath), litter, overcrowding, human and traffic congestion and aesthetic pollution all of which can affect ecosystems. Tourism can bring positive impacts by contributing to conservation of landscapes, preservation of buildings and generation of revenue from park fees and taxes. Above all, environmental awareness can be raised through tourism.

Impacts of tourism operations are felt at global level down to a localised location, with tourism development bringing with it human and species life threatening effects like heat waves, tornadoes, cyclones, all as a result of climate change. Tourism activities are also threatening their existence by these

changes at global levels. The need for careful, responsible, green and or sustainable planning and management in tourism and hospitality operations, is critical to minimise negative impacts of tourism and enhance positive impacts of tourism as visitor numbers continue to increase and tourists are travelling and found everywhere on mother earth.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Identify the environment impacts of tourism and hospitality in your area. Group the impacts under headings “positive” and “negative” impacts. Try to draw the balance sheet of the impacts and draw your conclusions on that impacts are greater than others, giving justifications.
2. How may environmental impacts of tourism and hospitality operations vary from the operations in the city and countryside?
3. What are the impacts of tourism operations at global level and how do the impacts negatively affect tourism activities?
4. How do can the negative impacts of tourism at Domboshava Caves be minimised and the positive impacts maintained?
5. Choose an area you are familiar with and explain how climate change is affecting tourism and hospitality operations.

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Chapter 7: Mega-Events as Catalysts for Sustainable Development: The Role of Event Greening to Hosting Cities

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Abstract

There is currently very stiff competition between countries and cities to host mega-events. Mega-events such as international church conferences, sporting events like the Zonal Games, the Africa Cup of Nations, the UEFA Championships League and FIFA World Cup and the Olympics Games have a common feature of pulling large crowds. These mega-events have become catalysts for sustainable development in these countries and cities that would have won the stiff competition to host them. These events bring with them wide coverage by global media houses with a global reach. They also bring in much investment and the most needed foreign exchange. According to Kenney and Varrel (2011:1), the motivation to host mega-events is based on the following factors:

1. A successful hosting offers global exposure, prestige and legitimacy to the host city and the entire country, which is especially desired by emerging economies eager to prove that they have become major players on the global stage;
2. Hosting a mega-event rests on the promise of an economic windfall, coupled with a substantial urban makeover; and
3. Staging a mega-event offers a unique opportunity for the host cities not only to present themselves to the world and achieve economic development, but there is also the possibility of creating a “green legacy” in some sectors, which will help these cities face their future development challenges.

The precondition for the creation of a green legacy is the “greening of the event”, the process of incorporating socially and environmentally responsible decision-making into the planning, organisation and implementation of, and participation in, an event. Borchers *et al.* (2010:16) argued that event-greening has two key dimensions:

1. The mitigation of the direct environmental impact, or “footprint” of the event, including carbon dioxide emissions and waste created, water and energy used and biodiversity threatened; and
2. The potential of the event to catalyse a broader societal, political and economic shift towards more sustainable lifestyles and production patterns and to leave a positive legacy.

The hosting of a mega-event puts severe pressure on the urban infrastructure and services related to transportation, water and energy consumption, or waste management and can have significant consequences. Infrastructure projects and the presence of a high number of tourists and spectators will cause a significant increase in greenhouse gas emissions during and after the event. This chapter aims to investigate the involvement of mega-events as catalysts to sustainable development, their footprints in the greening of the environment. Case studies of mega-events such as church gatherings of the Apostolic Churches that conduct open ground gatherings, sports tournaments like the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa and political rallies during election campaigns in Zimbabwe and other developing countries are going to be highlighted.

INTRODUCTION

Mega-events can be defined by their impacts and complexity in organisation and delivery. Due to their size and international scale, mega-events like the FIFA World Cup, the Olympic Games and international church convergences present serious challenges regarding the management of transport, energy supply, emissions, noise, water, waste, construction activity and other aspects. This is especially so when venues of such events are spread out over a country and touch remote and often untouched areas. They risk leaving behind a significant environmental footprint. Mega-events broadly fit into two categories; sporting and cultural (Intel, 2010). In essence, Bowdin *et al.* (2006) believe that mega-events are those events that affect whole economies and have repercussions in global media attention. These events are developed mainly in competitive spheres and include events such as the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup, the UEFA Champions League and African Cup of Nations (AFCON) football tournament and world athletics championships. Hallmark events, according to Bowdin *et al.* (*ibid.*), refer to events that become so closely identified with the place that they become strongly linked. Among classic examples of hallmark events are the Carnival in Rio, the Tour de France, the Edinburgh International Festival, the Jazz Festival of Juan les Pins in Antibes and the International Motorcycle Rally in Faro. Such events

are culturally unique and distinctive, with resident communities contributing to the tourism revenue, creating a sense of local pride and international interest. With time, these events become inseparable from the destination. For instance, it is difficult to imagine the Rio de Janeiro Mardi Gras occurring in a city other than Rio de Janeiro or the Zimbabwe International Trade Fair happening in any other town than Bulawayo.

The growth of mega sports events might be ascribed to three most important reasons:

1. Modern technologies of mass communication that help to reach almost the population the world;
2. Sport media business alliance creation, which completely changed professional sport in the late 20th century; and
3. These mega-events offer a variety of benefits to cities, regions and countries, where they are hosted (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006).

In Zimbabwe international church gatherings, especially by apostolic sects that utilise open grounds which have not been developed to host such events, attract congregants from all over Africa. At these open grounds there are no ablution facilities, water, power and refuse collection facilities, to name a few of the environmental concerns. On a positive note, the Zion Christian Church (ZCC) an apostolic sect, converges annually at their shrine in the Masvingo Province where they have built a state-of-the-art infrastructure that includes a high school. Their church was proclaimed a national monument by the government. Tourists, both locals and foreigners visit, the site to view the beauty.

To limit potentially negative effects and turn these gatherings into opportunities, it is necessary to “begin with the end in mind” and from the very start carefully plan the social and environmental legacy that the event will leave behind. These events can be a powerful social influencer with unique channels and responsibilities offering a communication platform to actively engage event visitors, suppliers, local communities and the public.

The reasons most countries and cities campaign and contest to host these events are addressed in this chapter. More attention is given to specific countries that hosted such mega-events as the Olympic Games, the FIFA and the Rugby World Cups Specific examples of mega-events at national level, like church convergences, political rallies and other organised sports tournaments are also going to be considered in the case of Zimbabwe. There

are some theoretical underpinnings that have encouraged nations to fight for the hosting of such events.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK GUIDING THE HOST CITIES' EXPECTATIONS F HOSTING MEGA-EVENTS

Hosting, or organising, a mega-event is a form of destination branding. It is a way to generate the leveraging process of the event itself and promote the image of a location. Besides, these events put a destination in the spotlight, attracting the attention of the public and the media, thereby enhancing its image nationally and internationally. Mega-events are useful marketing communication tools, even more effective than traditional ones. They can create significant opportunities in terms of destination branding and positioning (Brown, Chalip, Jago & Mules, 2004; Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993; Morgan, Pritchard and Pride, 2005).

After they are done, these events leave behind long-lasting effects, such as the attraction and stimulation of investments, urban regeneration, advanced facilities and equipment, in addition to the improvement of accommodation, services and infrastructures in host cities and nations. The mega-events could have a positive impact on the local economy, also over years. The most important outcomes from these events deal with intangible legacy, or rather social, cultural and political effects that are difficult to identify and measure. They can modify the local identity and image. However, the costs of hosting such events is very high. When South Africa hosted the FIFA World Cup in 2010, new (world standard) sporting facilities (stadia) were built, and transport road networks and other sorts of infrastructural developments were undertaken.

MOTIVATION TO HOST THE OLYMPICS AND THE FOOTBALL WORLD CUP

Regional development was the main goal behind Norway applying for the 1994 Winter Olympics. The intention was to use the Games as a massive catalyst to a stagnating region, starting a dynamic development process and creating an international tourism destination. That vision was based on the idea that tourism is a growth industry, to which mega-events should strongly contribute. The Winter Olympics were deemed suitable, as there is a close linkage between winter sports and winter tourism (Socher and Tschurtschenthaler, 1987). However, Crompton (1995) claimed that because of their short-term nature, such "one-off" events in general are unlikely to generate lasting employment and they will probably produce only short-term effects on tourism.

Repeated events at the same location, as with many festivals, may create several waves of development that strengthen each other through a diffusion process. One reason for sustained growth is that the catchment area of tourists will increase as awareness of a regular festival spreads to other areas over a long period (Bolin, 1996). One-off events, such as the Olympics, will not have the same diffusion effect over time. The Winter Olympics last no more than 14-16 days. Application, planning and preparation, however, often take 10-15 years or more. Thus, impacts on the host town or region occur over a long period, with the event season itself only a short boom. The tourist development theory, which covers the total project period from initial idea to final implementation, generally follows one of two basic forms: a new plateau scenario; or a “back to normal” alternative.

The new plateau theories assume that a mega-event has lasting post-event effects on tourism, because of improved awareness, attractions and accessibility created directly or indirectly by the event. The cumulative effects from such changes give the host community and region increased competitiveness in tourist markets, lifting demand to a new level. According to this theory, the total effect depends on the degree of improvements compared with other tourist destinations. The Lillehammer community based its tourism planning on a new plateau scenario (Næringssselskap, 1990), expecting a 125% increase in traffic between the host election year in 1988 and the year 2000 (up 7% annually). Regional tourism planning was also based on very strong growth, up 102% from 1989 to 1995 or 11% annually (Oppland Fylke, 1989). A local scientist was even more optimistic and claimed a steady regional growth rate of 15% annually because of the Olympics (Kamfjord, 1990). One of the major national research institutes predicted clear effects at a national level too, with foreign tourism up 10% for at least 10 years after the 1994 Games and even more if the 1994 Games were a success (Aasheim *et al.*, 1990).

The “back to normal” scenario is a bell-shaped pattern of tourist flow over time, based on a theory of only preliminary impacts. This theory relates changes in tourist flow to the growth before and decline afterwards in media attention and economic stimulus from the event. A bell-shape also assumes that improvements in competitiveness are not very important or only preliminary. The economic stimulus from preparation and media attention will then be the dominating forces and continue during the immediate post-event years but disappear quickly later on. A significant rise and decline in the awareness level was reported after the 1988 Olympics in Calgary (Ritchie and

Smith, 1991). Skewed bell shapes are also linked to the host community's need to accommodate experts and workers during the planning and development period. The volume of preparation-related traffic depends on the degree of self-support; the smaller the host community the greater the need to import personnel. However, work-related traffic would be relevant initially and disappear afterwards.

According to Matheson (2006), studies of mega-events have shown that economic benefits overestimate the actual ex-post benefits by wide margin. Authors such as Matheson (2004) and Bull (2005) contest the theory that hosting mega-events can have a significant economic impact for the host area. According to Hall (1997) and Malta *et al.* (2004,) mega-events require significant investment, targeting an international market and involving the extensive participation of mass media (cited in Bull, 2005). Yet, Getz (2008), Gratton *et al.* (2005) and Roche (2001) define a mega-event by its long-term economic benefits, impact on a destination's image and identity and effects on destination regeneration (cited in Bull, 2006). Bowdin (2001) underlined that mega-events are events that have enormous impact on economies on whole and that they are quite recognisable and influential in the world of global media. According to Bull (2006), small events rely on local resource only, involve zero opportunity costs, but are less visible in terms of marketing knowledge, because of their small scale and interests.

ADVANTAGES OF HOSTING A MAJOR EVENT

There are some common advantages to countries and cities that host mega-events and include the following:

1. RAISING THE PROFILE OF THE CITY/COUNTRY

Raising the profile of a city can lead to lasting economic benefits. For example, cities which host the Olympics can be assured of lasting recognition and tourism. Barcelona, Sydney and Beijing are good examples of cities that have benefitted tremendously from hosting the Olympics. For a country like China with a controversial human rights record, hosting a major sporting event can be a way of gaining greater international acceptance. When South Africa hosted the Rugby World Cup and, later the FIFA football World Cup, it was a defining moment in highlighting the new "post-apartheid" South Africa. This raised profile can be important for economic benefits, such as attracting tourists and business investment. The importance of this point

depends on the particular city. For South Africa, the World Cup made a big difference about perceptions the world had of South Africa. For a city like London, which already has a very strong reputation, hosting the Olympics will be less influential. However, even hosting the Commonwealth Games can be beneficial for a city like Manchester.

2. *LONG TERM INVESTMENT*

A significant benefit is the long-term investment that comes from preparing for a major event. The city/country will have a legacy of improved sporting venues. Also, cities will usually invest in infrastructure and transport to cater for an influx of tourists. For example, there was significant investment in public transport projects around London since the 2012 Olympic Games. This left a lasting legacy for residents of London, especially East London. East of London benefited from improved public transport.

3. *JOBS AND INVESTMENT*

Several years of planning and investment help create jobs and revitalise depressed cities. This was an important claim of the London Olympics, choosing a site in East London. The London Olympics 2012, created 8 000 full-time jobs and led to a boost in economic output of close to £2billion.

4. *ENTHUSIASM*

It is often easy to find reasons not to host a major sporting event, too much debt, more important priorities. But, a major sporting event can create enthusiasm and excitement for such an event. It can help promote uptake of sport which has lasting benefits for the nation's health. Also, a major sporting event can lead to a rise in volunteerism which promotes civic virtues.

5. *SHORT-TERM ECONOMIC BENEFITS*

The Olympics will see a surge in visitors, athletes and media. This will provide an increase in spending and injection of money into the local economy. However, this injection of money will only be short term (a few weeks) and make little overall impact on the wider economy. Also, the injection of foreign visitors may be offset by locals leaving to avoid the influx and over-crowding.

DISADVANTAGES OF HOSTING MAJOR SPORTING EVENTS

Besides the stated advantages, there are a plethora of disadvantages, especially in developing countries. These are:

1. THE COST OF BUILDING STADIA

To host a major sporting event like the Olympics costs significant sums of money, which must be met by the taxpayer. Costs of Olympics have a tendency to rise over time and be much greater than expected. It is estimated that to hold the Montreal Olympics cost \$120 million in 1970, rising to \$310 million in 1973. The final cost was \$1.6, around 13-times greater at. It took 30 years to pay off the Olympic debt.

2. SHORT-TERM USE

Many facilities built for the Olympics are never fully used again after the games. For example, an 80000 athletic stadium will rarely be full outside of the Olympics. This can be mitigated by careful planning. The London Olympic Stadium is now being used by English Premier League side, West Ham United and was used for athletic events such as the 2017 World Championships. Other Olympic facilities, like the Olympic village, was converted into affordable housing. However, some cities which failed to plan for the legacy of the Olympic were left with unused giant stadia.

3. POTENTIAL FOR NEGATIVE PUBLICITY

If things go well as planned, a city will benefit from positive publicity and, conversely, if things go badly, it the opposite will be true. For example, the Winter Olympics has received adverse publicity because of corruption and cost overruns. The FIFA World Cup in Qatar could backfire if players complain about the heat and conditions of migrant workers. Delhi suffered negative publicity over the state of its facilities at the Commonwealth Games.

4. COST OF SECURITY

Major sporting events must increasingly implement higher levels of security. This is both costly and can restrict freedom of movement of local citizens during games.

SOUTH AFRICA'S 2010 SOCCER WORLD CUP

The decision that the 2010 FIFA World Cup would be held in South Africa was made on 15 May 2004. There followed a lengthy preparatory process of building and renovating venues, upgrading public transport, airports and infrastructure, readying the tourism industry and marketing the country and event and the team's preparations on the football field. Part of this organisational process was the development of a greening programme, although it was relatively low profile and did not command a separate budget stream. The event took place from 11 June to 11 July 2010 in nine host cities.

The 64 matches were played at 10 stadia in various host cities, five of which stadia had been newly constructed and the other five had been upgraded for the event. Stadium capacity varied between 40 000 and 95 000.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORLD CUP BUSINESS MODEL

The overarching objective of both FIFA and that of the host country is the delivery of a successful event. Swart (2010) argued that at the highest level, FIFA and the host country objectives are not entirely not the same.

Table 1: *Key world cup pillars of FIFA and of the host country* (Swart, 2010)

FIFA Objectives	South African Legacy Objectives
A world-class event	Economic benefits
All infrastructure necessary to support the event in place	Strengthen South African and African image
Financially profitable	Social benefits (including jobs)
	Football development

Basing on information in the Table 1, it can be argued that the business models for FIFA and that of the host country, in this case, South Africa, are significantly different. The World Cup is FIFA's biggest event and is, therefore at the heart of their business model. FIFA must generate enough direct financial income to pay current costs and to sustain itself over the period to the next World Cup, including reserve accumulation and expenses involved in setting up the next event. The host country, however, does not link success exclusively to direct financial returns, but relies on less quantifiable benefits, many of which are not even tangible. Tourists spend into the economy and brand value is among the benefits and the legacy aspects of infrastructure improvements, job creation and skills development through World Cup projects.

IMPACT OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP

Much has been said and written on the costs and benefits of hosting such a mega-event as the soccer World Cup. This section is aimed at assessing whether the resource allocations represented a good investment for the country, were they responsible in terms of environmental legacy and maximised the benefits of social, economic and environmental aspects of sustainable development.

1. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT

The host city agreement that was signed included a commitment to sustainable development and environmental protection. According to Section 6.7 of the agreement, the host city undertakes to carry out its obligations and activities

under this Agreement in a manner which embraces the concept of sustainable development that complies with applicable environmental legislation and serves to promote the protection of the environment.

In particular, the concept of sustainable development included concerns for post-competition use of stadia, infrastructure and other facilities and

In practical terms, many host cities do not have the resources to engage with environmental sustainability or sustainable development aspects (Konrad Adenauer Stiftung, 2011). They are challenged enough just to deliver the basic infrastructure and logistics to host the tournament. Other than the major infrastructure projects such as transport and stadia construction (some of which left powerful legacies) required to host a successful event, support from national government in this regard was lacking. Given the seriousness of imperatives such as global warming, it can be summarised that FIFA and the South African government should have better. The 2010 FIFA World Cup carbon footprint was huge because it was generally not regarded as a priority by the key stakeholders from the initial stage of planning.

2. ECONOMIC IMPACT

Initial estimates of the number of visitors that would visit South Africa during the World Cup were over-optimistic. It was estimated that 450 000 tourists would visit but 309 554 tourists actually visited the country. This had a negative ripple effect. The event's economic impact was felt mainly by those sectors that were not directly linked to the event, as there was a large redirection of existing national wealth (i.e. public funds in national treasury coffers) rather than creation of new wealth. Small businesses and informal traders were pushed out of business as there were trading restrictions in areas surrounding the FIFA controlled event. The World Cup period was supposed to be one of the potentially significant times in which small businesses could have benefitted, but their exclusion from the setup alienated them from the expected benefits and chances for the supposed growth brought about by the event.

3. SOCIAL IMPACT

Employment creation is any nation's key priority and, as such, mega-events come as an employment boost for hosting countries and cities. In South Africa, the FIFA World Cup brought with it hopes of new jobs, especially in the stadium and road construction industries. According to Thornton (2009), it was believed that the World Cup would create about 695 000 jobs, of which

280 000 would be sustained in 2010 and 174 000 would be added because of economic activity in 2011. IDASA (2010) argued that these figures were regarded with suspicion and they appeared to be over-estimated. Around 41 000 police officers, trained and employed for the World Cup, were retained permanently after the event. However, the majority of direct and indirect jobs created for the event disappeared once the infrastructure projects were complete.

It is also argued that mega-events divert national resources from more important needs of the country, detracting from their national development plans. In the case of South Africa, a country plagued by a big shortage of residential accommodation, the money used to host the event could have been used to build half a million low-income houses.

The benefits of the World Cup to South Africa and the host cities can be viewed through two lenses. On the positive side, the country was left with an improved transport system, hope for lasting economic benefits, a boosted national confidence and pride and an improved international image. Many local and international fans were entertained. On the negative side, the poor remained poor, unemployment has been addressed only slightly, cities have been burdened with expensive and oversized stadia and, in practical economic terms, benefits will never match the expenditure of the public money. FIFA's model for the World Cup appears geared for developed countries and inappropriate for developing countries like South Africa. Host cities had very little decision-making power in the implementation of projects and were, in general, implementers of the prescribed framework for the event.

There was little room in the FIFA model to prioritise South Africa's development needs and while there was some resource allocation to legacy projects and clear benefits that resulted from the many of the infrastructure projects, lasting benefits to the country should have been greater given the magnitude of the expenditure. It also clear that FIFA is not taking the global climate change crisis seriously. This is irresponsible given the urgency of the problem and large carbon footprint their events generate.

Promoting and hosting an event require high costs, especially in new infrastructures, for security and in facilitation for VIPs (Matheson, 2004). These huge costs are often borne by the public (Kasimati, 2003). New infrastructures mean more taxes and may represent less investment by the governments in other critical areas (e.g. health or education); the so-called

opportunity costs). In the case of a mega sport event, huge are the costs for new infrastructures, with a possible risk of over indebtedness and yet, there are also bidding costs to secure the right to host the mega-event (Matos, 2006).

Some events could adversely affect local business or cause private damages (Davidson and Rogers, 2006; Getz, 2005). In fact, referring to “displacement” effect caused by mega-events, Getz (2005) pointed out that some activities associated with mega-events, such as traffic congestions, closed roads, higher security or restricted access to some public areas in the city, could seriously distract “normal business” activities (non-touristic). Yet, displacement effects could lead residents (runaways or changers) to avoid the area or even to leave the town. For example, Hultkrantz’s (1998) review of the economic impact of the World Athletics Championships, noted that while Gothenburg’s visitor arrivals were boosted by the event, overall Sweden arrivals fell as travellers, named “avoiders” by Preuss (2004), avoided the country as a reaction to the champion shops. Similarly, in Carlton’s (2002) discussion of the Salt Lake City Olympics, it is noted that while Salt Lake City hotels were fully booked , the area’s ski resorts suffered significantly as skiers avoided the destination(cf. Leeds, 2008).

Finally, during the US Democratic Convention, not only was every hotel room in Boston booked, but cruise ships were also used to house the overflow. However, as noted by Blanton and Caffrey (2004), restaurants and shops fared poorly, as non-delegate tourists avoided the city due to the lack of hotel rooms and locals stayed far away.

EVENT-GREENING AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

The need for event-greening can never be over-emphasised. Event-greening is the process of incorporating socially and environmentally responsible decision-making into the planning, organisation and implementation of, and participation in, an event. It involves sustainable development principles and practices at all levels of event organisation and aims at ensuring that an event is hosted responsibly. It represents a total package of interventions at an event and needs to be done in an integrated manner. Event-greening should start at the inception of the project and should involve all key role players, such as clients, organisers, subcontractors and suppliers. It aims to achieve the following:

1. To improve the resource efficiency of the entire event and supply chain management;

2. To reduce negative environmental impacts such as carbon emissions, waste ending up on landfill sites and the effect on biodiversity;
3. To increase economic, social and environmental benefits (triple-bottom line);
4. To enhance the economic impact such as local investment and long-term viability;
5. To strengthen the social impact such as community involvement and fair employment;
6. To improve sustainable performance within an available budget;
7. To present opportunities for more efficient planning and use of equipment and infrastructure,
8. To reduce the negative impact on local inhabitants;
9. To protect the local biodiversity, water and soil resources;
10. To apply the principles of eco-procurement of goods and services; and
11. To raise awareness of sustainability issues.

Part of the 2010 soccer World Cup organisational process was the development of a greening programme. The greening programme took on a relatively low profile and did not command a separate budget stream. Host cities signed a FIFA agreement in 2006 that included a broadly worded commitment to environmental protection, in which they undertook to carry out their role in a manner which embraces the concept of sustainable development that complies with applicable environmental legislation and serves to promote the protection of the environment (Mander & Roberts, 2010).

This commitment was eventually embodied in the Green Goal 2010 programme, inspired by the example of the 2006 German World Cup Green Goal initiative, which had been sponsored by UNEP and claimed to have delivered a carbon-neutral event and substantial water, energy, transport and waste efficiencies (UNEP, 2005). The Green Goal 2010 programme also sought to mitigate the adverse environmental impacts of the tournament, but placed a greater emphasis on using the greening initiatives to inspire and promote sustainability in the country and securing a positive environmental, social and economic legacy for the tournament (DEAT, no date, p. 86).

The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) produced a National Greening 2010 Framework which, formed “an integral part of the response to adapting, as a nation, to the challenges of global climate change

and more sustainable growth and development” (DEAT, 2009:3). It detailed six focus areas of waste, energy, transport, water, biodiversity and responsible tourism, together with four cross-cutting themes of carbon off-setting and emissions reductions, sustainable procurement, job creation and communication and outreach. The envisaged outcomes of the strategy were to reduce the environmental footprint of the event, to leave a green legacy, to communicate the importance of environmental management to citizens and to reduce carbon emissions (DEAT, 2009:11).

However, this framework arrived rather late in the preparatory process, and had a limited impact on the programmes of the host cities. It did set out a comprehensive and ambitious vision for the greening of major international events. The concept of the Green Goal initiative was developed by the German World Cup hosts in 2006. Their widely praised programme had proclaimed the event to be carbon neutral through large accredited emissions offset projects in India and South Africa and impressive local successes in waste minimisation and getting people out of cars and onto public transport, bikes and pedestrianised routes (Schmidt, 2006; UNEP, 2005).

The context of the 2010 South African World Cup was very different. First, social and economic development was a greater priority than environmental mitigation. Sustainability assessments for the new stadia explicitly highlighted the triple bottom line of economic, social and environmental dimensions (UEMP, 2010,:5) and hopes were high that the tournament would deliver jobs, infrastructure improvements and a tourism boost. Secondly, it was recognised from an early stage that the carbon dioxide emissions of the 2010 World Cup would vastly exceed those of the 2006 World Cup. Consultants estimated the tournament would produce 896 661t CO₂e, more than eight times the estimated emissions of the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany, with an additional 1 856 589t CO₂e contributed by international air travel (Econ Po’yry, 2009:5). This increase was due largely to the absence of high-speed rail links in South Africa (meaning most visitors flew between host cities), the anticipated increased time spent in rented accommodation (as international tourists stayed for longer) and the need to construct five new stadia and renovate five others (Econ Po’yry, 2009:5–6). The cost for off-setting this carbon footprint has been variously estimated at between \$5.4 and \$12 million, even excluding the emissions from air travel and whereas in 2006 FIFA contributed to the costs of off-setting the tournament, in 2010 there was little enthusiasm for off-setting the national carbon footprint (Cape Town, 2008:17; Econ Po’yry, 2009:6, 57; Nord and Luckscheiter, 2010,_21-22;

Ozinsky, 2010-8). A further defining feature of the 2010 greening programme was the marked absence of strategic leadership or a coherent vision from national government (at least until quite late in the process, when the National Greening 2010 Framework was released) or from FIFA or the Local Organising Committee. Most of the initiatives for the Green Goal 2010 programme, therefore, came from the host cities and were managed by the existing structures of municipal government.

According to the National Greening 2010 Framework, “the primary task of implementing Greening 2010 lay with the nine cities which hosted the 64 matches of the World Cup”, and the host cities also had the primary responsibility of funding the programmes (DEAT, 2009:22-23). Thus, in the aftermath of the tournament, the DEAT conceded that the success of Green Goal “differed from host city to host city as they had varying levels of technical and financial capacities” (Modise, 2010). As a result, there were huge discrepancies in implementation between very active municipalities such as Cape Town and Durban and less proactive host cities such as Rustenburg or Mangaung (Bloemfontein), many of which lacked the resources to devise and implement a substantial greening programme (Ozinsky, 2010). The absence of a coherent and driving national vision behind the Green Goal project from an early stage, or an integrated communication, branding and marketing strategy, doubtlessly detracted from the catalytic potential of the World Cup mega-event.

The environmental legacy opportunity presented by implementing a Green Goal programme is two-fold. Firstly, the high media profile of the World Cup can be leveraged to create awareness for the environment, leading to changed behaviour patterns and reduced consumption of critical resources such as water, electricity and fuel, and biodiversity protection. The second legacy opportunity is concerned with infrastructural improvements, including city beautification and tree planting, new public open spaces and a modern new stadium with a significant green profile. (Cape Town, 2008:1).

It will not be acceptable to run a mega-event with a poor environmental profile. Such an event would simply not be called “world-class” (Cape Town, 2008:3). There must exist a wide-range of pre-existing initiatives to promote environmental sustainability. The World Cup had “an impetus to enable the aggressive implementation of these plans” (Cape Town, 2009:10). Cape Town’s Green Goal programme comprised approximately 43 separate projects, from waste minimisation and recycling initiatives, to biodiversity

protection and education campaigns, to city beautification and public transport improvements. Durban's greening programme also spent large amounts of money and set ambitious goals, with the greening of new stadia receiving considerable attention (Durban, 2010; Mander and Roberts, 2010). The preparatory processes in cities like Cape Town and Durban, which drew on earlier experiences of event greening (such as the strategic environmental assessment for the 2004 Cape Town Olympic bid and the 2006 ICLEI World Congress), provided impetus and direction for the subsequent (and rather reactive) National Greening 2010 Framework (Interview, Gerrans, 2010; Interview, Granger, 2010). Projects implemented under the Green Goal 2010 initiative across South Africa:

1. Waste
2. Energy
3. Transport
4. Water
5. Biodiversity
6. Responsible tourism
7. Carbon off-setting and emissions reduction
8. Sustainable procurement
9. Communications and outreach
10. Governance

Questions have, of course, been raised about how appropriate it was to spend millions of rands on iconic stadia when many of South Africa's population lacked safe and secure housing. The economic sustainability of these venues has also been questioned, given that previous experiences in Japan and South Korea after 2002 revealed a propensity for World Cup venues to become expensive white elephants (Pillay and Bass, 2008:337-338). The fact that Cape Town, for example, already had large stadia in Athlone and Newlands and that local soccer teams cannot attract crowds anywhere near the size to make Green Point profitable, was a source of public concern both before and after the tournament. This was exacerbated by the suggestion that it was FIFA's desire to have the iconic Table Mountain in the background that led to the controversial decision to build a new stadium at Green Point, rather than renovate or expand existing stadia (Alegi, 2008; Bob and Swart, 2009; Schoonbee and Brummer, 2010).

The spectacle of vast sums of taxpayers' money being siphoned into world class stadia in prime areas of still deeply divided South African cities, seemed, for many, to encapsulate the reality of the 2010 World Cup, namely the

overriding preoccupation with ensuring a successful mega-event, with corresponding neglect of longer-term considerations of sustainability, justice and equality. There were calls for social movements to protest against the forms of inequality and exclusion that were perpetuated by the tournament, drawing inspiration from the “World Conference against Racism (WCAR) and World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) when thousands took to the streets” (Desai and Vahed, 2010:164). For many social movement activists, the very suggestion that the World Cup could be made environmentally and socially sustainable was laughable. As such, they saw the Green Goal initiative as little more than “green-wash”.

The tree-planting and recycling bins associated with the Green Goal project did little to mitigate the adverse effects of a mega-event characterised by the diversion of scarce public funds into white elephant stadium construction, the forced removal of communities, the quasi-imperial control of FIFA and their multinational partners over every aspect of the tournament marketing and the over-hyped anticipation of economic benefits and national unity (Be’nit-Gbaffou, 2009; Pillay and Bass, 2008). It seemed inevitable that those who gained most from the World Cup would be the wealthiest communities and the largest corporations (Desai and Vahed, 2010:157). It was further alleged that the distraction of the World Cup had also meant that departmental budgets not related directly to 2010 were being slashed and that FIFA’s demand that hosts “render the city as attractive as possible” meant that planned infrastructure replacements or upgrades had to be shelved for quicker and cheaper repairs, prioritising short-term appearances ahead of longer term sustainability and value for money (Cape Town, 2010:27). From such a perspective, the 2010 World Cup appeared to be a disaster for environmental politics in South Africa and for broader visions of progressive sustainable development.

DIVESTMENT AS A WAY OF EVENT-GREENING AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

Many mega-events are not repeat editions for hosting nations and cities. They are designed for a single “one-time-only” purpose. Repeat editions such as garden festivals, international trade fairs and church conventions whose purpose maybe regeneration, may recur in the same place twice or annually. As for non-repeat editions that are designed for a single “one-time-only” mega-events that do not recur regularly such as the Olympic Games and soccer world cups may leave substantial legacies in terms of buildings and facilities, some will only leave social legacies.

If the event has been a one-off, with regeneration or re-use in mind as objectives for the site, there is need for divestment. The divestment needs to be planned into the process at the onset. It will be essential to hand over, not just the site, but also the knowledge that goes with it, about its nature, utilities, environment, problems and limitations. The type of post-event use of an event site, where regeneration or re-use has been planned, may vary, as may the kind of organisation taking over the site. In the case of the series of garden festivals held in the United Kingdom in the early 1990s, most sites were handed over to local development agencies, whose task was to re-use the sites to create employment and other positive development outcomes and to retain part of the site as public open space parkland or nature reserves. For more recent development of event sites, such as the Millennium Dome site and parts of the Hanover 2000 site, development companies were allowed to purchase these with various projects in mind. In the case of the Dome, perhaps to create a casino (the latest, in 2004, of a long line of unfulfilled proposals)

CHAPTER CONCLUSION

There is currently very stiff competition between countries and cities to host mega-events. Mega-events such as international church conferences, sporting events like the Zonal Games, the Africa Cup of Nations, the UEFA Championships League and FIFA World Cup and the Olympics Games have a common feature of pulling large crowds. Some events could adversely affect local business or cause private damages (Davidson and Rogers, 2006; Getz, 2005). In fact, referring to “displacement” effect caused by mega-events, Getz (2005) pointed out that some activities associated with mega- events, as traffic congestions, closed roads, higher security or restricted access to some public areas in the city could seriously distract “normal business” activities (non-touristic).

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Chapter 8: The Role of Information and Communications Technologies in Green Tourism Promotion in Zimbabwe: Gaps and Policy Direction

TEURAI MATEKENYA AND FUNGAI N. MUKORA

Abstract

Despite its tremendous economic positive benefit to Zimbabwe, the tourism sector can have negative socio, cultural, political and environmental impacts as it involves numerous stakeholders, usually with conflicting interests. There is general agreement in literature that information and communications technologies (ICTs) can be used to address these negative impacts. This chapter focuses on describing the role of ICTs in promoting green tourism, ensuring that tourism takes full account of current and future social, environmental and economic impacts while addressing the needs of various stakeholders. The chapter uses the value chain system to highlight the activities undertaken by destination managers to deliver products/services in the tourism sector. Basing on the value chain, the chapter identifies and discusses opportunities for applying ICTs to promote green tourism. ICTs used for fostering decision-making are also highlighted. A policy overview and recommendations then follow and lastly a chapter summary.

INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector plays a pivotal role in reducing poverty, driving growth, creating employment and fostering development (Kotler *et al.*, 2017; Christian *et al.*, 2011; Mihalic *et al.*, 2012). Despite their positive role in contributing to social and economic development, tourism projects are also associated with deterioration of the socio-cultural values of the locals and the environment, some of which may be irreversible (Ruggieri, 2018). Tourism has the potential of disrupting wildlife and causing degradation of the environment as it exerts pressure on the fragile ecosystem and competes for scarce resources such as water and land. Tourism can also lead to dislocation of traditional societies as it puts pressure on host communities. Policy-makers have concentrated on the economic impact of tourism, ignoring or giving little attention to its socio, cultural and environmental impact (Sinclair, 1998). Due to the dominant role

of the economic impact of tourism in policy-making, many nations embarked on indiscriminate and unplanned growth of tourism infrastructure. This resulted in negative effects from an environmental and social perspective, such as massive land development and pollution from air transport. These affect the environment, for example, besides the pollution caused by the air transport system, tourism transport has also distributed COVID-19 globally within a very short period of time. This has destroyed the lives of many. This situation has called for sustainability/greening of the tourism sector. The overall aim for this being to make tourism more economically, socially and environmentally responsive, ensuring that future generations' needs are not compromised, and they have enough to meet their needs (Barnett and Parnell, 2016). There is general agreement in literature that ICTs are supportive of the Sustainable Development Goals (Sachs *et al.*, 2019; Ekholm and Rockstrom, 2019) and thus can promote green tourism. According to Scheel and Vazquez (2011) and Hjalager (2010), innovation and technology are considered the main forces to ensure sustainability.

This chapter is presented as follows: the next section describes green tourism, followed by a section that describes the tourism value chain. Then follows a section presenting an array of ICT-based tools and applications that can be used by destination managers for sustainable tourism development using the value chain approach. Destination refers to the sites where tourism impacts occur (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). This section is followed by a description of how ICTs can be used for decision-making, policy overview on green tourism in Zimbabwe follows and lastly a chapter summary.

1. GREEN TOURISM

According to Furqan *et al.* (2015), green tourism refers to the travel to a destination where the fauna, flora and cultural heritage are primarily attractive. In this chapter, the term “sustainable” and “green” are used interchangeably. It includes environmentally sustainable travel to destinations that minimise climate impact with the overall goal of preserving and respecting natural resources (Graci and Dodds, 2008). According to Barnett & Parnell (2016), sustainability is made up of three aspects, namely physical environment, society and the economy. Thus, for tourism to be sustainable,

initiatives must be socially acceptable, economically viable and environmentally compatible. These three aspects should receive equal attention from every tourism development strategy, as they are equally important if desired results are to be achieved. If any one of these aspects is weak, instability occurs in society. According to Font and Tribe (2001), green tourism signals that tourism operations do not harm the environment. Tourism products are green when they are beneficial to the consumer and the producer without harming the environment. Dodds and Joppe (2001) break the green tourism concept into four components:

1. Environmental responsibility: which aims at conserving, protecting and enhancing the physical environment and nature to ensure the enduring health of the life-sustaining eco-system.
2. Local economic vitality: which aims at supporting local businesses, economies and communities to ensure sustainability and economic viability.
3. Cultural diversity: which aims at appreciating and respecting cultural diversity and culture to ensure the sustained health of host or local cultures.
4. Experiential richness: which aims at providing stirring and substantial experiences through personal, active and involvement with and participation in people, places, nature and cultures.

Green tourism calls for maintaining a balance between the environment and tourism development through appropriate management and planning of tourism resources to reduce the negative impact of tourism (Batta, 2009). According to the UNEP and the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2005), there are 12 aims of tourism sustainability. Barnett and Parnell (2016)'s three components of sustainability are coalesced with these 12 aims of tourism sustainability to come up with the three pillars of sustainable tourism as shown on Figure 1.

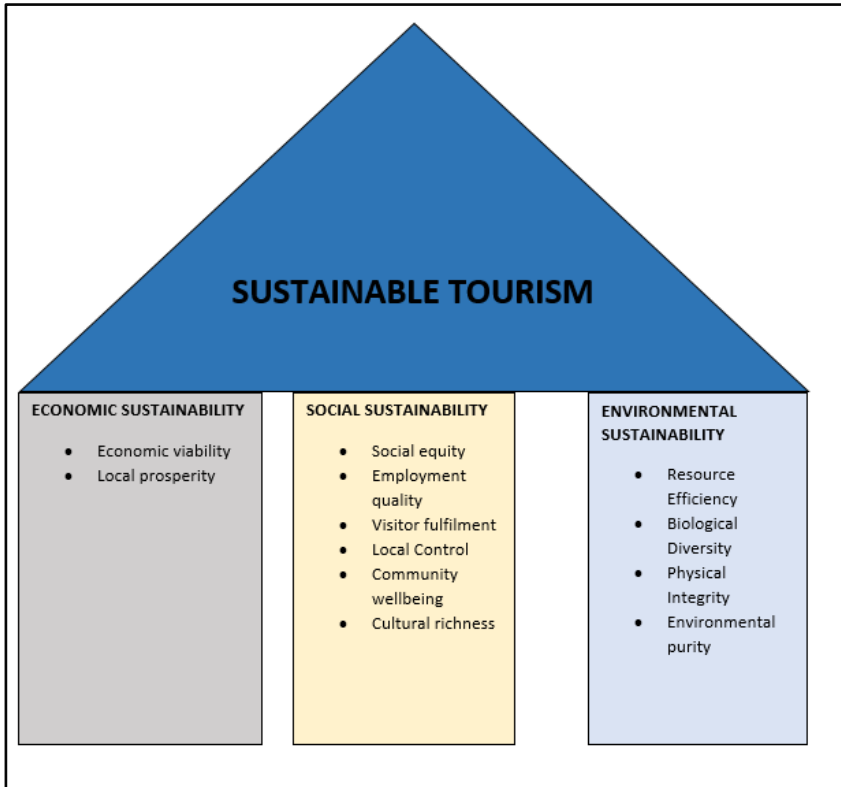


Figure 1: *The Three Pillars of Sustainable Tourism*

According to Figure 1, achieving tourism sustainability in Zimbabwe means striking a balance among all the three pillars, the economic, social and environmental pillars. The aim of focusing on the economic sustainability pillar is to ensure that the destination achieves the following two objectives:

1. Economic viability, ensuring viability and competitiveness of the Zimbabwean tourism enterprise; and
2. Local prosperity, ensuring the maximisation of tourism contribution to Zimbabwe's economic prosperity;

Achieving social sustainability aims at achieving the following in Zimbabwe:

3. Social equity, focusing on distributing fairly the economic and social benefits from tourism. ‘

4. Employment equity, focusing on strengthening the quality and number of local jobs created and supported by tourism;
5. Visitor fulfilment, focusing on providing a satisfactory, safe and fulfilling experience to visitors;
6. Local control, focusing on engaging Zimbabwe's local community in making decisions and planning management of tourism in their area;
7. Community wellbeing, focusing on strengthening and maintaining the quality of life in local community; and
8. Cultural richness, focusing on enhancing and respecting local heritage.

Environmental sustainability pillar aims at achieving the following:

9. Resource efficiency, focusing on minimising the use of scarce resources;
10. Biological diversity, focusing on supporting the conservation of natural areas'
11. Physical integrity, focusing on maintaining the quality of landscape., and
12. Environmental purity, focusing on minimising the pollution by visitors.

As noted by various authors, ICTs may be used to green the tourism industry (Sachs *et al.*, 2019; Ekholm and Rockstrom, 2019; Scheel and Vazquez, 2011; Hjalager, 2010). The tourism industry includes organisations in the industry such as resorts, hotels, tour operators, travel agencies, airlines, water and ground transportation. ICTs may be used in each of these throughout their value chain to promote green/sustainable tourism.

2. TOURISM VALUE CHAIN

The value chain details the activities that take place within organisations. According to Sharma and Christie (2010), Porter's original value chain needs to be modified when applied to the tourism sector since tourism is a service sector and the original Porter value chain is for manufacturing sectors. Rahmiati *et al.* (2019) proposed three stage value chain activities. The pre-trip experience, the trip experience and the post trip experience as shown in Figure 2.

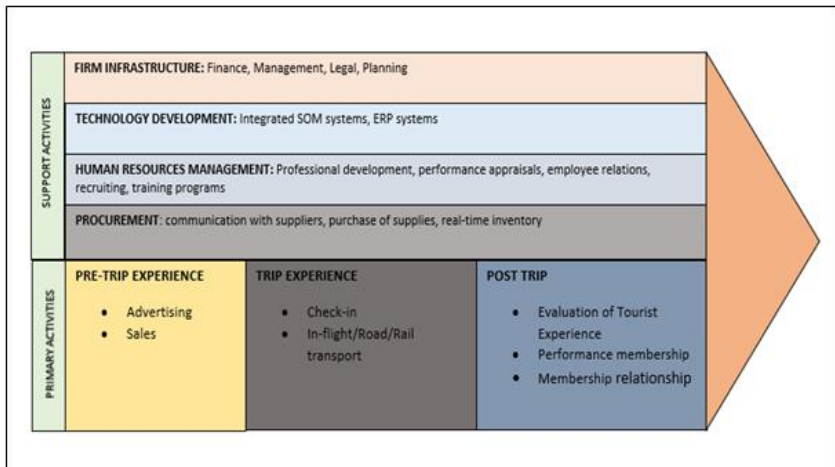


Figure 2: The Tourism Value Chain Activities Model

Figure 2 shows that companies in the tourism industry have three primary activities: the pre-trip experience, trip experience and the post trip. These three activities are supported by activities such as firm infrastructure, technology development, human resources management and procurement. ICTs may be used at each of the stages of the value chain by destination managers to achieve this and promote green tourism.

Tourism experience consists of activities, provided by several different players such as hotels, carriers, tours and restaurants. For effectiveness within the industry, there is need for these different players to collaborate, coordinate and integrate in customer service delivery (Yahyak, 2017; Navakiran, 2010). ICTs may be used to facilitate the integration of these different players for industry effectiveness.

3. ROLE OF ICTs IN PROMOTING GREEN TOURISM – VALUE CHAIN APPROACH

According to Ruggieri and Calo (2018), ICTs may be used by destination managers as practical and innovative approach in greening the tourism industry. They may be used for green tourism by engaging in dialogue with community as well nurturing better partnerships with stakeholders. The value chain is used to describe the role of ICTs in promoting green tourism at each of the three stages of the value chain.

PRIMARY ACTIVITIES

STAGE 1: PRE-TRIP

This is an information search stage where tourists search for information regarding their proposed destination (Nikolova, 2008). Tourists will need accurate and detailed information related to tourism destinations, such as the products, accommodation and all other things that the tourists may require before departure (Yahyak, 2017; Yilmaz and Bititci, 2006). Travellers cannot pre-test the product or get back their money if the trip fails to meet their expectations. They, therefore, need quality information to help them plan and make decisions. ICTs may be used by each of the tourism players to provide tourists with the rich information as they search for destination information at the pre-trip stage. The following technologies may be used to promote green tourism:

E-COMMERCE

E-commerce allows tourism business to reach the global audience, for example, the handicrafts industries can deliver information about their product to various audience across the globe (Farkhondehzadeh *et al.*, 2013). Hotels, lodges and travel agencies maintain websites that advertise their unique features and product and service offerings. In addition to providing information through one-way advertising, the websites may also be used for two-way communication with potential tourists through technologies, such as blogs and forums. The same website being used for providing information to potential visitors and allowing two-way communication with them may be used to facilitate transactions and the distribution of some tourism services. According to Ogbu (2011), the website can be used for selling products online without the tourist having to travel to the destination. This includes flight booking, hotel reservations, thereby removing the pressure on the environment and saving on time. Thus, ICTs may open opportunities for local businesses, economies and communities through the creation of digital marketplaces. ICTs are also changing the business culture through automating transactions and increasing efficiency. All this promotes green tourism as the physical environment is protected and conserved. Tourists can consume the products and services whilst in their home countries and at the same time the local communities are supported to ensure sustainability and economic viability (Dodds and Joppe, 2001).

WEBCASTS

Companies in the tourist industry, may benefit from webcasts, which is a media presentation distributed over the internet to delivering a single content to many simultaneous viewers/listeners, using streaming media technology. It is just broadcasting done over the internet (Guemide *et al.*, 2019). Live videos about different tourist sites and locations, traditions and customs (such as weddings, marriages and festive celebrations) tourist potentials (such as national parks and the different practices that can be practised there) can be uploaded on the internet. The webcast thus introduces the culture of the nation and help in protecting and maintaining the country's heritage (*ibid.*) and promoting cultural richness.

ELECTRONIC BROCHURES

Electronic brochures provide comprehensive information via the email than would otherwise be found on the web page (*ibid.*). This promotes green tourism as information is provided electronically as opposed to printing of papers, protecting the environment in the process as paper printing involves the destruction of trees.

VIRTUAL E-TOURISM AGENCIES

Destinations may have a dynamic, interactive web tourism portal which may host various sites that for both the private and public sectors, linking various actors in the tourism sector, such as travel agencies, hotels and airlines, restaurants and camps. The website may also display information relating to all the successful trips that have been organised by the destination. ICTs can be used to create platforms that collate ratings, reservations or review data to identify business trends, monitor tourists and business and to predict the behaviour of tourists (Leal *et al.* 2020). According to Sachs *et al.* (2019), ICTs support new virtual tours.

STAGE 2: TRIP EXPERIENCE

This is the stage where the tourists actually consume the tourism products. The stage is associated with inbound and outbound transportation, accommodation and excursions. Excursions include entertainment, natural tourism, shopping and festivals (Rahmiati, 2019). The following technologies may be used to promote green tourism at this stage:

PERSONALISED, INTERACTIVE, REAL-TIME TOURS (PIRTs)

According to Fennell (2021), ICTs can be used for personalised, interactive, real-time tours (PIRTs). These PIRTs use webcams, cameras and drones to enable tourists to experience events or environments in the comfort of their homes. Under normal circumstances, traditional eco-tours are economically beneficial for the destination nation. Under the COVID-19 pandemic conditions where travelling is banned, ICTs may be used to grow the tourism sector in a sustainable way. PIRTs are more economical as tourism income still trickles in even with national borders closed, there is no environmental pressure exerted on the destination while social-culture is preserved at the same time. Thus, in pandemics such as the COVID-19, ICTs like PIRTs promote green tourism by fostering both economic and environmental sustainability. Despite their benefits, PIRTs are unlikely to replace ecotours (Fennell, 2021).

INTELLIGENT TRANSPORT SYSTEM (ITS)

The system provides for real time information and traffic management (Diagle and Zimmerman, 2004). This leads to savings in terms of energy through the use of the shortest and the safest routes assisting in navigation and reducing amount of carbon in the air hence the environmentally responsible (Dodds and Joppe, 2001). The satisfaction level of the tourist is improved, and increases chances of repeat visits.

LOCATION-BASED SERVICES (LBS)

Location-based services (LBS) are used for promoting green tourism. They provide information to tourists for geographic location visits in real time (Liburd, 2005; Berger *et al.*, 2003). LBS market and inform tourists about the sites and attractions to visit, educate tourists on travelling to areas that are sensitive, how best they can respect and maintain the destination environment and the appropriate behaviour to exhibit at the destination. This, according to Liburd (2005), helps tourists make sustainable choices about which of the products to consume during their stay. Thus, LBS help promote green tourism as it aims at preserving, appreciating and respecting the culture of the destination while at the same time pushing for economic vitality (Dodds and Joppe, 2001).

FOOD WASTE MANAGEMENT

ICTs CAN BE USED TO ANALYSE FOOD WASTE FRACTIONS.

MENU OPTIMISATION

Apps may be used to optimise menus with regards to dietary aspects, leftovers, costs or greenhouse gas content. The following technologies can be used by tourism companies for example restaurants: smart kitchen furniture, tablets for point of service platforms, ICTs for reservations, finance, marketing staff management, education, wait list management, deliveries, food waste management, restaurant website. Energy management, inventory management and ordering systems, smart payment systems, guest reward and loyalty programmes (CB Insight, 2017).

STAGE 3: POST TRIP EXPERIENCE

This stage assesses the experience of the tourist. Service providers use this stage to assess the satisfaction level of tourists to improve their products and services.

REPUTATION MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Restaurants can manage and control their reputation through platforms such as TripAdvisor, Google and recommendation application. These platforms help to achieve social sustainability by realising visitor fulfilment aim of social sustainability.

4. ICTs FOR DECISION-MAKING IN GREEN TOURISM

According to Gössling (2021), decision-makers in tourism can use ICTs in making various decisions, such as in-demand forecasting using emerging pattern mining, artificial neural networks and supportive vector machines. The following technologies facilitate decision-making in tourism across the three levels of decision-making (operational, tactical and strategic):

Machine learning (ML)

1. Machine learning can contribute positively to environmental issues in tourism through the creation of mathematical models to predict or make decisions without human interventions (Grant *et al.*, 2020; Froemelt *et al.*, 2020). ML has the potential to provide valuable contribution to tackle environmental and ecological challenges and, therefore, support conservational management programmes (de Souza *et al.*, 2016), hence promoting green tourism.

DESTINATION MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

An important ICT tool for greening the tourism sector is the Destination Management System (DMS). The DMS is used by destination managers for marketing (Horan and Frew, 2007), information management, resource management, tourist education, distribution and for sustainable consumption. The use of ICTs in marketing can increase tourism arrivals while decreasing tourism expenditure per capita. The use of customer relationship management (CRM) promotes the appropriate and right timed marketing campaigns that are effective, reducing the cost of marketing. This contributes positively to the economic arm of sustainability.

ENVIRONMENT MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM

According to El-Gayar and Fritz (2006), environment management information systems (EMISs) are used for resource and information management, resulting in cost management. The EMIS provides destination managers with useful information for decision-making. Using EMIS, destination managers are more aware of the impact of tourism on the destination and as a result, make decisions on how to correct or mitigate the actions. Thus, based on the information from the EMIS, destination managers can measure and monitor the environmental quality of the destination to identify areas for zoning.

GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM

The Global Positioning System (GPS) may be used in tourism for tracking and analysis of tourist movement (Isaacson and Shoval, 2006) and tourist location identification. This is critical information that can be used by destination managers for making sound decisions related to developing tourism plans to ensure that the tourists are spread at different sites and attractions to better manage the environmental impact through load balancing.

GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SYSTEM

The Geographical Information System (GIS) is used in tourism to map and profile tourists at destinations (Lau and McKercher, 2007). The data from GIS is used by destination managers in crafting visitor management techniques, transport planning and route identification (Lew and McKercher, 2005). GIS can be used for data integration and mapping with the overall aim

of providing destination managers with a vivid picture of the conditions at the destination for sound decision-making. With information from GIS, both locals and tourists are provided with the quickest and safest routes to the destination. This coordination and management of information provides for economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits to the destination.

COMMUNITY INFORMATICS

Technologies, such as Community Informatics may be used for preserving the local resources and heritage. These are used for community engagement, interpretation and community cohesion, heritage preservation (Gretzel and Fessenmaier, 2009) and they engage with the socio-cultural aspects of sustainable tourism (Dodds and Joppe, 2001). Community Informatics allows the community greater involvement in decisions relating to tourism development in their area and hence increased buy-in (Cole, 2006). One of the pillars of green tourism is appreciating, respecting and promoting socio-cultural diversity (*ibid.*). To support this, Chiabai (2013) encourages stakeholder participation. Community Informatics improves awareness of sustainability in an online environment among the host community. The community can also suggest the message to communicate to the tourists.

BIG DATA

ICTs have the potential of addressing all of the highlighted policy areas needing refocusing and re-orientation. Big social networks data generated by tourists and the locals, if properly mined, can provide good insights that can:

1. Assist destination managers in planning for and enhancing tourism sustainability;
2. Be used strategically in the formulation of responsive and evidence-based policies for sustainable tourism,
3. Be used for monitoring the tourism sites with the aim of providing early warning of impending dangers, allowing for prompt decision-making, hence quick response to potential dangers; and
4. Enhance decision-making in tourism on issues such as waste management, crime, health, transportation and safety (Spaliviero *et al.*, 2020; Wang and Moriarty, 2018).

COMPUTER SIMULATION

According to Ruggieri (2018) Computer Simulation (CS) can be used to predict trends through simulating scenarios, such as climate change and then illustrate the environmental changes that will take place from tourist usage (Lawson, 2006). It will provide destination managers with accurate images of what anticipated tourism developments would look like under changing conditions. This information will be critical for promoting sound decision-making that are more favourable to the long-term impact on the environment by destination managers, hence promoting the greening of the destination.

Tourism monitoring is used to evaluate tourism impact on a destination. Several indices have been elaborated, such as social responsibility, carrying capacity and integration of local people and tourists. The carrying capacity of a tourist destination, which is described as the maximum number of tourists that may visit a destination simultaneously, without causing damage of the economic, physical and social environment (UNEP and WTO, 2005), has been found to be the most relevant indicator. ICTs can be used to monitor the carrying capacity of a nation through the use of technologies, such as WiFi or video technologies and GPS. These technologies count the tourists at destination access points, e.g., harbours or airports, entrance for specific sites at destinations such as archaeological sites, city centres, theme or natural parks, museums, etc. The technologies could also be positioned in specific sites to evaluate the level of crowds. Data collected from these technologies can then be used to formulate green strategies and policies and thus support decision-making.

At the strategic level, ICTs can revolutionise the entire value chain and then facilitate the creation of strategic relationship of tourism organisations and their stakeholders. The internet is a perfect tool to achieve this interaction. Organisations can take advantage of intranets and extranets to communicate with many stakeholders and thus support the development of close relationships with trusted partners. Traditionally, policy is informed by researches through traditional surveys that are slow, labour-intensive and costly. With big data, policy insights can be delivered more frequently, accurately and cost effectively. Technologies such as cellphones, satellite imagery, video feeds, vehicle sensors, remote sensing, machine learning and social media, can be used by policy-makers in making tourism sustainable

5. POLICY OVERVIEW ON GREEN TOURISM IN ZIMBABWE

There are various stakeholders in tourism, each with unique interests and some of them even conflicting among the stakeholders. For example:

Table 1: *Tourism stakeholder interest and concerns*

Stakeholder	Interest	Concerns
Tourism enterprises	Long term profitability, corporate image	Impact on the environment, relationship with staff and communities around them
Local community	Increased prosperity	No to damage or exploitation to their quality of life
Environmentalists	Valuable source of income for conservation	The harmful impact of tourism on the environment
Tourists	The best experience in attractive and safe environments	Increasing awareness on the impact of their travelling.

Table 1 shows that tourism enterprises are interested in achieving long-term profitability and maintaining and improving the corporate image. However, fears are on the enterprise's impact on the environment, the way the enterprise relates with its employees and with communities around them. As much as local communities are interested in increased prosperity from tourism, they are also concerned with the danger and exploitation that tourism can inflict on the quality of their life. Environmentalists are also interested in the income generated from tourism. However, they are also concerned with the harmful impact of tourism on the environment.

It is the role of the government to recognise different motivations and positions of these diverse stakeholders and formulate and implement policies that help in achieving a common goal of sustainability in tourism. The tourism industry is also fragmented, with many different actors. It is, therefore, difficult for these small individual actors to make a positive difference. The government should play a coordinating role in ensuring sustainability in tourism. It must create an environment that encourages all tourism stakeholders to respond to issues of sustainability. The government achieves this through the establishment and implementation of a set of policies for the development and management of tourism that places sustainability at its core.

As shown in the Three Pillars of Sustainable Tourism in Figure 1, any nation seeking to achieve sustainable tourism seeks to address 12 goals (UNEP and WTO, 2005). The aims can be used to identify policy areas to facilitate the formulation of specific policies. Policy areas should be those where tourism has an impact and, hence tourism stakeholders should consider. Government should, therefore, foster the creation of an enabling environment that

encourages stakeholders to go the sustainable route through the development and implementation of policies that favour sustainability.

Table 2: *ICTs for supporting policy areas that encourage sustainable tourism*

Pillar of sustainability	Sustainable Tourism Aim	Examples of Policy Area	ICTs for promoting the policy area
Economic Sustainability	Economic viability	Delivering visitor satisfaction, maintaining sound trading practices Delivering business support	CRM systems ERP systems for internal efficiency
	Local prosperity	Support locally owned businesses	Offering virtual trainings AI, machine learning, IoT, data analytics to predict trends and build their capacity.
		Strengthening links between businesses	SCM systems to strengthen the local supply chain
Social sustainability	Social equity	Tourism income to support social programmes	ICTs to link CSR of enterprises to government incentives.
	Employment quality	Encouraging companies to provide training and staff development programmes	Virtual trainings can be provided
	Visitor fulfilment	Maintaining duty of care to visitors	ITS
	Local control	Engagement and empowerment of local communities	Community informatics
	Community wellbeing	Reducing congestion	PIRTs, GPS
Environmental sustainability	Cultural richness	Conservation of historic and cultural sites	Community informatics
	Resource efficiency	Minimising water and energy consumption	Use of IoT technologies to detect water leakages
	Biological diversity	Raising awareness on biodiversity	Electronic brochures
	Physical integrity	Minimising the physical impact of tourism activities	PIRTs, ICTs for monitoring the carrying capacity of a site.
	Environmental purity	Minimise the pollution of land, water and air pollution	Waste management systems, ITS

Literature above has shown that ICTs play a pivotal role in promoting green tourism and have also potential in promoting sustainability through policy implementation. The following section analyses the tourism policies documents created over the years with the aim of investigating if the tourism policy documents address the peculiarities of environmental, social and economic challenges obtaining in Zimbabwe and the extent to which ICTs have been identified as catalysts in the process. Gaps will be highlighted and policy direction proposed.

TOURISM POLICIES IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe has been described by RETOSA (2004) as Africa's paradise due to unique tourism products that it is endowed with. According to the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) (2004), the country's tourism can become the most important pillar for economic development if well managed. The Zimbabwean tourism industry is regulated through the Tourism Act [Chapter 14:20] of 1996 and indirectly through various other Acts such as safety and health, liquor licensing, tax, environmental protection, aviation and transport, labour laws and land-use, among others. For a long time, the country has been operating without a clear guiding policy framework. A policy refers to the plan of action that a group of people agrees to with the power to carry it out and enforce it (Devon and Boyd, 2000). In Zimbabwe, the crafting of the tourism policy started in 2010, and was adopted by Cabinet in 2012. According to Abel *et al.* (2013), the tourism policy's objectives were to attract investment on existing and new tourism products, to create an enabling environment for the management and development of the tourism sector, to improve the destination image, promote the development of domestic tourism, to promote the contribution of tourism to Zimbabwe's economic growth, to promote sustainable tourism development and, lastly, to promote international and regional engagements. The policies and regulations have a serious corollary on Zimbabwe's tourism industry as they can result in either positive or negative effects. Increase in the cost of doing business is one of the negative effects denting the destination images.

The World Economic Forum (WEF)'s World Travel and Tourism Competitive Index Report (2013) highlights the rankings of countries according to certain criteria. The Travel and Tourism (T &T) Index is centred on three main variables that motivate the competitiveness of T and T. The three classes of variables are:

1. T and T regulatory framework sub-index;
2. T and T business environment and infrastructure sub-index' and
3. T and T cultural, natural resources and human sub-index'.

The three sub-indices refer to policy issues determined by the government, also factors of the business environment that determine launching of business and the human, natural and cultural elements of a nation's resource endowments (*ibid.*). Zimbabwe ranked 118th out of the 140 countries that participated in the survey (*ibid.*).

Other issues of major concern highlighted in the report included safety and security exhibited by high-crime rates and a lack of trust in the police to provide the protection. The country ranked 120 out of 140 on the security variable. According to the report, areas that needed policy re-orientation included: forging partnerships with the private sector, consultations with local communities in tourism planning processes, tourism infrastructure development for the benefit of tourism and the wider society, entrepreneur development policies and initiatives, policy to ensure tourism activities benefit the society as a whole (Dieke, 2000). Table 2 shows that ICTs can support these and other policy areas and thus promote sustainable tourism.

Despite the ICTs role play in ensuring that policy is adhered to, ICTs are not explicitly stated in the tourism policy of Zimbabwe. There is also lack of ICT use enabling environment and the infrastructure is not supportive of heavy ICT use in tourism, for example, highly priced and poor mobile networks, internet challenges, power outage in some areas, unavailability of real time booking systems (Tsokota *et al.*, 2017). There is also the problem with electronic customer relationship management (e-CRM). Most tourism websites contain outdated information, so they do not respond to customers promptly while some do not even have options for two-way communication with potential customers (*ibid.*). Despite the benefits of ICTs, organisations in the tourism sector in Zimbabwe are still fragmented, as there is a lack of information sharing along the supply chain and thus integration is poor. Departmental collaboration within the same organisation is also poor. This negatively affects decision-making (*ibid.*). There is also a lack of a clear and apparent strategy for effective integration and usage of ICTs to enhance the tourism sector in Zimbabwe (Ruhode, 2016). There is poor regulation and policy for ICT adoption and implementation in the tourism sector.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Tourism can contribute to sustainable development in Zimbabwe and literature has shown that ICTs can play a pivotal role in promoting sustainability in tourism. As such, policies should embrace and promote the principle of sustainability. For example, policies should strengthen and encourage the following:

1. Customer focus – this will ensure organisations collaborate and there is system integration and information sharing to please the tourists
2. ICT governance: – to strategically align business and ICT to ensure return on ICT investments.

6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

ICTs play a pivotal role in greening the tourism sector. Several technologies may be used to green the sector. The technologies have been identified at each of the stages of the value chain and the technologies that can be used for decision-making have been identified as well. However, Zimbabwe's tourism sector is still lagging behind in terms of uptake of technology. Policies also have an influence on the level of uptake of ICTs in the sector. A policy gap has been identified and recommendations given.

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About the Book

This book is on sustainable tourism and hospitality. It explains key debates on green tourism and its influence on the environment. The book also highlights how aesthetic values need to be interwoven into the whole process of tourism planning and development to achieve sustainability without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The book also looks into rural and urban situations of tourism and explains how and why greening, responsibility and sustainability are centre-stage themes in Zimbabwe. Gender concerns in tourism were also covered in general and then specifically exploring women empowerment and its impact on green tourism. The book also highlights how far small and medium enterprises (SMEs) have adopted sustainable green tourism concepts in the operation of their businesses. Furthermore, the book discourses the foremost environmental impacts caused by tourism and hospitality operations and, finally, the role of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in promoting green tourism. The book brings different thoughts in which sustainability can be archived through human interaction with the environment using simple and manageable ways. It can be useful to all age groups including scholars, academics, tourism and hospitality people and any other individuals.

