

Community –Based Tourism (CBT) Planning and Possibilities: The Case of Shahmirzad, Iran

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ABSTRACT

One of the critical issues regarding mass tourism is that communities have not been necessarily part of the decision making process in its development; therefore, have not been necessarily a beneficiary of its social and economic benefits. Most of the tourism development projects have designed without those communities' consent and mostly disregarded the community's involvement and not benefited from community's immense knowledge and cooperation. However, there has been a shift in the general attitude of governments, development agencies and NGOs and they are giving considerable emphasis to the Community-based tourism (CBT) as a primary development strategy to support poverty reduction, rural development, and strengthening the social capital of the remote communities. development model and direct the tourism planning towards communities and their interests, Community-based tourism (CBT) has been planned and implemented in similar small towns and rural areas where economic activities based on primary resources have been dwindling and consequently economic hardship has been experienced. In addition, environmental concerns, subsidized agriculture, recreational needs, and sustainable development have become challenging issues in rural areas to make the transition and diversify the economy. EU's rural tourism policy is very well based on this process (Burton, 1995; Gannon, 1994). Community-based tourism (CBT) centers on the involvement of the host community in planning and maintenance of tourism development in order to develop a sustainable economic base (Hall, 1996). This study will focuses on Shahmirzad's passage from a primary agrarian-based economy to possible CBT with respect to its resources, public

sector's agenda, and foremost the community's involvement and prospects towards establishment of CBT. While Shahmirzad's tourism boom is a spontaneous process, the question remains to be answered is to what extent tourism development is in line with the principles of CBT and whether a proactive strategy is in place to achieve this? To examine the processes and characteristics of tourism development in Shahmirzad, and to explore whether its direction is in line with CBT pertinent to the construction of public infrastructure and the conservation of natural and cultural heritage, providing cultural pride, greater awareness of the natural environment, and a sense of ownership in the communities, as well as, an active participation in the process of tourism planning. To achieve the aim of the research, quantitative method based on survey questionnaires have been utilized and the data collected which analyzed through application of SPSS. In the meantime, a semi-structured interview with the public sector officials was conducted to assess the public sectors' attitude and awareness of this process. Findings revealed that tourism development in Shahmirzad has been reactive and not proactive; secondly, the location and climate along with unique heritage sites plays an important role in attracting tourists. Furthermore, government's attitude has remained passive and community's involvement in tourism has not been based on a deliberate strategy with respect to product development, sustainability, and community consent.

Keywords: Community-based tourism (CBT); Community participation; Sustainable tourism; Tourism planning; Remote destinations; Shahmirzad, Iran.

ÖZ

Toplu turizmi ilgilendiren en kritik konu, turizmin gelişmesinde toplumların karar aşamasında yer almadığı ve bu yüzden sosyal ve ekonomik yaralara faydalı olamadığıdır. Birçok turizmi geliştirme projeleri söz konusu toplumların onayını almadan tasarlanmış ve toplumların projelere herhangi bir entegrasyonu olması istenmemiş ve bilgilerinden ve işbirliklerinden faydalanılmamıştır. Ancak, hükümetler tutumlarını ana gelişme stratejisi üzerine yani yoksulluğu önleme, kırsal gelişim ve toplumların sosyal kapitalerini güçlendirmeye vermiş bunun içinde gelişen şirketlere ve NGO'lara birde Topluma-Bağlı-Turizme vurgu yapmışlardır. Gelişme modeli turizm planlamasını toplumlar ve onların ilgilerine yöneltmiştir. Topluma-Bağlı-Turizm benzer şekilde ekonomik şartların zor olduğu küçük kasabalarda ve kırsal bölgelerde de uygulanmıştır. Buna bağlı olarak, çevresel sorunlar, desteklenen tarım, rekreasyon ihtiyaçları ve stabil bir gelişim kırsal bölgelerin sorunu haline gelmiş ve ekonomideki geçiş ve gelişimi de etkilemiştir. Avrupa Birliği'nin presipleri de bu sürece bağlıdır (Burton, 1995; Gannon, 1994). Topluma-Bağlı-Turizm, evsahibi toplumun stabil bir ekonomi için turizmdeki gelişimi ve planlamayı merkez alır (Hall, 1996). Bu çalışma Shahmirzad'ın tarıma-bağlı ekonomi ve Topluma-Bağlı-Turizm'in kaynaklarına, kamu sektörünün gündeminin ve toplumun entegrasyonunun kuruluşundaki etkinliği üzerinde duracaktır. Shahmirzad'ın turizmdeki başarısı spontane olsada, esas sorun Topluma-Bağlı-Turizm ve turizmdeki gelişimin ne kadar paralel olduğudur ve bunu başarabilmek için olumlu bir strateji var mıdır? Bu çalışma Shahmirzad'daki turizmdeki gelişim sürecini ve TBT ile kamusal yapı, doğanın ve kültürün korunması, kültürel gurur, çevre

farkındalığı, toplumu sahiplenme duygusu ve turizm planlanmasının sürecindeki aktif entegrasyonu kapsayacak.

Araştırmanın amacın ulaşmak için, ölçülebilen metod ile anketler yapılmış ve SPSS kullanılarak veriler incelenmiştir. Aynı zamanda kamu sektörüne mülakat yapılarak, kamu sektöründeki kişilerin tutum ve farkındalığına bakılmıştır. Buluşlar göstermiştir ki Shahmirzad'daki turizm gelişimi proaktif değil reaktiftir. Aynı zamanda, lokasyon ve iklim de turizmin gelişiminde büyük rol oynar. Ayrıca, toplumların ürün geliştirmedeki stratejileri ve turizme olan entegrasyonu hükümet tarafından pasif bir şekilde karşılanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Topluma-Bağlı-Turizme (TBT); Katılımcılık; Sürdürülebilir turizm; Turizm planlama; Uzaktan güzergah; Shahmirzad, Iran.

To My Family

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Tourism has become one of the most rewarding economic activities across the world. It has the potential to deal with the key issues encountering many parts of the globe and therefore can be seen as a positive and negative force (Shone & Memon, 2008). Unless the cost and benefits are understood from the outset, strength and opportunities cannot be maximized. However, the positive influence of tourism towards the enhancement of communities in different destinations has raised many doubts. As Mitchell and Reid (2001) aptly put it:

Communities, particularly rural ones, are often at the front line in service provision but last to receive benefits from that effort. Tourism in the developing world has frequently been a double-edged sword; while it may provide a venue for communities and people to augment their income or livelihood, the majority of benefits tend to flow out of them. Additionally, real power and decision-making regularly resides outside of community control and influence (pp. 113-114).

This has invited a new movement, namely an alternative approach to tourism known as Community-based tourism (CBT). This movement is a way to look at tourism in a way that many local people have considerable control over and involvement in its development and supervision. The aim is to keep the major part of the advantages within the local economy. As a first priority, World Tourism actors acknowledge that countries should support greater involvement of communities in the planning, implementation,

monitoring, and evaluation processes of tourism plans, programs and projects (Hall, 2007; Murphy & Murphy, 2004).

While tourism relies on visiting places and people, it cannot exist outside a community. Therefore, the role of both tourism and the communities should be viewed simultaneously – any change to one will influence the other. Hence, tourism is one of the most significant community development tools, particularly in marginal or peripheral communities such as indigenous, remote, and rural communities. Community tourism reorients its emphasis away from the tourists and their world knowledge to the host community and their world knowledge (Kelly, 2002).

Communities have become a focal point of development since 1950s and 1960s in order to involve local people in decision-making process which was curtailed by top-down planning approaches dominant among the development and planning agencies during those decades. Thus, by 1980s a call for community involvement in various rural development projects became a necessity and tourism literature began to address this issue as the key resource in sustaining a healthy tourism product (Sebele, 2010; Hardi et al, 2002).

CBT came into being during the 1970s as a reaction to the negative impacts of the international mass tourism development model (Cater, 1993; De Kadt, 1979; Hall & Lew, 2009; Murphy, 1985; Smith, 1977; Turner & Ash, 1975). While in its embryonic development, most CBT programs were related to small rural communities and nature conservation through ecotourism. Nevertheless, the concept has been extended to a

range of different tourism products (such as local culture and folklore, gastronomy, and traditional handicraft) and managerial models around the world. CBT could be one way of creating a more sustainable tourism industry (Blackstock, 2005).

CBT defined as a form of tourism “where the local community has substantial control over, and involvement in, its development and management, and a major proportion of the benefits remains within the community, even those who are not directly involved in tourism enterprises, gain some form of benefit as well (community fund, multiplier effect etc.); the concept of community as depending on local social and institutional structures and accepted that it must also embrace individual initiatives within the community” (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009, p. 11, Hausler, 2005).

‘WWF defined it as a form of tourism “where the local community has substantial control over, and involvement in, its development and management, and a major proportion of the benefits remains within the community.” WWF accepted that the concept of community depends on local “social and institutional structures” and accepted that it “must also embrace individual initiatives within the community’ (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009, p. 11). The nexus between sustainability and community participation has been also emphasized by Brundtland report on sustainable development which ‘promotes community participation and calls for the protection and improvement of the quality of life of communities influenced by tourism development’ (cf. Sebele, 2010, p. 136).

The case of Shahmirzad in the context of countrywide environment has become a magnet for the tourists within an oasis called the province of Semnan. The city is topographically surrounded by mountains in the north and desert in the south. Its climate and ancient architecture with alleyways and walnut gardens presents a unique DNA to the tourists- domestic and international alike. It is mainly a city embedded in a rural region which is also a characteristic of vast geographical areas in Iran. The case of Iran is defined as a dichotomy known as 'rural' and 'urban'. Despite the population size of Shahmirzad which qualifies the place as an 'urban', it's surrounding and economy is entrenched in 'rural' economy based on primary resources and agriculture. Its climate, location (i.e., proximity to the capital city, Tehran) and historical character played significant role in its popularity for the tourists. However, its tourism assumed to be spontaneous and reactive at best. Furthermore, the role of community and its integration with this form of tourism is in question. The second important issue is to explore the extent of community's involvement in tourism planning and development based on the CBT. In the meantime, rural economy of Iran is also experiencing a transition; therefore, rural areas such as Shahmirzad region, with respect to the tourism resources, can benefit from CBT if necessary planning processes are in place. At the end, to achieve the CBT, certain community capacity building (Aref, 2010) principles are instrumental to overcome the barriers which are:

- lack of recognition of local power as a component of community development,
- inadequate focus on human resource development at the community level,
- lack of effective and strong government institutions,
- lack of capacity to solve problems and

Dependency on government and lack of authority in communities.(Aref, 2010, p. 349).

CBT requires local people's participation in the decision-making process; in the case of Shahmirzad and in the context of a centralized political economy of Iran this needs to be explored because local people's interest/ benefit lies at the core of CBT (Clancy, 1999; Tosun, 1998). The rationale behind CBT in Shahmirzad is that the government is not actively involved in a proactive sustainable tourism planning when it comes to protection of the natural resources outside protected areas, conservation strategies, community resource management which requires greater local participation. Furthermore, decentralization of benefits can increase local benefits and will encourage communities to actively involve in building their social and economic structures. Furthermore, local resource management encourages greater local participation, and the decentralization of benefits of tourism increase local benefits and stimulate communities' interest in resource conservation. The participation and cooperation of locals in tourism is much more important than in any other industry (Murphy, 1985). The assumption is in line with Sebele's (2010, p. 144) view that 'communities should be allowed to become active participants and decision makers, to allow for more benefits to accrue to the society. The researcher maintains that locals can only become active participants if they have support from the government, private sector and NGOs to enable the transfer of skills and knowledge. This can only be achieved through enabling policies and frameworks which maximize the full potential of local communities, while at the same ensuring that the benefits of tourism outweigh the costs'.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Community's involvement and leadership in tourism planning have attracted considerable attention as the early laissez-faire approach to tourism development bypassed the community's interests and alienated their legitimate partnership/leadership in the decision-making process. Despite the changes in the attitudes of tourism planners and developers, which are gearing towards community participation; there is still a great deal of neo-liberal oriented policies that are not necessarily akin to community involvement in decision-making process (Desbiolles, 2006). However, this is about to change and changing. This is because 'Experiences of community-based tourism (CBT) seek to achieve sustainable development, so that communities can improve their living conditions without disappearing and without irreversibly damaging the environment. The aims of CBT are multiple and ambitious: "communities' empowerment and ownership, conservation of natural and cultural resources, social and economic development, and quality visitor experiences (Ballesteros, 2011: 657). Shahmirzad's case assumed to be problematic as there is an absence of a clear community-based tourism strategy towards multiple goals of such strategy. The question is do the communities allowed to transform their lives and improve their welfare, whilst at the same time attempting to maintain a series of cultural traits they are unwilling to relinquish ?

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study has been conducted with the purpose of surveying shahmirzad's tourism planning and development in respect of community involvement and leadership known as CBT. This is significant as the goals of sustainability regarding social, economic,

environment, and heritage conservation are dependent on the direct community involvement and leadership. CBT is a mechanism to achieve empowering communities which otherwise will not be able to become part of the decision- making process. In this way, the strengths and weaknesses of this sector can be explored and eventually a policy direction for the tourism organization can be established. This study tries to fill this void and will facilitate the first step for managers and planners who are involved in the development and organization of Community based tourism in shahmirzad. CBT could be approached analytically as a strategy to increase the resilience of socio-ecological systems that would contribute to sustainable development (Ballesteros, 2011). This study will focus on Shahmirzad passage from a primary agrarian based economy to possible CBT with respect to its resources, public sector's agenda, and the community's involvement and prospects towards establishment of CBT.

1.5 Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The objective of this thesis is to explore and identify the nature and characteristics of tourism planning and development in Shahmirzad, Iran, which has become a popular tourist destination without a proactive planning process. Spontaneous tourism development in this destination raises many questions regarding the community's degree of involvement and participation in planning process. For tourism to be sustainable and beneficial to the community, it is essential to establish mechanisms for and direction towards CBT. Therefore, this research tries to achieve the following objectives:

- Exploring overall tourism structure in Shahmirzad, Iran,
- Elaborating factors that resulted in tourism activities,

- Exploring the nature of the present planning and policies regarding tourism development,
- Exploring the role of public, private, and NGOs as well as planning professionals,
- Examining the case against the principles of CBT,
- Exploring the deficient factors in establishment and implementation of CBT.

1.6 Methodology

The research methodology intended for this study is based on *triangulation* approach. The qualitative research strategy will focus on interviews with the public sector officials at the district and regional levels; in addition, a survey questionnaire will be administered to the randomly selected community residents. This is highly beneficial to determine the compatibility of interview results with the community's perception and attitude towards CBT. Another benefit of this method is to suggest guidelines for harmonization of officials and community in case of contradiction and conflict (process of cross-checking) (Wajcman & Martin, 2002). Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings. Since much social research is founded on the use of a single research method and as such may suffer from limitations associated with that method or from the specific application of it, triangulation offers the prospect of enhanced confidence.

1.7 Organization of the thesis

The thesis contains seven chapters. The first chapter is an introduction to the issues related to the general concept of tourism with emphasis on the concept of community

based tourism (CBT) and its definition. Chapter 2 furnishes an extensive literature review of the concept of community development and typology of community. Historical background of community participation and development also mentioned in this chapter .In chapter 3, tourism industry and it's different impacts, mass tourism and CBT as an alternative tourism are discussed and compared; also different tourism theories were explained in this chapter. Chapter 4 discusses the concept of planning and successful strategies for community based tourism .How public participation and empowerment can help to society wellbeing and people welfare? This chapter also elaborates on the importance role of power in making decision and focus on planning strategies and management. Chapter 5 focuses on the situational analysis of tourism in the city of Shahmirzad, Iran. Shahmirzad's different tourism resources including cultural, historical, and natural resources are identified in this chapter. Chapter 6 describes the research methodology and data gathering process including the data analysis approach to achieve the aim of the research. Chapter 7 ends the research process with discussion and conclusion and the outcome of the study.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This stems from the fact that opportunities that exist in this industry have remained unexploited, are enormous and clearly visible to government, private sector operators, economists and business minded individuals. This clearly indicates that there is a serious problem on our hands that requires attention and investigation to proffer adequate solutions. Tourism is now the world's largest industry (WTO, 2002, 2004). Since the 1960s, international tourism has been promoted as a major component of economic development and modernization “strategies for many countries (WTO, 2004) and seen as a passport to development” (De Kadt, 1979).

Tourism in this sense is in a unique position; like no other industry, it relies heavily on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities (Murphy, 1985). It therefore becomes increasingly important to ensure that those who will have to live with tourism outcomes are involved in every stage of the tourism planning and decision making process. Involvement of those affected in the planning process not only helps ensure public support, it can also help build bridges of trust and confidence among planners, the general public, and the private industry (Loukissas, 1983). Community oriented approaches to tourism planning and development can provide valuable guidelines for

policy makers (Liu & Var, 1986), whereas without public participation tourism growth may make little contribution to the objectives of development (Tosun & Timothy, 2001).

2.1 Community Development: the Concept

The need for community development is widely recognized, and the focus of most academic, extension, and research efforts. However, there is an inconsistency in the definition, usage, and general understanding of what community development represents. To some it is synonymous with economic development and is characterized by efforts to recruit industry and services. For example, business development, infrastructure improvements, and city planning all often fall under the description of community development. To others community development serves to enhance the social realm that economies and other structures exist in. Included here are efforts to form locally based planning efforts and cross-community resident coalitions to enhance local decision making.

Without a consistent definition of community development, our programs will do little to contribute to the overall improvement and well-being of our communities. And our development efforts are likely to benefit only select segments of our communities. Such development fails to maximize the diverse skills, knowledge, experience, and resources that exist within our communities. In general, community development improves the ability of communities to collectively make better decisions about the use of resources such as infrastructure, labor and knowledge some important definitions of community development as gleaned from literature is presented below.

The most successful examples of tourism occur in communities in which there is broadly based resident participation in the planning and development of tourism projects (Butler & Hall, 1998; Cooke, 1982; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Marien & Pizam, 1997; Pearce & Moscardo, 1999; Tosun & Timothy, 2001). In other words, for tourism or community development to be sustainable, local control over public decision making and planning is needed (Gibbs, 1994). This community based participatory planning and decision making implies a process of interaction within the community, which ultimately leads to the development of community (Marcus & Brennan, 2008). This process can be further enhanced by a policy framework at the national and regional levels that would favor the development of sustainable community based tourism practices (World Tourism Organization, 1994). Such a policy would also encourage successful partnerships of public, private and nonprofit sectors within the broader resident population, ensuring sustainability of outcomes and policy and financial support of community backed initiatives (Grybovych & Hafermann, 2010).

2.1.1 Key Definitions

The key elements of community development are expressed to varying degrees in many definitions. Some key descriptions are as follows:

“For community development to occur, people in a community must believe working together can make a difference and organise to address their shared needs collectively”. (Flora et. al., 1992).

“Community development is a group of people in a community reaching a decision to initiate a social action process to change their economic, social, cultural and environmental situation”(Christenson et. al.,1989).

“Community development is a process that increases choices. It creates an environment where people can exercise their full potential to lead productive, creative lives”(Shaffer, pers.com).

“Community development is a process where people are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities and communities are integrated into the life of the nation enabling them to contribute fully to national progress” (United Nations, from Biggs,1999).

Community capacity is the combined influence of a community’s commitment, resources and skills that can be deployed to build on community strengths and address community problems and opportunities (Aspen Institute, 2000).

Community vitality is the capacity of the local socio-economic system to survive and persist in generating employment, income, and wealth and to maintain if not improve its relative economic position (Shaffer,1989).

Community economic development is about identifying and harnessing local community resources and opportunities and stimulating sustainable economic and employment activity (Kenyon,1994).

Sanders (1958) saw community development as a process moving from stage to stage; a method of working towards a goal; a program of procedures and as a movement sweeping people up in emotion and belief.

2.2 Historical Background of the Concept

Community development has been a sometimes explicit and implicit goal of community people, aiming to achieve, through collective effort, a better life that has occurred throughout history.

2.2.1 A Northern Perspective

In the 19th century, the work of the Welsh early socialist thinker (Owen, 1771–1851), sought to create a more perfect community. At New Lanark and at later communities such as Oneida in the USA and the New Australia Movement in Australia, groups of

people came together to create utopian or intentional utopian communities, with mixed success.

In the United States in the 1960s, the term "community development" began to complement and generally replace the idea of urban renewal, which typically focused on physical development projects often at the expense of working-class communities. In the late 1960s, philanthropies such as the Ford Foundation and government officials such as Senator Robert F. Kennedy took an interest in local nonprofit organizations—a pioneer was the Bedford-Stuyvesant Restoration Corporation in Brooklyn—that attempted to apply business and management skills to the social mission of uplifting low-income residents and their neighborhoods. Eventually such groups became known as "Community Development Corporations" or CDCs. Federal laws beginning with the 1974 Housing and Community Development Act provided a way for state and municipal governments to channel funds to CDCs and other nonprofit organizations. National organizations such as the Neighborhood Reinvestment Corporation (founded in 1978 and now known as Neighbor Works America), the Local Initiatives Support Corporation (founded in 1980 and known as LISC), and the Enterprise Foundation (founded in 1981) have built extensive networks of affiliated local nonprofit organizations to which they help provide financing for countless physical and social development programs in urban and rural communities. The CDCs and similar organizations have been credited with starting the process that stabilized and revived seemingly hopeless inner city areas such as the South Bronx in New York City.

Community development in Canada has roots in the development of co-operatives, credit unions and *cuisisses populaires*. The Antigonish Movement which started in the 1920s in Nova Scotia, through the work of Doctor Moses Coady and Father James Tompkins, has been particularly influential in the subsequent expansion of community economic development work across Canada.

2.2.2 A Southern Perspective

Community planning techniques drawing on the history of utopian movements became important in the 1920s and 1930s in East Africa, where Community Development proposals were seen as a way of helping local people improve their own lives with indirect assistance from colonial authorities.

Mohondas K. Gandhi adopted African community development ideals as a basis of his South African Ashram, and then introduced it as a part of the Indian Swaraj movement, aiming at establishing economic interdependence at village level throughout India. With Indian independence, despite the continuing work of Vinoba Bhave in encouraging grassroots land reform, India under its first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru adopted a mixed-economy approach, mixing elements of socialism and capitalism. During the fifties and sixties, India ran a massive community development programme with focus on rural development activities through government support. This was later expanded in scope and was called integrated rural development scheme [IRDP]. A large number of initiatives that can come under the community development umbrella have come up in recent years.

Community Development became a part of the Ujamaa Villages established in Tanzania by Julius Nyerere, where it had some success in assisting with the delivery of education services throughout rural areas, but has elsewhere met with mixed success. In the 1970s and 1980s, Community Development became a part of "Integrated Rural Development", a strategy promoted by United Nations Agencies and the World Bank. Central to these policies of community development were:

Adult Literacy Programs, drawing on the work of Brazilian educator Paulo Freire and the "Each One Teach One" adult literacy teaching method conceived by Frank Laubach.

Youth and Women's Groups, following the work of the Serowe Brigades of Botswana, of Patrick van Rensburg.

Development of Community Business Ventures and particularly cooperatives, in part drawn on the examples of José María Arizmendiarieta and the Mondragon Cooperatives of the Basque region of Spain.

Compensatory Education for those missing out in the formal education system, drawing on the work of Open Education as pioneered by Michael Young.

Dissemination of Alternative Technologies, based upon the work of E. F. Schumacher as advocated in his book *Small is Beautiful: Economics as if people really mattered*.

Village Nutrition Programs and ***Permaculture Projects***, based upon the work of Australians Bill Mollison and David Holmgren; as well as ***Village Water Supply Programs***.

In the 1990s, following critiques of the mixed success of "top down" government programs, and drawing on the work of Robert Putnam, in the rediscovery of Social Capital, community development internationally became concerned with social capital

formation. In particular the outstanding success of the work of Muhammad Yunus in Bangladesh with the Grameen Bank, has led to the attempts to spread microenterprise credit schemes around the world. This work was honoured by the 2006 Nobel Peace Prize.

2.3 Community Definition

What is Community?

Community is a concept used to describe a social organization that is considered fundamental to a group of people. Such communities are often regarded as natural grouping based on ties of shared blood, language, history, territory and above all, culture (Upadhyaya, 2006).

In their edited book, *Lives in Context: the Art of Life History Research*, Coles and Knowles (2001: 11) define community as ‘Clusters of individual lives make-up communities, societies and cultures. To understand some of the complexities, complications, and confusions within the life of just one member of a community is to gain insights into the collective’.

Bill Lee (1992) defines community, simply as a group of people who have something in common. In Greek it means “fellowship” or a group of people who come together for mutual support and to fulfill their basic needs.

For Boothroyd (1990) a community is ‘A Human system of more than two people in which the members interact personally over time, in which behavior and activity are

guided by collectively- evolved norms or collective decisions, and from which members may freely secede’.

Roberts (1979) sees a community as ‘a collection of people who have become aware of some problem or some broad goal, who have gone through a process of learning about themselves and about their environment, and have formulated a group objective’.

As can be seen from the above, community as a concept connotes a wide range of meanings. It is popular in several academic disciplines as well as in everyday usage. While for some, it takes a long time for individuals to form a community, for others it is possible to create easily and fast: such is the case when real estate developers use it to describe new buildings in terms of community “a community coming near you”. They use community as a product or a commodity to be bought, sold or exchanged in the market. Often it is used to describe an organization or institution such a workplace, a school or a college or university to imply a common spatial bond. At other times it can be used to talk about people who have and share a common characteristic such as religion, caste or language.

A review of literature reveals that the concepts of community, identity, and culture are used interchangeably in literature. The literature on nature and function of Community can be divided into roughly two opposing views. While some believe that it is natural and key to human welfare, others argue that communities are non-democratic and stifle individual growth and freedom. Our objective is to become familiar with these debates.

Several scholars have examined the complex and fluid nature of community as a concept because it lends itself to quite varied interpretations. More recently it has become prominent in the field of International Development, reconstruction of war torn countries by the west, either as a suffix or a prefix, building communities for example. One thing is certain; it stands for something good and desirable. A review of literature will reveal a lot of discussions and studies bordering around community such as: community development, community capacity building, community economic development etc.

However, one cannot assume that community is always benign and supportive. Just like many families, it can be oppressive too. A community may hold on to value system that is patriarchal, repressive, exclusive and undemocratic. In short, it may mirror all the ills in the larger society. Individuals may have no choice in their affiliation to a community/ culture or how they are perceived by the world outside. Furthermore, it is assumed that individuals have a choice about their belonging; that they willingly join a community similar to joining an organization such as a trade union or a social club. This assumption can be false as individuals may not be conscious of their “membership” to a particular community with which they are assumed to feel an affinity. In fact, at times some people may get quite upset and horrified when they are identified as part of a certain community. Let us now look at the various types of community.

2.4 Typology of Community

It is worth mentioning at the beginning that all communities are dynamic in nature. They act, interact, evolve and change as a result of larger political and economic forces as well as internal and external forces.

Broadly speaking there are three types of communities. These are not mutually exclusive as individuals can be members of these types concurrently. These ideas will be developed in more detail in the following subsection

2.4.1 Geographic Community or a Neighborhood

It is the only type of community about which there is agreement amongst scholars. It has physical boundaries by which make it distinct or separate, such as a river, a street. In a town there might be several neighborhoods, each with some special attributes: caste, religion, rich and poor. In addition, a neighborhood usually has a diverse population with individuals and groups occupying different physical space. It is important to observe who in a village or a section of a city or town, lives in a cleaner part, and who lives near an open sewer, or who has more space and who has less; how far or close they are from the centre of the village; how much they have to walk to get water etc. It can be instructive in seeing certain patterns of physical exclusion and marginalization. Within a geographic community, one can find both communities of identity and community of interest as well as examples of intentional community.

2.4.2 Community of Identity

It implies common identifiable characteristics or attributes such as having in common a culture. By culture we mean: language, music, religion, customs, etc. Identity can be based on age, gender, and sexuality. It does not mean that an individual necessarily identifies with the community to which s/he is perceived to belong. A woman may not feel any thing in common with other women except that all women are female. Community of identity also may or may not be geographically bound.

2.4.3 Community of Interest or Solidarity

It incorporates social movements such as women's rights, political party, peace, and environment, saving trees or public education. A community of interest is present concurrently in different geographical spaces. Individuals may be connected to their interest community at the local, and or global level.

Community of interests can be formal or informal or both. In all cases, individuals become a part of this community voluntarily. Individual level on involvement may vary from being very active to being sporadic or passive.

2.4.4 Intentional Community

In addition to the above three types of community, there is, what observers call an intentional community. In this type of community, individuals come together voluntarily and are supportive of each other. Members may share interests as well as identity and or a geographical location. For example mothers of young children get together once a week or student form a study group or retired seniors meet in a local park.

2.4.5 Indigenous Community

According to the United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs, Indigenous communities, peoples and nations are those community of people which, having a historical continuity with pre-invasion and pre-colonial societies that developed on their territories, consider themselves distinct from other sectors of the societies now prevailing on those territories, or parts of them. They form at present non-dominant sectors of society and are determined to preserve, develop and transmit to future generations their ancestral territories, and their ethnic identity, as the basis of their

continued existence as peoples, in accordance with their own cultural patterns, social institutions and legal system (UNEIS, 2004).

There are more than 370 million self-identified indigenous people in some 70 countries around the world. In Latin America alone there are more than 400 groups, each with a distinct language and culture. But the biggest concentration of indigenous peoples is in Asia and the Pacific – an estimated 70 per cent.

Indigenous peoples have in-depth, varied and locally rooted knowledge of the natural world. And because traditional indigenous lands and territories contain some 80 per cent of the planet's biodiversity, indigenous peoples can play a crucial role in managing natural resources.

Unfortunately, indigenous peoples too often pay a price for being different and far too frequently face discrimination. Over the centuries, they have been dispossessed of their lands, territories and resources and, as a consequence, have often lost control over their own way of life. Worldwide, they account for 5 per cent of the population, but represent 15 per cent of those living in poverty.

One of the most effective ways to enable indigenous peoples to overcome poverty is to support their efforts to shape and direct their own destinies, and to ensure that they are the co-creators and co-managers of development initiatives (UN IFAD, 2011).

2.5 Sense of Community Spatially and Geographically Geographic

Communities

A geographic community is a community which like all other communities, consist of a group of people who exist in and share a common location, common, ties, social interactions, or interdependencies. However the distinguishing characteristic of a geographic community the necessary condition for a geographic or spatial boundary. This is the only feature which sets a geographic community apart from other communities.

2.5.1 Geographic Boundaries

The big unknown is the spatial scope of the location. It is the researcher's job to define the extent of the location. For the moment, it will suffice to say that the type of measurement used is likely to depend on the research question in mind. For example, a town planner would probably be interested in the physical boundaries of a community such as rivers, hills, or mountains, but a sociologist investigating social interactions may be more interested in an individual's perception of the community boundaries.

2.5.2 Common Ties

Common ties are the second important aspect of a geographic community. As mentioned above common ties can take many different forms such as shared experiences, attitudes, cultures, beliefs, and access to service and resources. The common ties can help a researcher to define the boundaries of a community. For example, if the local school is an important tie for the community, then school districts may be an appropriate boundary.

The common ties in a community can bring about collective action when the needs of a community are not met. Johnson et al (2003) discuss the potential of communities to fill in the gaps that families, markets, and governments often leave. Hallman (1984) speaks of several services that were started up by the community to meet its needs and were later taken up by the Government. Examples include voluntary fire brigades that were set up before public fire departments were created and the town watchman who provided security before police departments were created.

2.5.3 Social Interactions

Putnam (1995) describes social capital (social interactions) as “features of social life—networks, norms, and trust—that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives”. Some authors differentiate between two types of social capital—bonding and bridging. Bonding social capital tends to be inward-looking and focuses on a particular group. Bridging social capital is outward-looking and is generally made up of ‘weak’ ties that link people in different social spheres (Putnam, 2000). The level of social interaction in a community will vary across communities. Onyx and Bullen (2000) found that bonding capital was greater in rural areas and bridging capital was greater in larger metropolitan areas.

2.5.4 Interdependencies

An individual cannot hold social capital. Instead, it arises between individuals. As a result, communities are interdependent. The more social capital held in the community, the more interdependent that community is likely to be.

English and Zimlich (1997, p. 8) refer to interdependence in a community as a “mutual satisfaction of needs”.

Two important aspects of this interdependence, as mentioned above, are trust and norms. Dasgupta (2000, p. 51) defines trust as “correct expectations about the actions of other people that have a bearing on one’s own choice of action when that action must be chosen before one can monitor the actions of those others”. The cost to a person for helping a neighbor in their time of need is small relative to the gain to be had from receiving help from the neighbor in the person’s time of need. This notion of reciprocity may be specific (I help you; you help me) or general (I help you; someone will help me). Similar to the idea of trust is that of norms. A norm is something that motivates individuals to forgo self-interest in order to act in the interests of the group. Actions that are considered to be good will be rewarded by the society that adheres to the norm, and actions that are considered to be bad will be punished (Coleman, 1990). Norms have the potential to overcome public good problems through the threat of social exclusion for those who defect.

Galster (2001, p. 2114) looks at interdependence in a slightly different way. He uses the term ‘externality space’ to explain this concept of community. “A person’s externality space was defined as the area over which changes in one or more spatially based attributes initiated by others are perceived as altering the well-being the individual derives from the particular location.” Thus, community would encompass all those aspects that influence the desirability of the geographic location.

2.6 Community Participation and Development

2.6.1 Community Participation in Development Projects

Internationally, resources for social welfare services are shrinking. Population pressures, changing priorities, economic competition, and demands for greater effectiveness are all affecting the course of social welfare (Bens, 1994). The utilization of nonprofessionals through citizen involvement mechanisms to address social problems has become more commonplace (Kaufman & Poulin, 1996).

In their modern form, the concepts of community development and community participation took shape in the 1950s (Chowdhury, 1996). From the situation in the 1950s, when community development was perceived to be synonymous with community participation, the situation has now changed to one in which there appears to be no clear understanding of the relationship between the two (Abbott, 1995). Clearly, this impacts or changes perception of what constitutes community participation and development.

2.6.2 Definition and Meaning of Community Participation

Participation is a rich concept that varies with its application and definition. The way participation is defined also depends on the context in which it occurs. For some, it is a matter of principle; for others, practice; for still others, an end in itself (World Bank, 1995). Indeed, there is merit in all these interpretations as Rahnema (1992) notes:

Participation is a stereotype word like children use Lego pieces. Like Lego pieces the words fit arbitrarily together and support the most fanciful constructions. They have no content, but do serve a function. As these words are separate from any context, they are ideal for manipulative purposes. 'Participation' belongs to this category of word. (p.116)

Often the term participation is modified with adjectives, resulting in terms such as community participation, citizen participation, people's participation, public participation, and popular participation. The Oxford English Dictionary defines participation as "to have a share in" or "to take part in," thereby emphasizing the rights of individuals and the choices that they make in order to participate. Arnstein (1969) states that the idea of citizen participation is a little like eating spinach: no one is against it in principle because it is good for you. But there has been little analysis of the content of citizen participation, its definition, and its relationship to social imperatives such as social structure, social interaction, and the social context where it takes place.

Brager, Specht, and Torczyner (1987) defined participation as a means to educate citizens and to increase their competence. It is a vehicle for influencing decisions that affect the lives of citizens and an avenue for transferring political power. However, it can also be a method to co-opt dissent, a mechanism for ensuring the receptivity, sensitivity, and even accountability of social services to the consumers. Armitage (1988) defined citizen participation as a process by which citizens act in response to public concerns, voice their opinions about decisions that affect them, and take responsibility for changes to their community. Pran Manga and Wendy Muckle (Chappel, 1997) suggest that citizen participation may also be a response to the traditional sense of powerlessness felt by the general public when it comes to influencing government decisions: "people often feel that health and social services are beyond their control because the decisions are made outside their community by unknown bureaucrats and technocrats" (p. 99).

Westergaard (1986) defined participation as “collective efforts to increase and exercise control over resources and institutions on the part of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from control” (p.14). This definition points toward a mechanism for ensuring community participation. The World Bank’s Learning Group on Participatory Development (1995) defines participation as “a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them” (p. 3).

A descriptive definition of participation programs would imply the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions that enhance their well- being, for example, their income, security, or self- esteem (Chowdhury, 1996).

Chowdhury states that the ideal conditions contributing towards meaningful participation can be discussed from three aspects:

1. What kind of participation is under consideration?
2. Who participates in it?
3. How does participation occur?

Evens (1974) also points out the importance of the following issues in order to assess the extent of community participation:

1. Who participates?
2. What do people participate in?
3. Why do people participate? There are:
 - a) Cultural explanations (values, norms, and roles, etc.)
 - b) Cognitive explanations (verbal skills and knowledge about the organizations)

c) Structural explanations (alternatives, resources available, and the nature of benefit sought)

4. Implications (how the benefit contributes to the ends or principles they value).

Oakley and Marsden (1987) defined community participation as the process by which individuals, families, or communities assume responsibility for their own welfare and develop a capacity to contribute to their own and the community's development. In the context of development, community participation refers to an active process whereby beneficiaries influence the direction and execution of development projects rather than merely receive a share of project benefits (Paul, in Bamberger, 1986). Paul's five objectives to which community participation might contribute are:

1. Sharing project costs: participants are asked to contribute money or labor (and occasionally goods) during the project's implementation or operational stages.
2. Increasing project efficiency: beneficiary consultation during project planning or beneficiary involvement in the management of project implementation or operation.
3. Increasing project effectiveness: greater beneficiary involvement to help ensure that the project achieves its objectives and those benefits go to the intended groups.
4. Building beneficiary capacity: either through ensuring that participants are actively involved in project planning and implementation or through formal or informal training and consciousness-raising activities.
5. Increasing empowerment: defined as seeking to increase the control of the underprivileged sectors of society over the resources and decisions affecting their lives and their participation in the benefits produced by the society in which they live. (p. 4–5).

Bamberger (1986) says the objectives and organization of project- level activities are different from those of programs at the national or regional levels. The level or scope of the activity must be taken into consideration when defining objectives. According to Bamberger, three distinct kinds of local participation included the following:

1. Beneficiary involvement in the planning and implementation of externally initiated projects or community participation.
2. External help to strengthen or create local organizations, but without reference to a particular project, or local organizational development.
3. Spontaneous activities of local organizations that have not resulted from outside assistance or indigenous local participation.

The first two are externally promoted participatory approaches used by governments, donors, or NGOs, while the third is the kind of social organization that has evolved independently of (or despite) outside interventions (Bamberger, 1986). At a community level, there is a separation of community participation into two distinct approaches: (1) the community development movement and (2) community involvement through conscientization (Freire, 1985). The basis of conscientization, according to De Kadt, started from “the existence of socioeconomic inequalities, the generation of these by the economic system, and their underpinning by the state” (De Kadt, 1995).

2.6.3 Development

The word development is fraught with ideological, political, and historical connotations that can greatly change its meaning depending on the perspective being discussed (Haug, 1997). The following three definitions of development are most helpful and suitable in relation to this research project. The first definition is provided by Korten (1990):

Development is a process by which the members of a society increase their personal and institutional capacities to mobilize and manage resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life consistent with their own aspirations. (p. 67).

Korten's definition emphasizes the process of development and its primary focus on personal and institutional capacity. It also touches on justice, equity, quality of life, and participation. The second definition is from Robinson, Hoare, and Levy's (1993) work. He adds the dimension of empowerment to Korten's idea of development (Robinson, 1993).

[Empowerment is] a social action process that promotes participation of people, organisations, and communities towards the goals of increased individual and community control, political efficacy, improved quality of life, and social justice. (p. 199).

Finally, Zachariah and Sooryamoorthy (1994) emphasize that development must promote economic growth, but not at any cost:

The encouragement of economic growth must take account of and be restrained by three other equally important objectives:

1. Protection of the environment and consideration of the ecological impact of industrialisation and commercialisation.
2. Fair and equitable distribution as well as redistribution of goods and services to enable poorer people to get a fairer share of society's wealth and to participate fully in the economy.
3. Creation of opportunities for everyone to increasingly participate in the political, artistic and other activities of society. (1994: 22–23)

Zachariah and Sooryamoorthy's criteria for development recognize the environmental and ecological facets of communities going through the process of development. The

environment is considered an integral part of development, since any impacts on a person's environment also influence the state of well-being or welfare. Environment and development are thus linked so intricately that separate approaches to either environmental or developmental problems are piecemeal at best (Bartelmus, 1986).

2.6.4 Community Participation and Development

The community development approach emphasizes self-help, the democratic process, and local leadership in community revitalization (Barker, 1991). Most community development work involves the participation of the communities or beneficiaries involved (Smith, 1998). Thus, community participation is an important component of community development and reflects a grassroots or bottom-up approach to problem solving. In social work, community participation refers to “. . . the active voluntary engagement of individuals and groups to change problematic conditions and to influence policies and programs that affect the quality of their lives or the lives of others” (Gamble & Weil, 1995).

One of the major aims of community development is to encourage participation of the community as a whole. Indeed, community development has been defined as a social process resulting from citizen participation (UN, 1963; Vaughan, 1972; Darby and Morris, 1975; Christenson and Robinson, 1980; Rahman, 1990 in Smith, 1998). Through citizen participation, a broad cross-section of the community is encouraged to identify and articulate their own goals, design their own methods of change, and pool their resources in the problem-solving process (Harrison, 1995).

It is widely recognized that participation in government schemes often means no more than using the service offered or providing inputs to support the project (Smith, 1998). This is contrasted with stronger forms of participation, involving control over decisions, priorities, plans, and implementation; or the spontaneous, induced, or assisted formation of groups to achieve collective goals (Arnstein, 1969; Cohen and Uphoff, 1980; Rifkin, 1990; WHO, 1991; Rahman, 1993; Smith, 1998).

The most important and complicated issue bearing on local level planning and development is community participation. Effective community participation may lead to social and personal empowerment, economic development, and sociopolitical transformation (Kaufman & Alfonso, 1997). Yet there are obstacles: the power of central bureaucracies, the lack of local skills and organizational experience, social divisions, and the impact of national and transnational structures (Kaufman & Alfonso, 1997). There is no clear-cut agreement in the literature of community development on the nature of community participation or on a prescription to ensure it. The need for community participation in development and management is nonetheless accepted and recognized in the professional literature.

Chapter 3

COMMUNITIES AND TOURISM

3.1 Tourism as an Agent of Community Development

Globalization may be dead (Saul, 2005), but internationalization certainly prevails. “In an age where communications technology encompasses the world, enabling us to sit in our lounge rooms and participate in others’ lives through our television sets and communicate with them via the Internet, those with the ability to visit other places want to experience something that technology can’t provide. Tourism has had a close connection with the local communities, particularly as hosts and guides, but the opening up of travel to the mass market from the 1960s propelled the development of the package holiday that in effect removed the tourist from the community”(Beeton,2006). With tour leaders from their own country, specialized transport and hotels, the visitor interaction with their hosts became moderated to the extent where the local community became objectified as a quaint picture opportunity.

Unfortunately, as tourism has grown organically in most places with limited planning, some people have been burnt and they now reject tourism as a viable community asset. On the other hand, many believe that tourism is the answer to ‘everything’ and the only means for developing their community. “Understanding the capabilities of tourism is crucial so that the correct decisions can be made in terms of community development.

Tourism in communities is not simply a case of whether to encourage visitors or not, but also what type of visitors and type of tourism the community decides it wants and needs” (Beeton , 2006). Community tourism shifts the focus away from the tourist and their experience to the host community and their experience (Kelly, 2002). Reflecting Sofield’s (2003) comments regarding the process of community empowerment is the following quote from the Business Enterprises for Sustainable Tourism’s (BEST) Community Tourism Summit, where they conclude that ‘community tourism is a process rather than a product’ (BEST, 2003). Tourism always has significant influence on the environment, social, as well as economic structures and dynamics. Besides, it has a dramatic impact on culture and lifestyles. However, tourism’s impacts are not necessarily always advantageous. “There are evidences of negative influences/impacts on different destinations, social structures and relations, societal values and attitudes, culture, built environment and land use, natural and cultural heritage, environmental resources to name a few ”(Alipour & Dizdarevic, 2007).

Mathieson and wall (1982) divides the impacts of tourism into three major fields that are: physical or environmental, socio-cultural and economic impacts. Most of the tourism literature studies undertaken on the impact of the industry utilize the same framework.” United nation environment program (UNEP) explains the negative socio-cultural impact from tourism as; change or loss of indigenous identity and values that contain: modification, loss of authenticity, adaptation to tourist demands, cultural clashes, physical influence causing social stress that include resource use conflicts, cultural deterioration, conflicts of traditional land-uses, and ethical issues such as crime, child labor, prostitution and sex tourism ”(Beeton,2006).

3.2 Impacts of Tourism: Changes

Tourism is a force of change, and those who believe in its power of change have a good intention and a positive perspective to help social, economic and environmental developments (Beeton , 2006). However, sometimes these changes are very costly and in many cases they go unrecognized or they are spotted after they have left their negative impacts because change itself is difficult to be singled out and measured (Beeton, 2006). For example, these negative changes might affect local people' cultural heritages and values as well as the norms and ideals held by a section of a society since there are many demands associated with this industry as far as job opportunities or services are concerned in local areas.

Beeton (2006) also pinpoints the issue of loss of pride and disappointment since they cause some personal and social problems for the individuals. This can also encompass environmental and economic problems which are created due to a lot of interconnected factors. For example, tourists can help people conserve the environment by demonstrating good behavior in the nature or, on the other hand, be a source of harm to the environment.

The Positive and Negative Social and Environmental Impacts of Tourism:

3.2.1 Social

Socially, tourism has a great influence on the host societies. Tourism can be both a source of international amity, peace and understanding and a destroyer and corrupter of indigenous cultures, a source of ecological destruction, an assault of people's privacy, dignity, and authenticity(Mirbabayev & Shagzatova, 2002). So, social contacts

between tourists and local people may result in mutual appreciation, understanding, tolerance, awareness, learning, family bonding respect, and liking. Residents are educated about the outside world without leaving their homes, while their visitors significantly learn about a distinctive culture. Local communities are benefited through contribution by tourism to the improvement of the social infrastructure like schools, libraries, health care institutions, internet cafes, and so on. Besides, if local culture is the base for attracting tourists to the region, it helps to preserve the local traditions and handicrafts which maybe were on the link of the extinction (Mirbabayev & Shagzatova, 2002). In 1975, Doxey proposed a simple set of stages, describing a host community's response to and relationship with an increasing number of visitors. He proposed that local tolerance thresholds and the hosts' resistance to increasing tourism development were based on a fear of losing community identity, and that these host communities went through a series of stages, not unlike a 'hierarchy'. Doxey's model describes the community's responses to the cumulative effect of tourism development on social interrelations in the host community.

Table 3.1 Doxey's Irridex Model of Host Irritation

	Social relationships	Power relationships
Euphoria	Visitors and investors welcome	Little planning or formalised control Greater potential for influence to be exerted by locals (not often taken)
Apathy	Visitors taken for granted More formal relationships	between hosts and guests Marketing is the prime focus of plans Tourism industry lobby grows in Power
Annoyance	Resident misgivings about tourism Range of saturation points approached	Planners attempt to control by increasing infrastructure rather than limiting growth Local protest groups develop to challenge institutionalised tourism power
Antagonism	Antagonism Irritations openly expressed Residents perceive tourists as the cause of the problems	Remedial planning fighting against pressures of increased promotion to offset declining reputation of destination Power struggle between interest groups

3.2.2 Economic

Table 3.2 summarizes the types of positive and negative socio-economic impacts that tourism has been found to have on local communities. “Responsible Tourism” enterprises must be proactive in managing these impacts in order to maximize the number of positive impacts while simultaneously working to reduce the negative impacts. The aim of any “Responsible Tourism” enterprise, then, is to generate a net positive impact within the local socio-economic context.

The actual change in local income and employment that results from an injection of tourist expenditure into an economy has most commonly been measured by means of multiplier analysis (Archer 1977; Archer 1982; Milne 1992a). Multipliers measure and reflect the interrelationships of both direct and secondary tourist expenditure. The direct economic impact occurs when a tourist spends money in a hotel or store. A proportion of this expenditure will generate income, employment and government revenue within the business. The degree of direct local income generation (IG) and employment generation (EG) will be determined by the magnitude and pattern of tourist expenditure and by the proportion of this input attributable to wages, salaries and profits. Thus, labor intensive operations will tend to have relatively large coefficients (Fletcher and Archer, 1991; Milne, 1992a). Another determining factor is the structure of the tourist industry. Tourist facilities in developing areas are often characterized by high levels of foreign involvement (ownership, management contracts, etc.). Such firms usually repatriate a large portion of their profits, lowering tourism's direct IG. Similarly, foreign ownership, often leads to employment of non-residents, particularly in the most lucrative positions.

This results in relatively low EGs (Bryden, 1973; Cleverdon, 1979; Britton, 1983; Milne, 1987b; Sinclair and Sutchffe, 1988).

Tourism's secondary impacts occur as those individuals businesses that receive direct tourism income re-spend it locally. Part of the tourist business' receipts is used to purchase the goods and services required to run the firm and thus are passed on to the firms supplying g these inputs. If these suppliers are local, tourist expenditure will generate a further round of indirect local income and employment creation (Archer, 1982; Milne, 1987c; Fletcher & Archer 1991). A further round of induced income and employment generation impact occurs when residents spend this income locally (Milne, 1992a). While tourism multipliers are often expressed as an average value for the economy as a whole, some work has been aimed at disaggregating the analysis to provide insights into the abilities of different firms and sectors to generate local income and employment (Brownrigg and Greig, 1975; Milne, 1987a).

“The structural realities of the local economy mean that it would be of limited utility to attempt to conduct a 'full-blown' multiplier analysis. Attention is, however, drawn to policy measures which might increase the multiplier at the indirect level. The intention is rather to highlight the economic performance of the industry and to point to potential areas where linkages can be improved”(Grekin, 1994).

Table3.2: Positive and negative socio-economic impacts of tourism in local communities

Positive effects	Negative effect
<p>Tourism may:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stimulate/strengthen local economy • Create opportunities for direct and indirect employment • Create opportunities for entrepreneurial activity • Stimulate local business growth, directly and indirectly • Generate investment in social and economic infrastructure (e.g. schools, clinics, roads) • Increase tax revenues • Improve public services and amenities (e.g. transport, shopping, entertainment) • Improve quality of police protection • Improve living standards • Stimulate skills development • Diversify livelihoods 	<p>Tourism may:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engender social tensions linked to wage and income disparities, between hosts and visitors as well as within ‘the’ community itself • Increase economic dependency on one sector or even one enterprise • Increase pressure on infrastructure and services, especially in cases of mass or high density tourism • Drive up land prices and housing / living costs, which can lead to displacement of local residents • Create limited, seasonal, unskilled and/or menial employment opportunities that lack access to training. • Exacerbate gender inequalities as women tend to perform the most menial tasks and receive the lowest wages • Stimulate inflows of job-seekers (regional immigration) which can increase unemployment and engender social tensions • Create high regional leakage (The percentage of tourist expenditure that leaves the local economy) • Encourage dominance by multinational companies or local ‘power brokers’ who appropriate all or most of the benefits from tourism operations • De-emphasize ‘traditional’ values and practices (e.g. through inflows of tourists, cash, commodities)

Source: (www.tourism.gov.za)

3.2.3 Environmental

The quality of the environment, both natural and man-made, is essential to tourism. However, tourism's relationship with the environment is complex - many activities can have adverse environmental effects. Many of these impacts are linked with the construction of general infrastructure such as roads and airports, and of tourism facilities, including resorts, hotels, restaurants, shops, golf courses and marinas. The negative impacts of tourism development can gradually destroy the environmental resources on which it depends. On the other hand, tourism has the potential to create beneficial effects on the environment by contributing to environmental protection and conservation. It is a way to raise awareness of environmental values and it can serve as a tool to finance protection of natural areas and increase their economic importance. Negative impacts from tourism occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change. Uncontrolled conventional tourism poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world. It can put enormous pressure on an area and lead to impacts such as soil erosion, increased pollution, discharges into the sea, natural habitat loss, increased pressure on endangered species and heightened vulnerability to forest fires. It often puts a strain on water resources, and it can force local population to compete for the use of critical resources. Land degradation, water, air and noise pollution, solid waste, littering, and sewage are other negative impacts of tourism.

3.3 From Theory to Practice

The whole notion of using theory to better understand what we do, how we do it and even what may happen continues to be contested by so-called ‘practitioners’. Some claim that there is nothing to learn from theory – which one needs to be out there actually doing things to understand them. “Such comments do have a certain amount of relevance in that one of the primary aims of those developing theories is that they need to be not only applicable, but also applied. Unfortunately, these comments have been appropriated by those wanting to condemn theoretical study as purely ‘academic’ (another misused term). But, if we think back to many of the tasks that we do every day of our lives, we had to learn how to do them, and once we had developed our communication skills, all have some degree of theory attached” (Beeton , 2006).

It is interesting to note that many of the theories that underpin the study of tourism were developed by ‘practitioners’, many of whom continue to operate in the commercial world, not the academic world.

3.4 Community Based Tourism

The "Community Based Tourism" strategy, adopted in 1983, has sought to encourage a tourist industry that is compatible with the culture and aspirations of host communities. Development is intended to be environmentally sustainable, broadly distributed between communities, Monteith, 1988; GNWT, 1990a). Such tourism is considered less likely to compete with traditional Inuit land uses. The adventure tour category, in particular, outperformed all and was designed to yield maximum possible economic benefits for residents, particularly those of small and medium sized

communities (GNWT, 1983). Adventure, nature and cultural tourism are commonly referred to collectively as 'ecotourism' (Ziffer, 1989). Community participation in tourism has become a key element in many development projects and that the concept has its roots in development studies.

Furthermore, it has underlined that tourism is a well-placed poverty reduction tool that used properly can contribute significantly in efforts towards poverty alleviation, especially in developing countries. While involvement and participation of communities in the tourism industry can be viewed in the decision-making process and in the sharing of tourism benefits, community participation through employment brings more economic benefits directly to the household level which, in turn, can be used to alleviate widespread poverty. To achieve this, the literature has suggested that an 'enabling environment' that encourages and empowers community participation is required. Community participation is defined as a situation whereby a member of the community who lives in a particular area directly or indirectly participates in tourism decision-making, and/or operates a tourism-related business or works in tourism as an individual or in a group (researcharchive.vuw.ac.nz).

3.5 Tourism Theories

3.5.1 Understanding the Process: Butler's Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC)

Any tourism text from the Western world (and some others) of any worth includes some explanation of Butler's TALC. Due to this wealth of information, the description below is cursory. Developed in 1980 by Richard Butler, this life cycle is based on the product cycle concept. In his seminal article presenting his model, Butler acknowledges the

contribution of others who have perceived a similar cycle in the real world (Butler 1980). Of particular interest is his quote from Christaller who, as early as 1960, stated. The typical course of development has the following pattern. Painters search out untouched and unusual places to paint. Step by step the place develops as a so-called artist colony. Soon a cluster of poets follows, kindred to the painters: then cinema people, gourmets, and the *jeunesse dorée*. The place becomes fashionable and the entrepreneur takes note. The fisherman's cottage, the shelter-huts become converted into boarding houses and hotels come on the scene. Meanwhile the painters have fled and sought out another periphery – periphery as related to space, and metaphorically as 'forgotten' places and landscapes. Only the painters with a commercial inclination who like to do well in business remain: they capitalize on the good name of this former painter's corner and on the gullibility of tourists. Tourism theories and their relevance to communities' real recreation, stay away. At last the tourist agencies come with their package rate travelling parties: now, the indulged public avoids such places. At the same time, in other places the same cycle occurs again: more and more places come into fashion, change their type, and turn into everybody's tourist haunt (Christaller 1960, cited Butler 1980, pp. 5–6).

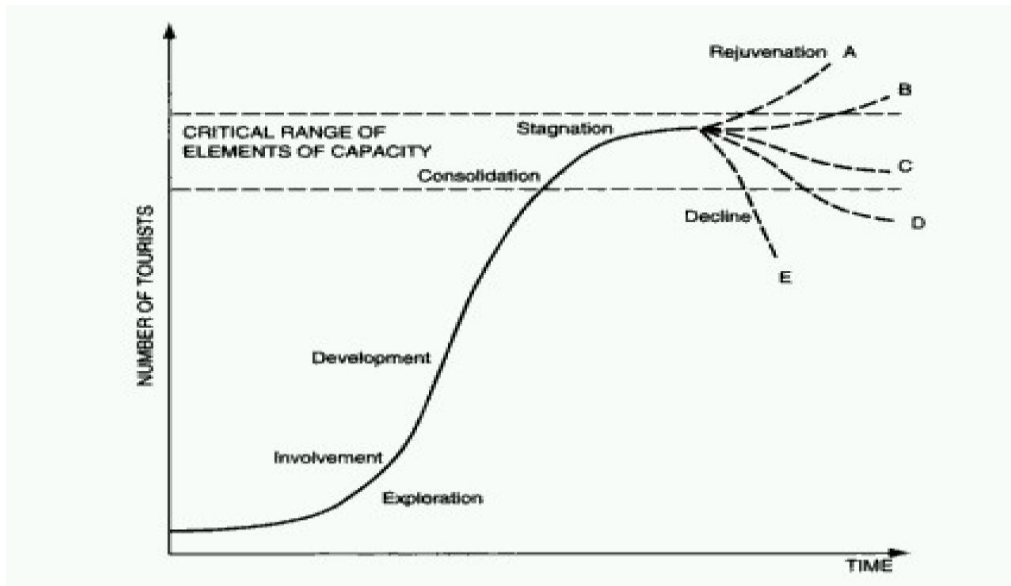


Figure3.1: butler's Tourist Area Life Cycle

Source: Redrawn from Butler 1980 (Beeton, 2006).

Basically, Butler described four stages that a destination (or place) goes through in terms of tourism development, plotting them on a bell curve. Initially, visitors arrive in small numbers and are supported by limited facilities; there is often poor access and restricted local knowledge of their needs. At this initial stage they are highly adventurous, looking for places that have not yet been 'ruined' by tourism. However, as other models demonstrate, visitors bring the seeds of change with them, and can be instrumental in actually creating the type of destination they despise. In the second stage, awareness of the destination is growing, as does the number of visitors and facilities. It is around this stage that the destination begins to increase its marketing, information dissemination and further facility provision. Its popularity grows rapidly and the destination moves into the third stage of the life cycle, which often becomes a form of mass tourism. Finally, as capacity levels are reached, the destination fails to cope with the social and

environmental costs of mass tourism, and as a consequence the rate of increase in visitors declines until the destination fails. However, as we know, millions of destinations around the world continue to support tourism. Butler recognizes that there is a stage just before the decline where destinations can intervene and pursue a range of options to reinvigorate their tourism. And the assumption that tourist areas will always remain tourist areas and be attractive to tourists appears to be implicit in tourism planning. Public and private agencies alike, rarely, if ever, refer to the anticipated life span of a tourist area or its attractions. Rather, because tourism has shown an, as yet, unlimited potential for growth, despite economic recessions, it is taken for granted that numbers of visitors will continue to increase (Butler 1980, p. 10). These observations also suggest that a change of attitude is required on the part of those who are responsible for planning, developing, and managing tourist areas. Tourist attractions are not infinite and timeless but should be viewed and treated as finite and possibly non-renewable resources. They could then be more carefully protected and preserved. The development of the tourist area could be kept within predetermined capacity limits, and its potential competitiveness maintained over a longer period (Butler, 1980, p. 11). Butler's model has been criticized as being too simplistic, but it forms a good basis from which further understanding can be developed. However, when we look at Butler's original paper, he acknowledges the complexity of what he is attempting to define, and recognizes that testing will be needed to ascertain the accuracy of his model. There have been hundreds of academic papers and student dissertations either using or refuting the model, yet it remains a strong theory today as can be seen by two recent volumes based on his theory, which he has edited (Butler, 2005).

3.5.2 Understanding the Industry: Leiper's Industrial Tourism System

While Butler's model described what happens at a destination over a period of time, others were striving to explain the entire tourism system at any given time. They recognized that a tourist's journey is not only an integral part of the tourism experience, but also needs to be seen as part of the tourism industry, not simply the final destination. Neil Leiper developed a simple model based on the earlier work of other geographers to describe this system in terms of such tourist movements (Leiper, 1995). While not the first to use the terms, Leiper refers to the Tourist Generating Region (TGR) and Tourist Destination Region (TDR) as well as considers what happens in-between in the Transit Region (or route). These transit regions can also perform the role of a secondary destination – however, they are reliant on the fortunes of the prima destinations and may need to work closely with them.

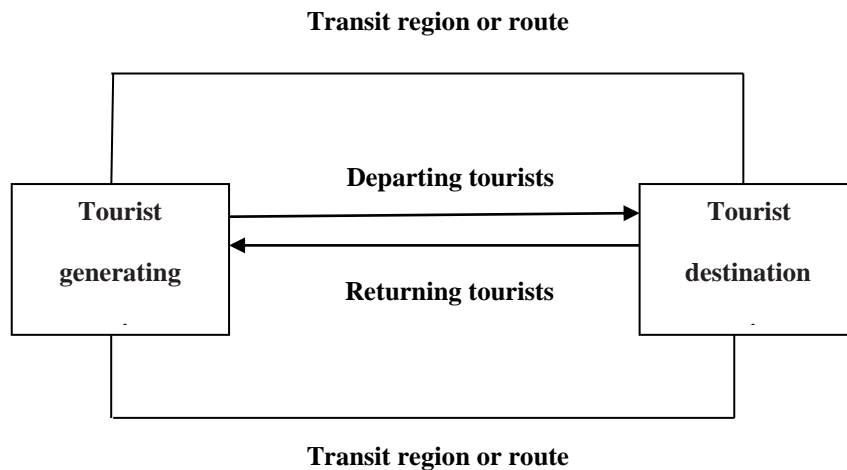


Figure3.2: Leiper's industrial tourism system

Source: Leiper, 1995

“For example, if a family is travelling from one major urban centre (city) to another by car, they will be driving through a number of other destinations on the way, such as small towns, larger towns, rural areas, national parks and so on. They may choose to stop at any of these places out of necessity (to purchase fuel or food, or for a toilet break) or interest (to walk in a national park, to experience a theme park ride or to photograph a view). While these places may not have been part of the traveler’s primary (and final) destination, they provide services and experiences that enhance or detract from the overall tourism experience. In fact, it may be the attraction of the journey that encouraged the family to travel by car in the first instance. It is important for a community to understand where it is in this model in terms of understanding its position with its visitor markets and relationship with other destinations in the model. If it is a stopover transit destination, certain businesses will be supported (such as restaurants and motels) while others may not (such as theme parks)”(Beeton,2006).

3.5.2 The industry as a Market: Hall’s Tourism Market System

Colin Michael Hall developed a model based on the work of Murphy (1985) and Hall and McArthur (1993; 1996) that forms the basis of his tourism discourse in his detailed introductory text (Hall 2003a). The model represents Hall’s description of tourism as a complex system by incorporating the demand and supply elements of tourism into its behavioral and social context.

Simply put, Hall sees the tourism experience as central to tourism, which places the tourist or ‘market’ at the focal point of the entire system. Having the tourist experience as central may appear to be an obvious approach; remember that these theoretical models are not designed to be obscure, but to make even clearer how things exist and

operate today. Hall maintains that the 'experience' is the result of both the tourist's needs and desires (demand) and the actual product provided (supply). This encourages us to think of the tourist experience in far broader terms than simply as the product that is supplied, which is how many may initially view tourism. Hall also acknowledges that it is the tourism experience that creates impacts which in turn affect both the supply and demand elements. While this is a good model in as far as it goes (and is part of an introductory text to tourism), Hall does not go far enough. He does not include the host community in this model, which is a significant omission, and one that needs to be considered by all players (or 'actors') in the system. Hall takes primarily a market-oriented approach, not a community approach. It is interesting that he claims to have based his work on Murphy's 1985 publication, *Tourism, A Community Approach* (cited in Hall 2003a, pp. 17, 20, 25)

3.5.3 Human Motivation: Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs

While not initially developed with tourism in mind, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (see Maslow 1954) is used extensively in the tourism literature to describe the needs and experiences of travelers and their host communities. Developed in 1954 to describe post World War II culture, Maslow purported that there was a particular range of personal needs that had to be met in order for people to live and prosper. He presented this as a hierarchical pyramid, maintaining that the lower level needs had to be met before a person (or society) could 'progress' to the higher levels. At its base are the basic Physiological Needs of food, water, air and shelter, followed by the Safety and Security Needs of protection, order and stability on the next level. Once these two levels are met, people need to fill certain Social Needs that include affection, friendship and belonging. Maslow identified two 'higher order' needs, namely Ego Needs that include the desire

for prestige, success and self-respect, while at the apex of the pyramid are those seeking self-actualization or self-fulfillment. In the 1950s it may have been considered frivolous to apply Maslow's hierarchy to tourism, yet it can relate not only to the ways that certain people travel, but can also provide some insight into their motivations and behavior. For example, travelling often entails the traveler not having his/her primary needs of shelter and safety immediately met. By arriving at a destination with nowhere to stay and little understanding of safety structures, a traveler may feel stressed and upset, requiring those needs to be filled immediately. Once accommodation, food and safety are met, the traveler can now consider socializing and ultimately move to the other levels. Some have criticized the model, claiming that not all of one level needs to be met for a person to be at another level; that is, each level is not mutually exclusive. However, when considered in terms of travel and tourism, such a hierarchy does explain, to some extent, the continued success of guided tours and all-inclusive travel such as cruises.



Figure 3.3

3.5.4 Tourist Motivation: Push and Pull Factors

As more people developed an interest in understanding tourism, researchers began to move from simply considering the numbers of people and the dollars they brought, to trying to understand why they come, why they return and why they do not (Dann, 1977 and Crompton, 1979). Tourist motivation remains the most complex, fascinating and at times misunderstood area of tourism. In one of the most-applied, developed and debated of the early tourism motivational theories, Dann (1977) attempted to explain not only why people travel, but also what drives their destination choice, arguing that earlier motivational research failed to address the question ‘What makes people travel?’ He considered a range of socio-psychological motives that drive a person to take a holiday, such as the need for a break due to high levels of stress or to escape routine (boredom), referring to these as ‘push’ factors. These are the factors that motivate us to consider taking a holiday. Dann identified a range of basic push motivations as being a reaction to anomie (a feeling of social alienation) or ego-enhancement (providing psychological boosts supported by a desire for fantasy). He then looked at the actual decision-making process of where to go, which tended to reside with the promotional activities of the tourism industry and destination, calling these ‘pull’ factors. Pull motivations consisted of the appealing attributes of a destination that the individual is seeking, such as the weather, beaches, cleanliness, recreation facilities, cultural attractions, natural scenery or even shopping (Dann 1977; Crompton 1979). Crompton (1979) is also attributed as supporting and developing this ‘push–pull’ tourism dichotomy, referring to it in terms of a socio- psychological continuum. He considered the desire to escape (push motivations)

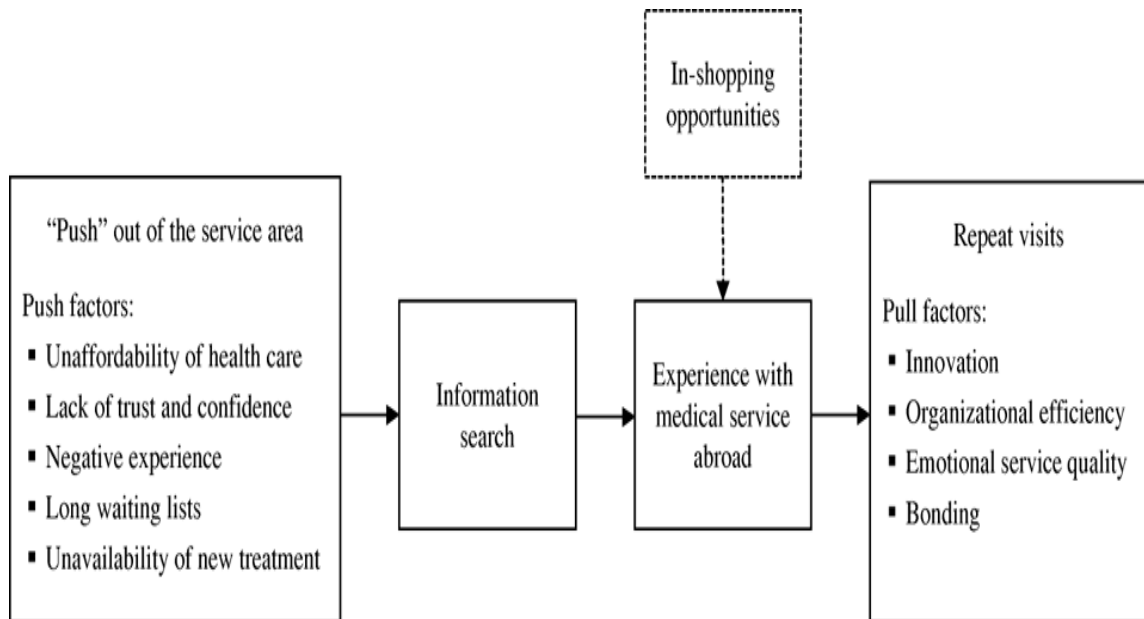


Figure3.4

As to the desire for prestige, fitness, and spending time with family, Crompton (1979, p. 145) notes that ‘the essence of “break from routine” was, in most cases, either locating in a different place, or changing the social context from the work, usually to that of the family group’. Crompton identified seven motives that provide more detail and relate broadly to Dann’s push elements of anomie and ego-enhancement (Hall 2003a). The seven motives are noted below with Dann’s categories in italics.

- 1 Escape from a perceived mundane environment (*anomie*)
- 2 Exploration and evaluation of self (*ego-enhancement*)
- 3 Relaxation (*anomie*)
- 4 Prestige (*ego-enhancement*)
- 5 Less constrained behavior (*ego-enhancement*)
- 6 Enhancement of kinship relations (*anomie*)
- 7 Facilitation of social interaction (*anomie*)

Crompton (1979) identified two additional motives that fall into a cultural category: novelty and education. While they do not directly relate to Dann's categories, they can still be considered push factors. In marketing terms, the 'push-pull' strategy takes on a slightly different meaning. Basically, a 'push' marketing strategy pushes the tourism product (experience) through to the consumer via the distribution channels (intermediaries such as travel agents, booking services, consolidators and so on). A 'pull' marketing strategy focuses on the end user to induce them to purchase the travel product/experience, consequently 'pulling' the product through the distribution system.

3.5.5 Tourist Motivation: Iso-Ahola's Travel Motivational Model

In the 1980s, Iso-Ahola brought together many of the motivational factors discussed above, proposing that there are two sets of motivational forces driving individuals in all aspects of their life, namely the individual's desire to escape personal or interpersonal (for example, work) environment and the search for intrinsic rewards (Iso-Ahola 1982). He maintains that tourism simultaneously meets both of these forces, providing an outlet for avoiding something (such as work, family responsibilities) while seeking something (such as enjoyment, learning, relaxation) at the same time. Iso-Ahola argues that it is futile to attempt to separate the reasons for travelling (motivations) from the benefits gained, as often they can be one and the same. For example, a reason for travelling such as exploring new places can also be a benefit, while a benefit of escaping from routine can also be a reason for travel (Iso-Ahola 1980). This model of seeking and escaping resonates with many in the tourism industry linking in with Dann's push-pull theory and has received much critical support.

Chapter 4

COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM PLANNING AND STRATEGIES

4.1 Community Based Tourism Planning and Strategies

There has been a proliferation of research and literature around the concept of 'Community Based Tourism' (CBT) to warrant its mention here. As the concepts underpinning it relate closely to those we have been discussing, making this part of the study the best place to consider the notion of CBT. And, of course, we now have 'Community Based Ecotourism' (Jones, 2004). Ecotourism, tourism and communities have been well covered and can be incorporated into this discussion. CBT aims to create a more sustainable tourism industry, focusing on the host community in terms of planning and maintaining tourism development. This concept was coming to the fore by the 1990s, with Pearce (1992) suggesting that CBT presents a way to provide an equitable flow of benefits to all affected by tourism through consensus based decision-making and local control of development, real consensus and true local control is not always possible, practical or even desired by some of the communities we work with. There have been numerous criticisms of CBT which, in many ways, has now moved out of today's community tourism lexicon. As presented in the 1990s, CBT differs from general community development theory and process in that it does not have the transformative intent of community development and does not focus on community empowerment. In addition, local communities are presented as homogenous entities for

whom ‘consensus’ is rare; and finally proponents of CBT failed to ignore the external (power-based) constraints to local control (Blackstock, 2005). This brings us to the vexed issue of power relations and empowerment, which must be understood and addressed in all community-inclusive processes. CBT was a good start, but we have moved on towards more inclusive and effective community based tourism planning and development.

“All organizations (companies, communities, destinations and so on) experience three ‘states of being’ in terms of their approach to planning and managing. The first state is ‘reactive management’, where all the organization’s time and effort seems to be taken up responding to problems as they arise – in other words, reacting to a situation. Of course, things do happen that cannot be specifically planned for but simply reacting and not planning can be disastrous as we have seen in some of the events. The second state is where many tourism businesses and communities tend to be, which is at the level of ‘compliance management’ where systems have been established and plans implemented to comply with legislation and regulation. The ‘big stick’ approach of some governing bodies does have some effect. However, this is still not the ideal state to be in, as compliance can occur in a negative and powerless environment – ‘We have no choice, we must just do this’. Such attitudes do not create a positive, responsible and responsive business or community. The final state of being (which any half-awake reader will realize is the preferred state!) is where businesses are managed proactively and communities are permitted to plan for their future as well. From a business perspective, the organization attempts to foresee hazards and even future regulations, and works

systematically to minimize their effects on the environment and community as well as on their business concerns” (Beeton, 2006).

The elements of strategic planning and management come into this final stage. The term ‘strategic’ comes from the military and relates to battle planning. Theorists have taken this term into the world of business, equating ‘battle’ with ‘competitiveness’, which may be true in some instances, but in terms of tourism and community development we need to refine our use of this term in a less combative framework. As Leiper (2002, p. 1818) cogently argues, tourism businesses ‘are about achieving the purpose of each organization, which is not beating the competitors but satisfying the customers’. This often requires working with so-called competitors, not battling against them. The tourism industry revolves around competition, with examples of such cooperation evident in airline alliances, cooperative regional marketing exercises, private–public partnerships, philanthropic relationships and industry associations. Consequently, the term ‘strategic’ now reflects the notion of flexible planning rather than outright competition.

Some ‘strategic’ tools that have been effectively used in a community tourism perspective are outlined, particularly the often-cited notions of triple bottom line, benchmarks and indicators. Social Representation Theory is introduced as a way to understand a community’s attitudes towards tourism development, with a case study that demonstrates how this can be done.

Community oriented approaches to tourism planning and development can provide valuable guidelines for policy makers (Liu & Var, 1986), whereas without public participation tourism growth may make little contribution to the objectives of development (Tosun & Timothy, 2001). In other words, tourism development which is a part of a community is generally more successful than development set apart from a community (Pearce & Moscardo, 1999). Even more so, tourism development which is not integrated with community can be disastrous (Butler & Hall, 1998). In order to achieve this decentralized, integrated and dynamic community-led tourism planning and development, the practice of tourism planning needs to shift the focus from economic growth and marketing—traditional approach to understanding and implementing tourism projects in rural areas—to community input (Butler, 1991; Fuller & Reid, 1998; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Loukissas, 1983; Marcouiller, 1997; Murphy, 1985; Reid, 2003).

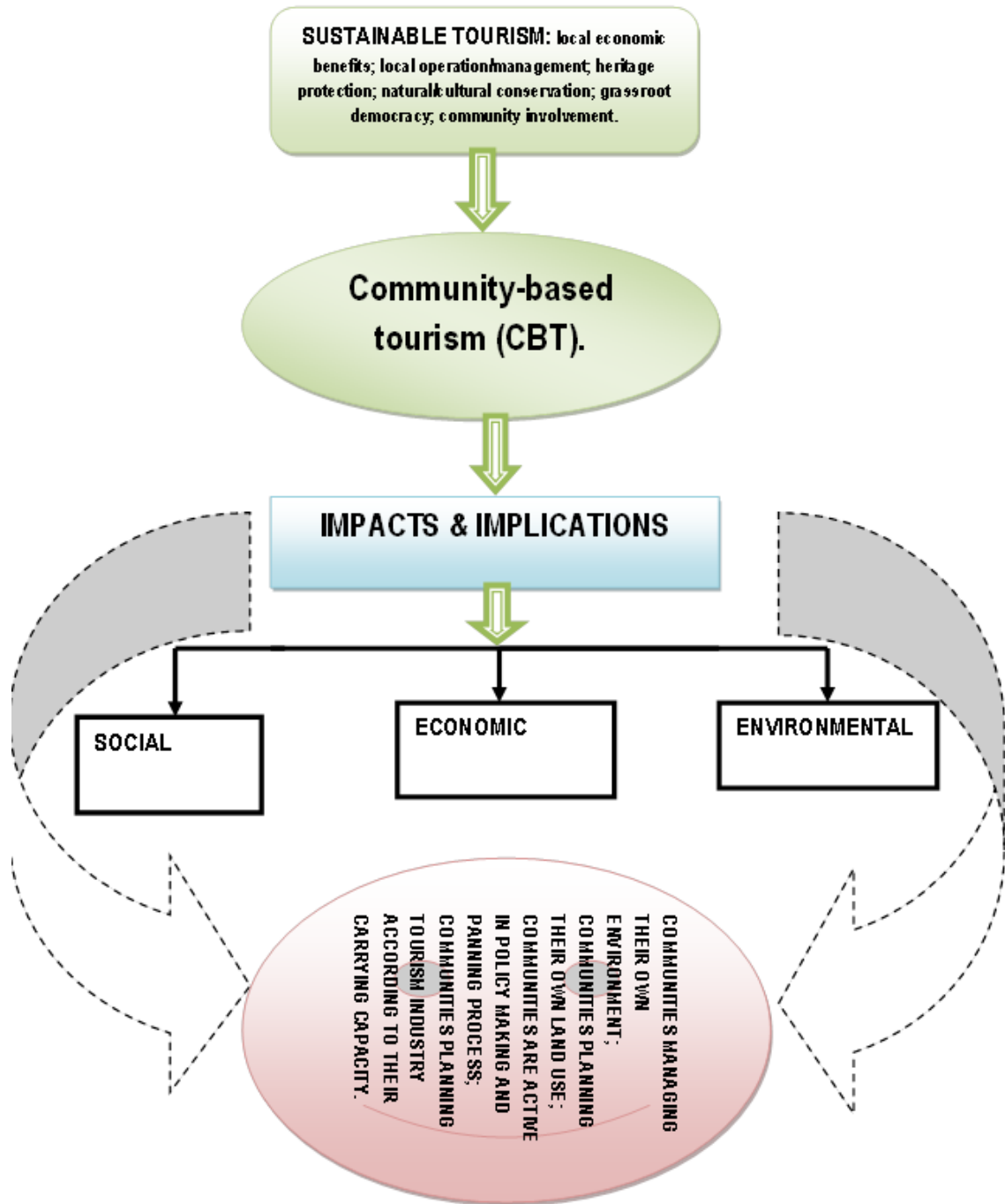


Fig 4.1: Sustainable community-based tourism (CBT) model

4.2 Strategic Planning

Strategies need to be planned and communicated to others, so they are usually written down in some form or other. In the past, many strategic plans were so physically impressive that they made very good doorstops but were useful for little else. There has been a move towards presenting these plans in simpler formats that are easy to read and understand, and can be quickly updated as circumstances change (something that must be central to all tourism planning today with the political and environmental uncertainty around the world). Many are now presented electronically, which makes them easier to change, and not even printed out – which may save on trees! Strategic plans should not be confused with operational or tactical (the military rhetoric remains) plans which are more short term (one to two years), outlining how the strategies from the strategic plan will be applied. Table 4.1 outlines the basic differences between strategic and tactical (operational) planning in terms of length of time, who is responsible? What information is needed and the degree of detail in the plan. Strategic plans tend to be bigger-picture, longer term plans for three to five years containing the overall goals of an organization (community or destination). Simply put, there are three primary steps involved in strategic planning and management: strategy formulation, strategy implementation (tactical area) and evaluation (Murphy & Murphy, 2004), which are all considered in more detail below. The evaluation area also relates to maintaining some sort of control over the process by developing reasonable tools to measure the degree of success of the strategies. This is extremely important when we consider communities and tourism as many of the goals are not easy to measure where we look at some ways of measuring the effects of tourism in communities (Beeton, 2004b).

Table 4.1 Comparison of strategic and tactical planning

	Strategic planning	Tactical planning
Duration	Long term (>3 years)	Short term (<3 years)
Done by	Senior management; community leaders	Middle management; individual businesses and organizations
Necessary information	Primarily external information – regional, national, international	Primarily information from within the organization/ community
Degree of detail	Broad in nature; subjectively based	Detailed information and analysis; objectively based

Source: Adapted from Beeton 2004b.

4.3 Strategic Community Tourism Management and Planning

“Much of the literature on strategic management revolves around large commercial enterprises, with all of their concomitant reporting and information structures, handled by numerous (presumably trained) managers” (Beeton, 2006).

However, strategic planning and management are also important for amorphous groups such as ‘communities’. By establishing a (shared) vision, aims and goals for the future of a community, members can work towards realizing their desired outcomes individually and collectively. Strategy formulation, implementation and evaluation are the main procedural steps to be undertaken when strategically managing an enterprise, destination or community. In terms of tourism to and within communities, the first step of strategy formulation includes a series of decisions taken to determine the mission or

vision of the community (usually a destination) and the specific objectives and policies required to realize that vision. To give a somewhat simplistic example, a destination community may agree that its overall vision is to be a vibrant, exciting community that retains its young people in meaningful employment and regards its older members as valuable participants. The objectives and policies that flow from such a vision may include encouraging tourists to visit, training young people to open up tourism service businesses and using the historical knowledge of the older members to interpret the place for visitors. Once the objectives and so on are established, the proposed ways to achieve them need to be implemented. Often the process stops here as the community believes they have completed the planning and management processes. However, the strategies must be tested in order to ascertain the levels of success and/or identify problematic areas. This is a reiterative process that continually feeds back to itself, over a period determined in the strategy itself. Central to developing successful strategies understands what members think and feel about any changes to or development in their community.

4.4 Social Representation Theory and Community Planning

Communities are complex entities comprising many different groups or stakeholders. These groups can have different values, attitudes and perspectives and some may have a stronger voice that can mask the disenfranchised, disadvantaged, weaker and less articulate community members (Ife, 1995). However, many community based studies have tended to treat the 'community' as a single entity with a homogenous attitude towards tourism development issues. This has resulted in misunderstandings that are reflected in unsuccessful development or dissatisfied community groups who resent the

changes, particularly in relation to tourism and tourists, going down the path of Doxey's Irridex .In order to prevent such a situation, we need to understand the more internal, complex and in-depth community relationships regarding tourism in and to these communities. In their publication, *Tourism Community Relationships*, Pearce, Moscardo and Ross (1996) build on earlier broad-based community tourism work by introducing the concept of social representation as a means to achieve this. They maintain that the more commonly used approaches to studying people's attitudes, from both the psychological and sociological aspects, do not take into consideration where such interrelationships and attitudes come from (Pearce et al., 1996). They have applied Social Representation Theory (SRT) as developed by Moscovici in the early 1970s to their own tourism community research, demonstrating its significance as a means for understanding what is going on in a particular community (Pearce et al. 1996; Moscardo and Pearce, 2003). The central premise of SRT is that there are groupings of individuals in a community who will have similar values or attitudes (social representations), but it does not presume to know what elements make up these groups nor what their attitudes may be. In other words, individual attitudes are sought and identified, and then they are described according to whatever similarities the members with those attitudes may have. As this is driven SRT is an emic form of study, providing each person with the opportunity to drive the research, rather than the researcher prescribing the path. This is the key to understanding how a particular community may operate, yet is often missed by those working with communities due to them taking a more prescriptive approach when looking for attitudes and also in segmenting the community. The most common approach has been to look at the groups and issues that other researchers have found to be prevalent in communities, assume they are common to their community and try to

make them fit. This often occurs due to time and resource constraints, but is not always successful and, at its worst, can be destructive and borders on stereotyping all communities. As Moscardo and Pearce (2003, p. 265) explain,

“Social representations are complex Meta systems of everyday knowledge and include values, beliefs attitudes and explanations...and are not deterministic or static. They vary along many dimensions including the level of consensus about them, their level of detail and how they are communicated. Individuals can and do influence, create and change social representations”.

SRT occurs in a socially determined context and emphasizes more of the social influences and interactions of the community and society, not just personal interpretations of events. Pearce et al. (1996) outline a three-step process to help establish and identify social representations, the first being to identify the individual concerns and secondly establish their intensity. The third step is to then establish a list of priorities and levels of performance. “For example, some studies suggest that increased crowding is an important issue for all members of a community – yet there may be those who enjoy the liveliness that extra people may bring to a community and not consider crowding to be an issue. The two different groups of people may in the past have been differentiated by their age (for example), but now there are other elements that differentiate them. However, as other studies have grouped ‘age’ and ‘concern of crowding’ together, they continue to do so. If research is done from an SRT perspective, the participants are simply asked to list what the issues are that concern them” (Beeton,2006).

If ‘crowding’ comes up as an answer more than a few times, then those people who have responded that way are clustered together and studied to find what personal

attributes they have in common. Instead of age, we may find that this group has lived in the area for a similar amount of time, may have come from another place to settle here, may have similar levels of education, similar types of employment, attitudes to development, and so on. Once these similarities have been ascertained, this now becomes a particular group with a certain social representation (or attitude). By using this process, the people being surveyed are telling us what concerns them and who they are. This is one of the most important elements of community development, particularly in terms of individual and community empowerment. It provides a more contextual, interrelated study of the human community condition, offering a framework that assists in explaining how groups of people understand and react to certain phenomena (Beeton, 2005a).

4.5 Measuring Communities and Tourism

In order to understand and communicate to others where a community is placed in terms of its progress and development, measures that can be reported on need to be established. “This in turn can also reflect the relationship between elements of that community and tourism in the area. While there are many ways in which to measure such aspects, those that are considered most relevant and successful in our field is the notion of the Triple Bottom Line (TBL). While not developed specifically for tourism, the elements of this concept are closely linked to local communities and can be applied to tourism” (Beeton,2006)

4.6 Triple Bottom Line – A Strategic Approach to Indicators of Success

While for many of us, it may seem like the term, Triple Bottom Line, has been around for decades, in fact it was coined by John Elkington in 1997. He considered there to be

three prongs of business that should inform all corporate strategies: social, environmental and financial.

Many of today's business plans are developed around those three prongs, and is particularly pertinent to the field of tourism. But what does TBL really address? It is directly linked with the concept and goal of sustainable development and is underpinned by the belief that a long-term view of any business (destination or community) is central to a successful outcome. In addition, the application of a TBL perspective provides information to enable others to assess the level of sustainability of an organization's or community's operations. However, it is rare to find a long-term perspective adopted by governments, particularly in Western democracies where regular elections may 'keep them honest', but does little to encourage a long-term vision or responsibility. Unfortunately, it can also be difficult to maintain the enthusiasm and commitment required by communities. "However, many community development professionals (who are primarily employed by government) are committed to applying such a concept due to its clear and obvious significance to community development. In addition, tourism can be introduced into this framework and directly contribute to the development of a healthy, sustainable community. The process of integrating TBL accounting and reporting into a community preferably requires all three measures to be incorporated into a single, all-encompassing measurement" (Beeton, 2006). An example of such a measurement is the Index of Sustainable Economic Welfare, which adjusts the normal levels of welfare by subtracting costs associated with unemployment, commuting, auto accidents and environmental pollution (Daly and Cobb, 1989). The obvious challenge here is to identify and then quantify such 'costs'. There is no single currency into which

value-adding or destruction in any of the dimensions can be assessed, so most efforts aim for a convergence, recognizing that different indicators need to be assessed in different ways. However, researchers are working on ways to improve these measurements, and it is a high priority in tourism research. The concept of measuring 'yield' in terms of the costs noted above is a major research priority for groups such as the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC). While initially economics driven, the group has taken the concept further and is working to understand the costs, benefits and yield of non-monetary items.

4.7 Triple Bottom Line Audit of a Community

At the risk of becoming repetitive, it is important to reiterate that communities that focus merely on economic development with no regard for the need to sustain people and their environment are not sustainable. In order to ascertain the stage or state of a community, it is advisable to undertake an audit, which is more than simply a stock take of assets and liabilities. A community audit examines and measures performance against internally and externally established principles and policies (Rogers, 2001). A community TBL audit brings insight into how different aspects of the socio-economic and environmental systems interact, and can highlight areas of dependency, vulnerability and strength. In addition, it encourages the community to consider their long-term attitudes towards the environment as well as social and economic development, which is a major aim of the whole notion of TBL planning.

4.8 Benchmarks and Indicators

In the current business lexicon, we often hear reference to 'benchmarks' and 'indicators' – almost as often as we hear the term 'community'. But what is really meant by these

terms and what is their relevance to community development and tourism? Governments in most Western-based democracies have been moving towards devolving many of their responsibilities upon the regional (local/community) level. “In order to do this successfully, at the very least, requires that there are adequate arrangements for reporting and accounting for the outcomes of the various programs and responsibilities that are taken on at the local level. In addition, these programs need to be monitored and assessed for their effectiveness. This requires the development of sustainability indicators that can be used at the regional/local scale. So, what are ‘indicators’? Simply put, an indicator is a significant variable (physical, biological, social or economic) that can be measured” (Beeton,2006).

For example, the number of landholders participating in Landcare groups may be one indicator of the level of success of educational programs promoting environmental management in a region. At the national level, we find indicators such as the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is seen to indicate a level of our standard of living. Other indicators may include State of the Environment Reports and Quality of Life Indices that can be presented at local as well as national levels. One example of this is what has become known as ‘Genuine Progress Indicators’. These indicators are developed by taking financial transactions from the GDP that are relevant to the concept of ‘wellbeing’.

These transactions are adjusted for aspects of the economy the GDP ignores – such as adding the value of time spent on household work, parenting or volunteer work, while subtracting the expenditure needed to defend quality of life such as burglar-proofing

homes, social costs such as divorce and depreciation of environmental assets and natural resources. This represents a significant shift in the development of indicators that go beyond simple economic data.

However, much data is only available at national or state level, and is expensive and time –consuming to gather. This brings us to considering the issues that need to be taken into account when trying to develop (or use existing) indicators. For example, how do government targets translate to a target at a regional level, and can agreed benchmarks be set for each indicator? A benchmark is the level set for a particular indicator against which performance is measured (such as 80 per cent of landholders participating in Landcare programs). However, when we want to look at multiple outcomes in complex communities, we also need to consider whether existing benchmarks need to be modified to allow for the tensions that exist. “Basically, when we consider establishing (or choosing) indicators, the primary rule would be to consider the common desired outcomes of our community. These would be in terms of the main areas of activity, such as increased economic growth, sustainable use of the region’s land and water resources and an improved quality of life or social wellbeing. Such aims are highly commendable, but most are costly to measure and often present those involved with a large amount of information to be collated and distributed. Sometimes the sheer amount of data can become so daunting that community groups and managers simply put the information aside. In order to prevent this, the data must be useful to many agencies and groups and for multiple purposes, such as policy development, strategic planning, prioritising of resources and reporting. Each indicator should be reliable, consistent, tailored to

objectives, able to detect trends, be scientifically credible, meaningful and understandable to the average person, as well as being cost effective” (Beeton,2006).

4.9 Some Suggested Indicators

Many indicators can be found in existing data. For example, in economic terms we have population change, property values and numbers of building/planning permits issued over a certain period of time. And while the Gross Domestic Product may be too broad to be applied effectively at a local level, there have been developments in establishing Gross Regional Products that are more locally described (Beeton&Pinge,2003). Environmentally, a spatial comparison of land use and management can be an effective indicator of the health or status of the local environment, and such information can be found in many local government or agricultural departments. Associated with land use is measuring the area that may be affected by pest plants, considering water quality and stream or ground water condition as well as water use. The condition of the soil and the amount and placement of remnant vegetation are also significant indicators of the health of the environment. From a social perspective, indicators that measure the so-called ‘quality of life’ are important, and often combine elements .In addition, education facilities, crime rates, age profiles of residents and the mobility of residents in and out of the region are also social indicators. Many of these form part of the Index of Sustainable Economic Welfare noted in the earlier discussion of the TBL. In order to measure the importance of these indicators, benchmarks or ‘minimum standards’ need to be developed. When we consider this in terms of community development, these standards should be agreed upon by that community. The residents had to agree which core data and monitoring programs ought to be set up – which ones were important for them and

how they could be measured (what indicators are appropriate)— followed by the establishment of benchmarks actually monitor and measure these key areas (Roberts, 1997). Indicators and benchmarks were established in the areas of economic, market opportunity, and environmental, experiential, infrastructure/development and socio-cultural. Rather than setting a firm benchmark (for example, the preferred number of visitors per night is 200), they developed an acceptable range as their benchmark (between 180 and 220 visitors per night), setting optimal conditions (TOMM 1999, 2000).

4.10 Communities-Inclusive Tourism Strategies

In the previous parts we looked at issues and elements related to applying strategic planning and management to tourism and communities and establishing community based measures that can be used to indicate the progress of any strategy. In this part we follow on with the strategic theme by looking at the complex areas of empowering individuals and communities along with the vexed area of power relations. Understanding these elements is critical to an understanding of how to best develop our communities through tourism, which we look at here in terms of ‘Community Based Tourism’.

4.11 Community Wellbeing

Community wellbeing is intrinsically understood by many. However, for our purposes it is worthwhile to provide some sort of definition or explanation of its meaning and use within the context of this study. Simply expressed, community wellbeing refers to the quality of life and level of sustainability as seen by the members of that community. In effect, ‘it is shaped by a range of social, psychological, cultural, economic and

environmental factors that shape the way that people think and act in their daily lives ... as well as how they relate to others in their community' (Dredge, 2003). Once again we come across an area that is subjective in its interpretation and not easy to measure, as with so many areas of community development and tourism. What works for one community may be seen as a negative aspect in another – for instance, more people may create a lively, vibrant environment in the eyes of one community, but the same level may simply be perceived as adding to crowding and carrying capacity issues for another. Community wellbeing is not defined solely in simple (measurable) economic terms, but is shaped by the (harder to quantify) complex relationships between the physical, psychological and environmental factors faced by all communities regardless of their type (Dredge, 2003). So, if this is so difficult, why bother? As well as being important in terms of community development, wellbeing is also a tourism asset that can be used to further enhance community outcomes and wellbeing, if managed. Community members who are happy to be there create a positive environment that tourists sense and respond to. While this may not be a tangible asset, visitors soon sense if a place is one where they are welcome and one they wish to spend time in or not. If they do not feel comfortable, they will move on to the next community where they do feel welcome. This is not about forcing people to smile and say 'G'day' to visitors, but something that inherently flows out from a healthy community. And most visitors are quick to pick the difference! Healthy communities with a strong sense of their own wellbeing are well along the path of self determination and empowerment, even though they may still need some assistance in these areas to truly benefit (Beeton, 2006).

4.12 Community Development and Empowerment

By advancing the notion of empowerment and its associated power and powerlessness, Community development and related concepts such as community engagement, capacity building, community control and participation are all strategies of empowerment (Campbell et al., 2007). These concepts are critical elements to promote health and well-being in ways that are relevant, meaningful and sustainable for the intended beneficiaries. Community development is a process of organizing or supporting community groups in identifying their priority health issues, planning and acting upon their strategies for social action and change, thereby gaining increased self-reliance and decision-making power as a result of their experiences (Labonte, 1993). Community development is within the ‘organisational’ or ‘community’ dimension of the Wallerstein’s multi dimensional empowerment framework .Empowerment is defined as a process whereby individuals and groups of people become stronger and more confident in controlling or exerting influence over the issues affecting their lives. This involves the ability of people to assert and claim their legitimate rights in any given situation and their capacity to accept and willingly discharge responsibilities towards oneself, others and society (Beeton, 2006).

It entails special responsibility of a wider society to consciously work towards creating social environments and relationships that bring the best out of people. Following the work of a number of community development practitioners including Wallerstein (1992) and Tsey & Every (2000), Community development and empowerment sometime have been used too loosely by different people to mean different things over the years. A

recent review by Campbell et al. (2007: 157) found ‘a great deal of confusion and contention in the literature about the term ‘community development’ and its constituent concepts of ‘community’, ‘participation’, ‘involvement’, ‘power’, ‘capacity’ and ‘empowerment’’. There is also skepticism as to the value and efficacy of community development and empowerment in promoting health. The practitioner needs to address and clarify four important issues prior to using the community development and empowerment. Firstly, the practitioner must clearly define and explain the main theoretical constructs and approaches being used. Secondly, the practitioner must describe and explain the ways in which the theoretical concepts and approaches are put into practice. Thirdly, the community development and empowerment initiative must be located in the relevant socio-economic contexts. Fourthly, the criteria by which to monitor and determine the effectiveness of the empowerment outcomes need to be made explicit. Power refers to the ability to affect change rather than the power to exploit or dominate others (Ife, 2002).

4.13 Power Relations

No discussion about empowerment can overlook the concept of power, being an integral element of the term itself. And no discussion on power can ignore the significant contribution of Foucault (1975) who emphasizes the importance of local manifestations of power and the process of legitimizing power relationships through knowledge. Foucault maintains that Knowledge defines power, not hierarchy nor status alone. community development through tourism is the power that particularly has relationship between social and political power – particularly the shifting relationship between those with various levels of power. As Sofield puts it, ‘empowerment of and by communities

cannot occur without social forces at some point in time combining with political forces of the state to arrive at a new balance of power relations' (Sofield 2003, p. 69). Power can exist in a hierarchical manner. This is often imposed power, such as in village governance in terms of leaders, elders, councils and so on, or organisationally in terms of local council, state government, national government and so on, which is often seen as political power. Power can also exist in a non-hierarchical manner among communities and groups (which has often been conferred by the community members), often considered to be social power (Beeton , 2006). One of the most widely accepted definitions of power comes from Weber who states that power is 'the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance' (cited Sofield, 2003, p.70).

Power itself governs the way in which our communities develop and whether tourism will be a part of that development and if so, what 'type' of tourism will be encouraged (resort development, ecotourism, educational tourism, adventure tourism, golf tourism and so on...). Understanding how the power relations work and what they are in any community is crucial to developing a sustainable tourism industry within a sustained community.

4.13.1 Political Power

Hall (2003b) argues that politics and power are so intricately related that one cannot be studied without the other. Political power does not solely reside with those who have the appropriate title (mayor, tourism minister etc.) but usually results from the power-playing and positioning of all parties with a vested interest. It involves the actions, values and ideologies of individuals, interest groups, public and private organizations as

actors in the 'game' of politics. These actors may or may not be members of the tourism host community, depending on how that community is defined. In a paper on community tourism in Southern Africa, the author addresses the question of what can governments do when it should be up to the communities to decide if they wish to develop tourism by responding: Governments have a crucial role to play. What communities do in tourism depends on the opportunities and power they have, the incentives and prices they face, and their access to skills, training, capital and markets. All of these are shaped by government policies, regulation and taxes (Gomerac, 1999; p.1).

Public-private partnerships are also stressed as effective ways to develop tourism in communities (Gomera c.1999). If these areas are not encouraged by those with the political power, many communities will not be able to move towards self-determination and empowerment. Hall reminds us that 'politics denotes the struggle over scarce resources, the domination of one group over another and the potential exercise of state control' (Hall 2003b, p. 101). However, Gomera also stresses that 'there are two extremes to be avoided: one is to ignore community tourism ... The other is for government to try to do everything and do it now, without allowing time for local people to develop their ideas and skills' (Gomera c.1999, p. 6). Also, many of these people (stakeholders) had their own political power and were able to mobilise the media into reporting extensively on some extremely graphic demonstrations. The campaign was far more complex than described above, but suffice to say that the proposed developments were scrapped. In effect, in this instance social power had superseded political power (Beeton, 2006).

4.13.2 Social Power

Social power that is seen in terms of the ability to make decisions and get them implemented, regardless of other people's wishes, is known as the decision-making model, while the control model primarily considers power in organisational as opposed to personal terms, which primarily focuses on vertical power relations. The final model, the resources model, considers power in terms of the actor's access to resources, and is used by many from the political sciences, economics and market research fields. These are all useful indicators of the characteristics of power, but each is incomplete and lacking in some way or other, particularly when we consider communities, or social collectives. A more satisfactory way to consider power relations in communities and tourism is to do so in terms of the presentation of power through contested issues, which are those that are important to both (or all) sides and there is disagreement (Jacobsen & Cohen, 1986). If there is no disagreement or if the issue is unimportant to one side, there is no need to exert power. Embedded in the whole notion of power and powerlessness is 'resistance' or conflict as an integral element of power and power relations, not only in terms of political power. Often in our efforts to avoid confrontation all that occurs is a shift in the power balance – one that is usually not positive. Hall reminds us that 'tourism continually redefines social and political realities at that community level ... the very notion of serving tourists affects notions of belonging, place and community no matter where in the world tourism is occurring' (Hall 2003b, p. 110).

4.13.3 Powerlessness

"Powerlessness is a crucial aspect of tourism in communities as so often much of the tourism comes from outside that community. This not only includes the tourists themselves (who wield significant power in terms of economic resources in particular),

but also the transport companies bringing the tourists, the developers and investors who may be outside the community, and even some of the government agencies that are not embedded in the community. It has been extremely easy to override the ‘power’ of many communities, particularly the already marginalised indigenous communities. Other remote, resource-poor communities can also easily be rendered powerless by tourism. In order to correct the imbalance between power and powerlessness, we need to empower the powerless” (Beeton, 2006).

4.14 Empowerment

As with the term ‘community’, empowerment has entered the popular vernacular as a generic term relating to the capacity of individuals or groups to determine their own affairs. The term comes from political science, usually in discussions involving the re-assigning of power to a community whose power has been taken away by force. It certainly has much wider application today and is relevant to many situations and fields of endeavour, which has not helped us, formulate a clear definition. Central to this discussion of empowerment is self-determination, and in many ways this is the key to defining and understanding ‘empowerment’.

Minority groups such as the Black Power movement, Gay Rights movement and ethnic minorities have advocated empowerment to counter discrimination and advance their rights. In the health sector, both nurses and patients are being ‘empowered’ to make decisions that were previously the domain of the specialist doctors. Business management uses empowerment in terms of devolving authority and decision-making power from the top management to the workers, and it can be relevant to many areas of

tourism such as hotel management (Sofield, 2003). Many forms of empowerment are seen as conferring power to groups that have never experienced real authority. This is problematic in that many of these groups do not have the personal resources or capacity to help them. Many ‘empowered’ tourism and community development initiatives have failed due to the communities not being able to maintain the initiative, particularly those who have been disempowered for a long time.

4.15 Capacity Building

The central element for building capacity is primarily in the education and training realm, but is expanding to include other forms of development, particularly in relation to community development. There are four different kinds of capacity:

1. Organisational capacity
2. Technical capacity to deliver specific services
3. Infrastructure capacity, and
4. Community capacity.

Many local government organisations are investing resources in developing their community’s capacity for learning, innovation and knowledge (Dredge, 2003).”By developing communities and tourism they build the capacity of community to achieve their own or greater objectives, such as to take part in local development partnerships and schemes funded by local government and other public sources. This can be used in other related sectors, such as building the capacity of local authority officers to engage with local communities or building the capacity of local community members to serve the interests/needs of tourists. In terms of tourism, the focus is on capacity building and

training to assist all stakeholders (including governments, indigenous and local communities) to analyse and interpret baseline information, undertake impact assessments and evaluations and be adaptive managers. This capacity building is useful too, in areas such as the development or strengthening of mechanisms for impact assessment with all stakeholders” (Beeton, 2006).

Including local community members can be important in terms of approving the approach, content and scope of impact assessment. In order for capacity development to be effective, logical solutions that work locally and meet local requirements and conditions need to be created. For example, in weak, fragmented communities, working towards joint action will increase the capacity of that community. Building partnerships/bridges towards achieving collective capacity is a main focus in many communities, which is concerned with entrepreneurial as well as participatory activities. However, as with all elements related to empowerment and self determination, there are limitations to the success of capacity-building exercises, which are primarily dependent on the current make-up of the community as well as its history in terms of past developments and capacity-building attempts. One example is an attempt to build capacity for community based entrepreneurs in Uganda (Victurine, 2000). Victurine found that the community resisted some of the empowerment strategies, requiring training to be embedded into institutionalized programs. He also acknowledged that progress is slow, recommending that sponsors or donors need to have a longer-term view before they pronounce something as a ‘failure’. This notion of failure and its impact on further community participation is crucial – in many instances, we need to reconsider our time frames relating to success and failure, particularly in this crucial

capacity-building phase.”While capacity development is an element of empowerment and self determination, support from higher-level policy areas and the public is needed. In determining what areas need attention in terms of increasing the capacity, it is crucial to understand the level of social capital in the community. Simply put, social capital refers to a community’s social assets such as the extent and quality of members’ involvement with others in their community” (Beeton, 1998). Engagement and trust between community members are essential ingredients of social capital. The connectedness of social networks, particularly where the members of these networks share social norms, trust and reciprocity, is valuable in fostering cooperation to achieve common goals (Jones, 2005). There are two elements of social capital – the structural and cognitive aspects. The structural aspect includes networks, roles, rules and precedents, while the cognitive aspect incorporates the norms, values, attitudes and beliefs of those in a community (Jones, 2005). The former relates to what people do and how they do it, while the latter is more about perceptions of reciprocity and trust – what they feel. Of course, simply having the structural elements does not create social capital – the processes are there, but the value that the cognitive aspects provide must also be present. Social capital is a value-laden term, and while it may be difficult to measure, it is the key to many healthy communities. While it is easy to accept the notion expressed by some that tourism development that is primarily economic-based will reduce social capital, the opposite can also be true. More wealth can create more group activity as members move up Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs and become interested in social and self-actualisation aspects. In other words, development can create or destroy social capital – yet another paradox! According to Mansuri and Rao (2004, cited Jones 2005, p. 307), ‘social capital is part of the power relations within a system and embedded within

its cultural and political context'. So-called grassroots community groups are where the process of building social capital starts in a community. These groups come from the community, bottom up, and are not imposed in top-down process, demonstrating democratic processes by giving community members the opportunity to take an active role in local issues, events and activities. A community's sense of responsibility can be heightened by increasing the awareness of members about social issues and providing a medium through which their sense of social responsibility can be translated into action. In the tourism industry there are various types of tourism that are considered to have positive effects on communities. However, all tourism should subscribe to sustaining and developing the communities in which they operate. The discussion on ecotourism below is one example of tourism that can aid in community capacity development, but should not be relegated just to the niche of ecotourism.

4.15.1 Ecotourism, Empowerment and Community Development

Ecotourism is often referred to in community capacity development fields, especially in developing countries such as Costa Rica. The term 'ecotourism' is contested and at times has been used simply as a marketing tool. Basically, ecotourism is nature based, educative and managed in a sustainable fashion (Beeton, 1998). Sustainable management refers to the community as well as the natural environment: it requires operators to support the local community through employment, products, education and in other ways. Ecotourism also incorporates aspects of TBL sustainability including generating financial support for protection and management of natural areas, benefits for residents and resident support for conservation. However, without proper planning and integration, projects work in isolation, failing to influence conservation, development or policy. Community based ecotourism are enterprises owned and managed by the

community. This implies that the community is taking care of its resources through conservation, business enterprise and community development, but is not always the case.

4.16 Planning Tourism for a Community

The whole notion of community planning implies a high level of community involvement and participation, yet often the community does not have the control that is implicit in such a notion. This is not always possible in certain political environments and structures. However, this does not mean we should not try. As Sofield (2003), notes many of the benefits of community based tourism planning lie in the process, not simply the outcome. By taking the journey down the community engagement and empowerment path, problematic areas, power imbalances, lack of social capacity and capital can be highlighted, which can then work in our favor. “As well as resulting in capacity building and empowering the community members, one of the strengths of engaging the community in its own development process is also one of its weaknesses. Volunteers from the community, not paid outsiders, handle the majority of the community based work. However, recruiting and maintaining an enthusiastic, committed volunteer group is problematic, particularly in small communities and those used to a hierarchical, top-down power structure. In the first instance (small community), responsibility for many of the community based projects can fall to the same few people, which negates the notion of empowerment and capacity building and may also result in burnout of those involved. The second issue can be even more problematic, where the community is used to being told what to do by a person in a position of power. Even if the person genuinely desires to empower the members, they will tend to resist any move of responsibility to

them – this is the contradiction inherent in community development, much like the contradiction of tourism (carrying with it the seeds of its destruction). Effecting the change required to empower such communities and relieve the load on the few takes time and requires an ongoing commitment” (Beeton, 2006).

4.17 From Theory to Practice: Trying to Empower –the Case of the Country Towns Project

While the concept of individual and community empowerment is clearly a preferred way to develop communities, and tourism can clearly be a contributor to this process, in reality, it is not always simple to empower people. This is particularly the case where the power balance in a community may be skewed towards certain groups or individuals who, by either their very nature or desire, operate in a top-down fashion. A community whose members are used to being ‘told what to do’, instead of welcoming the bottom-up approach associated with empowerment, may resent the responsibility it entails and actively work to subvert such a goal. While many readers may be thinking of indigenous and other marginalised communities while reading this, the situation exists in many (if not all) communities to one extent or another. To establish continuing community and business building processes which will empower selected towns to implement practical and achievable employment and economic development actions. The desired outcomes for the project included the:

- Formation of Community Business Builder Taskforces and teams
- Research profiles in each town
- Empowerment of enthusiastic community and business builders;

- An implementation program of tangible actions for job creation and economic development initiative in each town;
- Empowerment of teams of enthusiastic community taskforces;
- Implementation of tangible projects and activities that generate actions for job creation and economic development and strengthening of communities across the region; and
- Successful attainment of funds to support the implementation, undertaking and management of community supported projects and activities.

The main objective of the project was to empower the communities and develop structures to take them into the future. It was acknowledged from the outset that such structures must be community driven and owned, not imposed from without, reflecting an attempt to move from individual leadership, which faces problems of burnout and the leader leaving the community (Beeton,2006).

4.18 Developing Communities through Tourism: Harnessing the Forces

This study has introduced the concepts of communities and tourism from both theoretical and practical perspectives, considered the relationship between community tourism planning and development and power relations, the complex notion of community and individual empowerment, and looked in detail at tourism in rural areas as well as disaster management and recovery. This final case begins by discussing what has become a natural flow-on for many of those involved in tourism and community development, both from a corporate and individual perspective, namely ethical behavior in terms Of corporate responsibility and private philanthropy.

4.18.1 Ethics and Tourism

The term ethics relates to the study of morality's effect on conduct (moral philosophy) as well as being a system of moral principles governing appropriate conduct (Encarta Dictionary). While principles may differ among cultures, notions of corporate responsibility and philanthropy as presented in this study. As the majority of tourists and the multi-national tourism businesses who visit Iran are from the Muslim countries, such ethical beliefs as those found in countries, much relate to tourism and community development.

These notions of corporate responsibility in relation to tourism and community development are introduced, particularly in terms of ethical behavior and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and public-private partnerships. Following this, 'Pro-Poor Tourism' is discussed – a concept that is central to this study as it deals directly with using tourism to aid and develop impoverished communities. While many of the concepts relate to tourism, there is also a shift with certain groups of travelers become more directly involved in philanthropic projects related to their travel experiences.

4.18.2 Corporate Citizenship and Community Tourism

In order to meet the requirements of triple bottom line management and reporting as introduced before, many businesses have adopted elements of corporate citizenship and corporate social responsibility (CSR).”After a discussion on the place of ethics in business, Public-private partnerships are also presented as an aspect of ethical business practice, which is not new in the tourism industry– however, along with CSR it has only been recently that they have become recognized and articulated as actual goals for an enterprise. Traditionally, travel and tourism companies (among others) have tended to

take a short-term view with a focus on financial profits, leaving the host communities to deal with the consequences of the behavior. This has placed the responsibility for sustainable development on the host communities and not on the business. As the tourism industry tends to operate on low profit margins, responsible, ethical behavior in terms of the sustainability of tourism has been seen as a luxury, not a practical business necessity” (Beeton,2006). However, this does not sit with the shift since the late 1980s towards contributing to community responsibility, as in the niche field of ecotourism. Many global (or transnational) corporations focusing primarily on financial profits wield a high level of economic power over national local governments. But there are increasing calls for corporate ethical business practice that goes beyond simply considering profits. Consumers have begun to make product choices based, at least in part, upon a company’s ethical reputation. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) notes that an increasing number of companies have developed a culture of corporate philanthropy, where they return a portion of their profits to charities and other causes such as environmental protection (WTTC, 2002).

Contributing to environmental protection and the local community are among the tenets of ecotourism. However, there is a growing belief that the private sector’s role is greater than this and that organizations should be taking a more holistic approach towards their role in the world, becoming corporate citizens. Companies are looking at not only mitigating the environmental effects of various activities, but also the social issues that emanate from the emergence of a global economy. This is particularly relevant for travel and tourism, which are by their very nature global activities – tourists travel the globe and contribute to the global as well as local economy.

However, ethical practice can be presented by a company as a quality standard and a point of difference, particularly in the highly competitive travel and tourism sector. This can be presented in terms of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR).

4.18.3 Corporate Citizenship: Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate Social Responsibility is of growing importance to the Travel and Tourism industry as part of sustainable tourism development. With an increasing percentage of customers favoring tourism that benefits the local community and surrounding environments, this issue is an essential one to be addressed by modern progressive management (Tourism Concern, 2000).

4.18.4 Corporate Citizenship: Public–Private Partnerships

While there have traditionally been difficulties in obtaining funding for tourism ventures, some financial institutions have taken on tourism as part of their community development role. By developing public– private partnerships between the community, local government, local businesses, tourism operators and private sector capital and intellectual property, such organisations are able to leverage the ethical benefits of tourism development in communities. Generally speaking, Public– Private Partnerships (PPP) cover any contracted relationship between the public and private sectors to produce an asset or deliver a service (New South Wales Government, 2001).

What is needed of course is a convergent path where the public policy framework allows the private sector to enter and compete on an open, transparent and free basis, allowing market-forces to dictate the winners and the losers ... Sustainability in our industry cannot, in our view, be achieved without first recognising that a balance needs to be struck and then working to establish that balance. Ideally that necessitates an open

partnership between the public and private sectors (de Jong, 2005, the president of the Pacific Asia Travel Association, PATA)

Chapter 5

THE CASE OF SHAHMIRZAD



Figure 5.1

Because of its historical locations and sites and its natural beauty, Iran is considered among the 10 most touristic countries with the most tourism potential in the world (Wikipedia, 2010). Even though Iran has great potential for tourism development, there are a number of barriers. Economically and politically, tourism is in competition for resources with the petroleum and other sectors. Politicians appear to have little interest in tourism, probably having taken it for granted. The lack of external investment in tourism can be seen as a major barrier to the tourism industry in Iran. The country also

suffers from inadequate infrastructure and transportation facilities for tourists. Tourism development is challenged by some problems on the cultural front. Human rights issues are also barriers to tourism development (Butler & Hinch, 2007). Iran's Cultural Heritage, Handicrafts and Tourism Organization (ICHHTO) has established a plan for tourism development based on community investment in tourism development (Jafari, 2003). About 2.3 million tourists have visited Iran in 2009 according to Iran's Cultural Heritage, Tourism and Handicrafts Organization. About 70,000 of the tourists were from Turkey, 3,000 from Germany, and 3,000 from China, with the rest being from other countries (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tourism_in_Iran). The International tourism; number of arrivals in Iran was reported at 2034000.00 in 2008, according to the World Bank. "International inbound tourists (overnight visitors) are the number of tourists who travel to a country other than that in which they have their usual residence, but outside their usual environment, for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose in visiting is other than an activity remunerated from within the country visited. In other cases data are from tourism accommodation establishments. Iran's economy is the sixteenth largest in the world by purchasing power parity (PPP). The country has a large public sector. In fact, private sector activity is typically restricted to small workshops, farming, and services because price controls, subsidies and corruption discourage private investments. Iran's main source of foreign trade is oil and gas which constitute 60% of the government revenue" (World Bank, 2008).

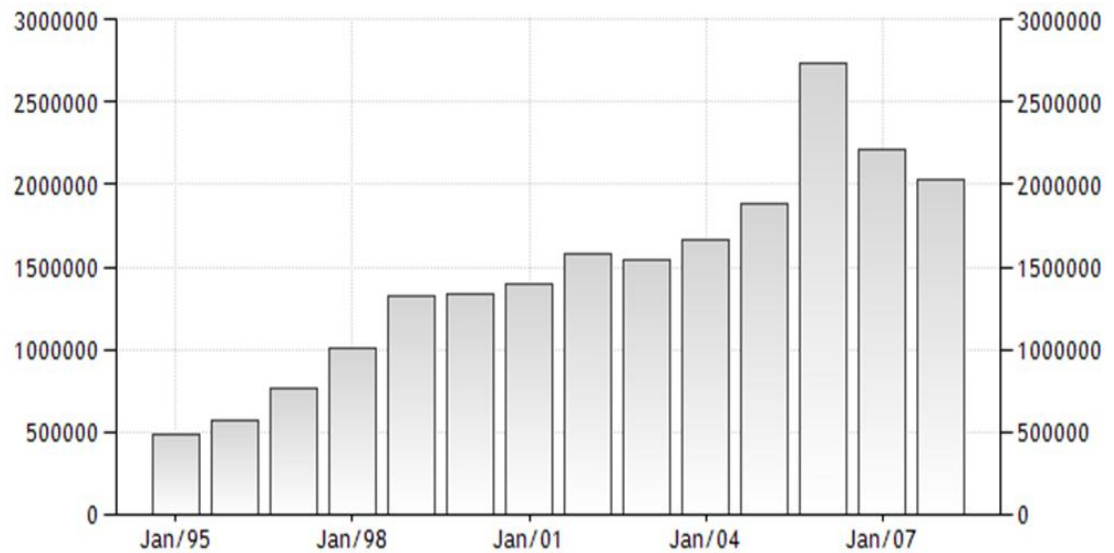


Figure 5.2 World Bank Indicators - Iran - Travel & tourism

The International tourism; expenditures (US dollar) in Iran was 10133000000.00 in 2009, according to a World Bank report, published in 2010. The International tourism; expenditures (US dollar) in Iran was reported at 8418000000.00 in 2008.

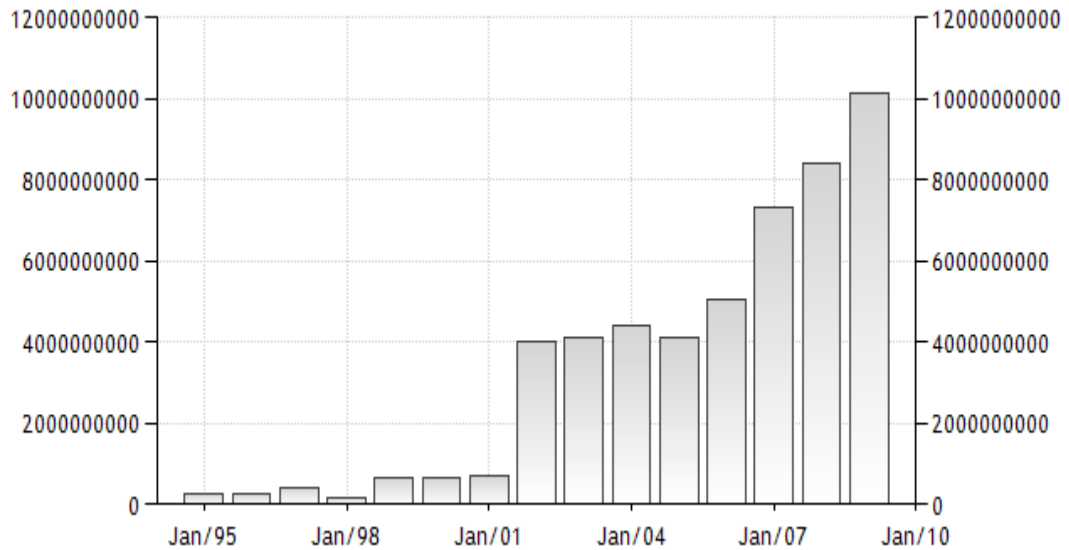


Figure 5.3 International tourism; expenditures (US dollar) in Iran

Thus, CBT can offer a viable solution for tourism development. CBT is supported by the literature and research evidence from health, education and agriculture sectors (Moscardo, 2008). In such a situation, CBT is vital in order to empower local people to take advantage of the opportunities provided by tourism development (Laverack & Thangphet, 2007). Hence, tourism development needs to be supported by CBT. In this way, an assessment of barriers to CBT for tourism development is an important step in developing the community's ability to reach its goals (Marre & Weber, 2007).

Shahmirzad is a sleepy mountain village located in Semnan Province, Iran, 241 Kms (150 miles) northeast of Tehran (The capital city of Iran). Shahmirzad town is the best places in Semnan province, enjoying moderate climate and many tourist attractions. Shahmirzad has been recognized as major cities such as Shiraz, Neishabour, Lahijan, Shoushtar in terms of tourism and has been named *International Exemplary Tourist City*.

Shahmirzad is located 24 km to the north of Semnan. This town with natural and unique attraction is one of interesting regions of the Tourism. The most important characteristic of this town is the pleasant and cool weather during the spring and summer seasons. The natural and green landscape of Shahmirzad have been surrounded by the mountains and proper climates all suitable for the growth of cold region trees especially walnut tree so that this small town was considered as an important walnut pole of Iran by FAO as the big walnut garden is stretched on an area of about seven million m² (Irano-British Quarterly Magazine, No.25).



Figure 5.4 Shahmirzad and Semnan state location in the country

5.1 Geographical Location and Natural Features of Shahmirzad

Shahmirzad is situated in the southern slopes of Eastern Alborz Mountains. Its longitude is 52° -21east; its latitude is 35° -46 north, and its altitude is 2050 meters. Alborz Mountains are like a dam above the area. As the height of the mountains is decreasing from the middle part to the east part, there are high mountains on the north part of the area. The uppermost peak among these mountains has a height of 3810 meters. The area has lots of ups and downs and its normal slope is from north to south; that is why the altitude of Shahmirzad is 2050 meters and of Semnan is 1100 meters.

According to the geographical conditions of the area, especially the amount of rainfall, the whole area consists of numerous springs like Haftcheshmeh, Sheikhcheshmesar, etc. whose water is running down on rivers and making beautiful scenery. Moreover, for having an appropriate climate, a specific topography condition and adequate water supplies, Shahmirzad has a significant vegetation form that not only makes the weather soft, but also gives a beautiful effect to the nature for all the seasons. Of the most important trees of the area are ash, Tabrizi, walnut and willow. From the climatic point of view, Shahmirzad has a significant condition. In the spring and summer seasons it has a great weather, which attracts people from the cities around to the city to enjoy the warm weather. These weather conditions, especially temperature and rainfall are under the effect of latitude and its uneven ground condition so that the mean temperature of the year is 12.7 centigrade in this town. The range of the difference between the maximum and minimum temperature of Shahmirzad reaches 55 centigrade, which means that the minimum temperature in the coldest month of the year is -18.2 and the maximum

temperature in the hottest month of the year is 37.6 centigrade. Nowadays, Shahmirzad has important touristic capacities such as various natural, historical, and cultural attractions. Among them we may name the great weather conditions in summer time, amazing mountain sceneries, beautiful vegetation form, clear water springs, a mysterious and beautiful cave, mosque and historical castle, etc. that need a good amount of investment to operate these touristic attractions.

SHAHMIRZAD



Figure 5.5 Shahmirzad locations in the state

5.2 Natural Attractions

Natural attractions and sceneries are series of spectacular and unforgettable sceneries of nature that do shape a unique visualization on every tourist's mind. Of the most important natural factors that are shaping the natural sceneries in this town and making it a phenomenal tourist destination are climatic structure, the modality of water supplies and moisture, topography structure, vegetation form, etc.

5.3 Weather and Climate

Table 5.1:

Mean temperature												
AV.	2010	2009	2008	1386	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	
10.6	11.2	8.9	13.7	9.2	11.7	8.8	9.9	9.9	10.7	*	12.4	Apr.
16.5	16.6	15.7	18.1	16.7	17.9	16.1	15.2	14.5	15.5	*	19	May
21.2	23.6	20.6	22.5	22.3	21	20.3	20.7	19.2	22.6	21.3	21	Jun.
25.2	28	25.8	25	24.1	25	26.3	23.1	26.6	24.2	26.7	24.9	Jul.
25.3	24.5	26.7	24.4	22.7	25.3	24.3	25.3	31	24.8	24.5	24.1	Aug.
21.7	31	20.7	21.5	21	20.3	21.4	21.9	21.3	23.5	22	23.2	Sep.
16.0	18.5	15.2	16.8	13.4	16.5	17.7	15.6	15.6	18.7	16.5	13.9	Oct.
8.9	10.2	8.7	7	9.4	9.2	7.4	9.7	8.8	10.1	10.1	8.2	Nov.
2.0	6	0.8	2.4	2	-1	4.9	1.3	1.4	1.4	4.2	2.8	Dec.
-0.4	0	3.3	-0.4	-6.4	-3.6	-1.2	0.4	-0.1	0.1	2.2	2.2	Jan.
0.7	0.8	1.8	1.7	-3.4	1.6	1.4	-1.5	2.1	0.8	2.7	0.2	Feb.
6.1	4.1	9.1	6.5	6.8	3	6.6	5.3	7	3.7	7.1	6.1	Mar.
12.7	14.5	13.1	13.3	11.5	12.2	12.8	12.2	13.1	13.0		13.2	AV.

Source: Local Meteorological Organization

In a single season, not only it's possible to see the various kinds of climate in a vast country like Iran, but also it's possible to see a significant difference of climate in some parts of a smaller area such as Semnan for it is located between high mountains and a low salt desert.

In interpretation of the weather of any area, factors such as being away or near to the sea, longitude and latitude, and the other location specifications on one hand, and climate factors such as temperature, rainfall, moisture, evaporation, pressure and wind on the other hand are the main factors in determining the climate status, therefore they should be analyzed carefully.

Characteristic of mountain climates is rainfall in autumn and winter seasons which mostly will fall as snow for being located in high height. Moreover, rainfalls in spring are usually fall as rain and are really important for the mountain areas because the preserved snow would be the source for underground water and springs.

Table 5.2

Rainfall (millimeter)

2010	2009	2008	1386	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	
56.5	28.9	37.1	6.3	141.6	15	7.7	58.6	84.6	86.6	1.3	Apr.
29.2	34.9	6.2	2.9	40.2	52.8	34.6	30.5	57.9	28.3	9.2	May
18.4	2.4	61	2.4	40.5	16.6	6.2	10.3	21.6	0	7.4	Jun.
13.8	1.2	0	8.3	28.1	15.1	1.8	56	0	13.6	1	Jul.
4.0	28.5	0	2.3	3.5	0	10.3	0.2	1.8	10.5	7.5	Aug.
9.4	28.7	38.1	9.4	2.3	1.6	9.6	18.8	4.4	0	0	Sep.
7.1	3.7	0	0	45.3	4.5	0.2	4.5	2	3.7	4	Oct.
14.4	33.3	40.4	14.1	8.8	3.2	26.4	20	4.6	7.7	4.6	Nov.
34.6	1	22.3	53.7	57	47.3	0	36.7	16	44.9	33.8	Dec.
25.7	19.3	10.5	15.3	15.5	18.4	68.8	26.2	39.4	8.1	29	Jan.
43.0	18.3	50	51.6	23.6	78	90.3	31.8	16.9	43.5	1	Feb.
34.8	49.1	45.6	43	2.7	73.8	3	47.9	26.7	58.4	12.2	Mar.
289.7	249.3	311.2	209.3	409.1	326.3	258.9	341.5	275.9	305.3	111.0	Total

Source: Local Meteorological Organization

As discussed above, it could be concluded that Shahmirzad has both the cold weather of winter and the moderate and nice weather of summer due to its geographical location, having mountains, vegetation forms etc. Because of this nice climate, natural factors and topography as the important potential touristic attractions, Shahmirzad has various attractions known by lots of people living in the vicinity as well as far away from this town. Furthermore, mountainous climate is not only one of the important touristic potentials, but also is important for having health benefits.

Table5.3: Humidity %

Mean	2010	2009	2008	1386	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	
50	53	46	42	63	47	45	49	54	53	*	54	Apr.
41	51	45	33	44	44	39	47	47	42	*	32	May
36	33	40	32	38	38	36	38	40	28	43	26	Jun.
35	33	32	38	44	39	34	48	29	30	33	26	Jul.
34	38	34	34	38	30	38	38	31	35	31	29	Aug.
35	39	41	37	36	31	39	33	35	32	32	32	Sep.
40	41	41	40	51	37	40	36	36	33	37	49	Oct.
50	55	57	54	49	48	53	51	45	48	45	54	Nov.
63	48	75	61	71	66	53	59	62	45	62	71	Dec.
66	58	68	65	77	69	68	66	67	56	56	70	Jan.
66	70	66	68	75	69	73	66	60	56	59	70	Feb.
54	74	54	46	48	70	46	62	50	56	50	57	Mar.
47	49	50	46	53	49	47	49	46	43	45	48	Mean

Source: Local Meteorological Organization

Mountain air is approximately pure from 600 meters above, and in the height of more than 1000 meters is completely pure. That means in this altitude, the air is free of any microbes, allergenic resources and dust. Needle-leaf trees are growing very well in these altitudes and as medical point of view, breathing in this air is really beneficial for the

people with tubercular problems. From the height of 1700 meters and above, because of the decrease in atmosphere pressure, the sympatric system would be simulated consecutively and therefore adrenalin would be secreted. As a result, spleen would make cells more easily and the number of red blood cells would be increased which is helpful for anemic people. If a person lives in the mountains for 20 days, the production of red blood cells would reach the maximum.

Also, the mountain weather would increase the metabolism of the body and also the appetite. It would decrease glycogen of the liver and the muscles. Moreover it is effective in the reduction of the blood sugar. Coldness of the mountains has also effect on the human body and would increase its resistance to fatigue, would strengthen nerves and also would improve mental conditions. In some improved countries you may even see some places built in the mountains for the patients who are discharged from the hospital, to spend their recovering time there; for the mountain weather would decrease the recovery time for the patients and is good for mental recoveries as well (Zahedi, 1991, p.10).

5.4 Mountain Setting (Mountains and Altitudes)

Of the significant characteristics of Shahmirzad, that is important for attracting the tourists as well, is its location. It is not only on the south slope of the towering Alborz Mountains, but also has a high altitude that is 2050 meters. Being located in the south slope of Alborz Mountains with such an altitude has itself a great potential for leisure and rest because the variety of natural sceneries in Iran are affected by the mutual influence of climate and uneven zones. You may see gentle slopes covered with small

bushes as well as groves, bushes and trees that are spread around the valleys and along the rivers acting as the shelter for the travelers.

General characteristics of the mountain weather are the reduction in the temperature and increase in moisture. The importance of the ecology of the southern slopes are mostly in collecting the water of the rainfalls, for Shahmirzad mostly gets the rainfalls as snow and the underground water will be supplied by this gradually melted snow. As a result, having springs and vegetation forms in foothills, especially Shir Ghaleh and Sheikh Reza mountains would attract plenty of people from Semnan and Mahdishahr(Sangesar), which are located 24 kilometers and 6 kilometers away from Shahmirzad. The most important mountains of the area have been mentioned in Table 4 with their names, heights and their geographical situation. The highest mountain peak with the height of 3810 meters is located in the north side of Shahmirzad and north-east of Chashm village, which is the rural part of Shahrmirzad.

Table 5.4: Important Mountains and Mountain Peaks of the area with their characteristics and geographical location

No.	Mountain	Height in Meters	Geographical Location
1	Nezeva	3810	North side of Shahmirzad and north-east of Chashm village
2	Chingal	3468	North side of Shahmirzad and north-east of Chashm village
3	Chirood	3400	North side of shahmirzad
4	siahkooch	3110	North-east of shahmirzad
5	kondoreh	3035	North-east of shahmirzad
6	Sheikhreza	3000	North-east of shahmirzad
7	Shirghaleh	3000	North-west of shahmirzad
8	Bashm	2947	North side of shahmirzad
9	Baghoo	2875	North-east of shahmirzad
10	Nesa	2530	North side of shahmirzad
11	Sefidkooch	2512	North side of shahmirzad
12	Morghak	2410	West side of shahmirzad
13	Neyzeh	2345	North-west of shahmirzad

5.5 Springs, Streams, and Rivers:

Of the most important natural resources that are significant in attracting tourists are springs, streams and rivers. The flow of springs is also affected by the type, amount, time of rainfall, as well as the height of area. Therefore, as the source of the above-mentioned springs are the mountains of Shahmirzad, they have a more regular flow

according to the persistency of snow fall till the beginning of the warm season, because the snow melts gradually and the flow of water is in a longer period. The most important springs of Shahmirzad with their general characteristics are mentioned in table5.5 (Sadafi darvish, 1995).

Table 5.5: The Most Important Springs of Shahmirzad and Their General Characteristics

No.	Spring Name	Geographical Location	Date of Visit	Flow (liter per second)	Yearly Depletion (Square Meters)
1	Haftcheshmeh	North-side of shahmirzad	25.02/2002	185	5834160
2	heikhcheshmesar	North-side of shahmirzad	25.02/2002	215	6780240
3	Arashk	North-side of shahmirzad	25.02/2002	30	946080
4	Kahesh	North-side of shahmirzad	25.02/2002	15	473040

Source: Water Resources of Semnan Province

Shahmirzad is located near these springs and their water that forms the streams from north to south. These water resources have helped the city to have good arable lands. Density of human activities near the springs and their rivers has shown themselves as beautiful natural sceneries of fruit gardens and arable lands. The nice and rare scenes formed by the vicinity of water and plant have attracted people to spend their time and rest during their vacations or weekends.

5.6 Vegetation

Nowadays, the above mentioned vegetation, especially trees, is of the most important and beautiful natural sceneries counted as the unique touristic attractions and suitable

facilities for people's leisure time as it not only forms a good scenery and makes the city beautiful in all four seasons of the year, but also its ancient trees such as walnut, plane tree and Tabrizi, in the summer time give the air a nice aroma by the phenomenon of photosynthesis.



Figure 5.6

Of the most important trees which could be found around Shahmirzad are Tabrizi trees, ash, walnut, plane tree, willow, plum etc. that give an enjoyable view to the landscape during spring and summer because of their green and colorful leaves. Preservation of the green areas and natural sceneries has its own special place in urban management system and one may certainly say that the responsibility for its maintenance and improvement is much harder than its design and building. This is not possible unless we understand the responsibilities and sensibilities of vegetation life in the urban communities so that every single citizen can assume this responsibility in the building and maintenance of green areas and natural sceneries as a national duty (Khaksar, 1997).

Although lots of green sceneries of the city have been destroyed because of the various constructions around the city, fortunately the zealous citizens of Shahmirzad, with starting a company named Kesht-o-Sanat, have begun to recover the area. For example, they have extended the green areas with planting the trees such as walnut and almond by planting 12000 seedlings between 1988 and 1993. According to predictions of the company, planting would be developed to approximately 30000 seedlings in a 700 hectare area in the east side of the city. Among the trees which will be planted, 20000 would be walnut and the remaining 10000 would be almond. In addition to planting trees, constructing a dam and foraging the crops would also take place in the near future that not only makes this area one of the manufacturing and industrial excellence for export, but also it improves and riches the vegetation form of the area. Therefore, this vegetation changes the ecosystem and purifies the area, which will be helpful to attract more tourists to this area in the near future.

It would be more significant if the arable lands under the ownership of Kesht-o-Sanat would be compared to the whole arable land of Shahmirzad. This land including gardens and arable land is 435 hectares half of which, that is around 215 hectares, are gardens. The whole arable area owned by the Kesht-o-Sanat company is 700 hectares besides trees and arable lands. As the effect of vegetation forms and green areas are important to climate and purification of the air, the importance of the land under the ownership of Kesht-o-Sanat would be more significant according to climate, biological perspective, and landscaping (kesht-o sanat newslwtter, No 2, 2002, p.3). It has been known as the largest walnut garden of the world in FAO.

5.7 Wildlife

“Of the most important touristic attractions of Shahmirzad is the wildlife protected area of Parvar. This area with the width of 57000 hectares is located on the north-east side of Shahmirzad which is covered with plain areas. Around 27 thousand hectares of this area is under the control of department of environmental protection of Semnan-Shahmirzad and the rest is under the protection of department of environmental protection of Mazandaran (Arghan, 2010). The residential villages of Parvar, Kolim, Kavard, Finsek, Talajim, Molladeh, Sheli, Heikoo, Roodbarak, and Foulad Mahalleh are located in this area.

Wildlife species of this area are ibex (kind of stag), goat, ram, ewe, chamois, panther, brown bear, deer, hog, wolf, jackal, fox, snake, various kinds of lizard, rat, partridge, pigeon, lunar, cuckoo, various kinds of birds of prey, sparrow and so on. Vegetation species of the area are haloxylon, frankincense, sagebrush, millet, milk vetch, karvatks; herbal salt grass such as galbanum, thyme; needle-leaf trees such as urs and broad-leaf trees such as oak, beech, alder, medlar, hawthorn, barberry, wild pear, wild apple, wild walnut, ash, melch, ghadar, shirdar, hornbeam, maple, granule, barang, and fig”(Khaksar,1997).

According to the act number 52 of the environment council in 1973, the above mentioned area is considered as a protected area. Between 1973 and 1977, however, the area was used for hunting by the tourism organization of the time due to the great number of the wildlife animals such as ibex, goat, ram and ewe. The permissible season

for hunting in this area is between October and January as during the rest of the year either the newborns are small and cannot run away from the hunters or animals are in the period of mating and pregnancy. Therefore, hunting during this time might lead to the extinction of these species as it has been one of the causes of extinction of wildlife in this area. If we decide to use this natural potential as a tourist destination, we should invest a lot to protect and recover the grasslands and to stop the excessive grazing. Moreover, we should protect the area with the help of protection installations and also the relevant organizations.

5.8 Darband Cave

As there are a great deal of limestone and the other porous types of stones, there are a lot of caves in Iran that could be used as a source of tourist attraction for speleologists (Tourist Consult, 1972, p. 28). Of the interesting attractions of the area is the historical and distinguishable cave of Darband located 21 kilometers north of Semnan and 3 kilometers south of Shahmirzad, which overlooks the plain area of Darband.



Figure 5.7

Interior part of the cave is almost plain and without any turns and maze. Its inner side is like an oval salon with a length of 91 meters, width of 36 meters and maximum height of 20 meters. From the geological perspective, the structure of the cave is related to the third period and is shaped by various kinds of sedimentary rocks which contain a lot of lime and salt. However, the diggings show that this cave might belong to another time. The oldest antiques found in this cave date back to the 5th century of Hijri. The most significant of all is a gold coin with Kufi letters whose style and letters indicate that it belongs to the end of Seljuk Empire and the beginning of Mogul war. Enamel bowls known as Gabri from Mazandaran and fine clays from Gorgan represent the artifacts of 5th-6th centuries of Hijri which are found in this cave. Also, there are lots of big and beautiful stalagmite and stalactite collars covering the cave, with the highest stalagmite collar of 12 meters and average diameter of 2.85 meter located in the middle of the cave. Considering the decoration, it is one of the most beautiful and attractive caves of Iran. Regarding the number of visitors considering the cave yard's light limitation each week 350 tourists visit the cave (Figure5.7).

5.9 Historical Attractions

5.9.1 Shir Ghaleh

It has mentioned in the historical book of Semnan that Shahmirzad's Shir Ghaleh was one of the Ismailis accommodations in this area. Also in the book of Ismailieh's Ghala, Shir Ghaleh was referred to as one of the symbols of Ismailis period.



Figure 5.8 Shir Ghaleh

5.9.2 Ghaleh Sheikhi

Ghaleh Sheikhi is almost located in the downtown of Shahmirzad in the altitude of 100 meters and is built on the natural rocks. The shape of the castle is rectangular and there are four circular towers in its four angles in addition to a semicircular tower located on the west side of the valley. The castle was built between the 5th and 6th century of Hijri. Between the 10th and 12th century of Hijri, or during Safavi Empire, the castle was used specifically by the rulers of Kumes area (Kiani, 1986, p. 89).

5.9.3 Vehel Fort

In the north-west of Shahmirzad, there are relatively high mountains with low slopes hosting part of green gardens. Generally this fort was made of two circular towers as watchtowers and their stone walls. Most probably it had four towers in the past, but they had been destroyed gradually and nowadays only some part of the west wall and the towers are left. Vehel fort is also one of the symbols of the period before Islam (Mokhlesi, p. 30).

5.10 Architecture and Urban Design

Architecture works in Shahmirzad include native, traditional and modern architecture. Based on the impacts of climate, material types and economic activities, history and traditions, they show a comprehensive and full illustration of Iranian architecture to the ones interested to the architecture works. Types of materials used in the building of walls are rubble stone, brick and clay. Because of the cold weather during the winter, walls are built with the thickness of more than 60 centimeters to save the heat.



Figure 5.9

Also, since the rivers do flow in the streets and houses, the floor of the buildings is mostly located half a meter above the ground to keep the moisture away from the floor of the buildings. Residential units are built usually big, mostly in the shape of garden houses with south designs. They are in a way that more than three or four times of their house area are their gardens, which are a source of revenue for their owners. Areas of the residential units have an average between 800-1000 square meters. These units include vestibule, corridor, store, stable, oven, yard, garden, porch, kitchen, rooms etc. all located in a row to the side of the building. They also have large porches that are

located above the ground and with the view of the garden. The number of rooms in every residential unit depends on the number of people living there, ranging from five to ten. The rooms usually have lots of doors and windows, not only to relate all the parts of the house to each other, but also to be used for the ventilation purposes. In the past, they were using Korsi to heat these rooms. These rooms are usually large and their size ranges from 12 to 18 square meters. The inside contains some shelves decorated for different purposes.

Entrance of the rooms are mostly designed and built beautifully with different geometric shapes, representing the taste and tact of ancient architects. The entrance door of the houses is big and built by walnut wood due to its durability against weathering. Doors are decorated significantly and have separate door bells for male and female knockers which have different sounds as well so that residents would understand the gender of their guests (figure 5.10). In the past, residential units had usually only one floor and you may rarely see a two-floor unit there. Also, they most of them looked alike and the only difference was in the infrastructure and the free areas.



Figure 5.10

Of the other characteristics of architecture and urban design of Shahmirzad is dividing the surface water flow in the streets of the city to have an attractive and regular order.

The design is in a way that water flows to the even with the uneven ground of the different parts of the city while watering the arable lands and gardens. That means they have used the uneven ground to improve the design of the water system and structure. The design of water divisions are so attractive, accurate and based on criteria such as the size of the area and the route of streams such as sandy or muddy etc. The places where the water flow is forked out are called Barjam and the flow of water is changed based on the structure of these constructs. In some of the old houses, they used to build a room over the water route so that the water stream would pass through that room, which acted as a natural refrigerator and they would keep various kinds of fruits and food there. These streams and rivers which always were filled with water not only could be heard in the streets and houses but they also kept the city and houses cool and nice mostly during spring and summer.

These various styles of architecture spread around Shahmirzad and other parts of Iran could attract tourists who are really interested in seeing these antiques. Unfortunately there has been less attention to those important architectures in recent years in recent years because of using new and improved designs, which is changing the old texture of the city. We still don't know why these methods could not act as an inspiration for the new architects and engineers working in these areas.

5.11 Cultural and Religion Attractions

Cultural and religious attractions in Shahmirzad include mosques, shrines and pantheons which host religious ceremonies and services as well as traditional rituals such as new year celebrations.

5.11.1 Jami Mosque

There are 54 mosques in shahmirzad (Lari, 2005, p. 256). Some of them are as big as a 20-meters room. There are some inscription written on the walls of some of these places which are hard to read, containing the sayings of the rulers of Khar and Ghumes (Garmsar and Semnan). Also, there is a big mosque called Jami in the middle of Shahmirzad, which might date back to the end of third century of Hijri as the ruins and also the Inscription inside the mosque witnesses (Malek, 1960, 1961, p.4).

5.11.2 Shrines and Other Religious Places

Among touristic attractions of Iran are the holy shrines and religious places that attract lots of pilgrims from all over the world yearly.



Figure 5.11

A lot of people gather together in these places mostly during Moharam, Norouz holiday or at weekends. One of the most important shrines of Shahmirzad is Abdollah Shrine, Yahya Shrine, Mohammad Shrine and Sheikh's Tomb. Among these shrines, Sheikh's Tomb has got lots of attention and has attracted more visitors. This tomb, also known as Sheikh Sousan Ata, is located in the middle of the city near Ghaleh Sheikhi. According

to carvings on the door and the inscription on the tomb, which are in Kufi handwriting, it can be said that the building belongs to the Patriarch period.

5.11.3 Mourning Rituals

The mourning rituals in Shahmirzad attract around 20 thousand people yearly. In the end of 10-day Muharram, one may see the mourning ritual of Daste Ravi. During these 10 days, especially on Tasooa and Ashoora days, one may see the religious people coming in clusters from all around the country to Shahmirzad to attend this significant mourning ritual, which makes this small town very crowded.

5.12 Economic and Subsistence Attractions

Among the other distinguishable and significant attractions of Shahmirzad are economic activities such as harvesting plum and drying it and also harvesting walnut from the huge and old trees of the town. Gardening activities and harvesting the gardens can be divided into two parts according to timing. The first part is at the end of warm weather of August and the beginning of September, when the product be ripe and can be harvested. In harvesting and exporting this product, the role of women is more significant than of men. From the beginning of September, women start shaking the trees gently twice a week to gather the ripe fruits. Then they carry the fruits to their house so that they can peel them at the comfort of their houses. The peels are also collected so that to be boiled in a pot and therefore to be used as syrup to make Lavashak. They put the plums one by one on wired beds which are prepared for this purpose; these beds are put on the roof or hill tops side by side to be dried by the sun. Whenever plums are ready and dry, they are collected and put into tins to be sent to the market. This way of

subsistence is the dominant economic method of the farmers of the city as they export around 150 ton of plum every year.

The second part of gardening activities of the people in Shahmirzad begins with harvesting walnut. The harvest time of this product is usually in the middle of October. As the harvesting time of this product starts, the skillful farmers climb the huge and tall trees and w beat the long branches of the trees with special sticks while other people pick up the walnuts from the ground. These trees yield different amount of fruits based on their age. For example, the huge trees of the city produce around 40000 walnuts in a year while the small ones produce around 2000 walnuts. Due to the big size of the old trees and the difficulty of shedding the walnuts, people who do the shedding have a great share of the collected walnuts, usually 300 in every 1000 walnut. If on average every tree produces 20000 walnuts, for sure a great share belongs to the person who sheds the tree. Moreover, those who collect the walnuts under the trees also have a share of 1000 walnut each day. It is worth noted that the number of the trees in the city, both old and new, is estimated to be around 25000 to 30000. In general, the turnover of the production of each crop and horticultural crop is as follows:

Table 6.5: Turnover of the crop productions and horticultural crop productions of Shahmirzad in 2010 (ton/hectare)

Product Type	Dried Plum	Walnut	Apple	Pear	Apricot	Cherry and Sour Cherry	Almond	Wheat and Barley	Potato
Turnover in hectare-ton	5	2	20	9	13	7	1.7	5.1	15

Source: Shahmirzad Institute of Agriculture

5.13 Hospitality and Reception Operations

Around 45 reception and residence operations got their building permits from the ministry of culture (Cultural Heritage and Tourism Organization), but only a few are active now and others are whether in the process of building or just left inchoate because of economic problems. Some of these operations are private and some belong to the government.

5.13.1 Second Home

Although Shahmirzad has encountered problems due to the lack of enough hospitality operations, it is in a good condition because of second houses, built in the city, which are used by the travelers in summer times. A lot of travelers have built some villas in new and advanced architecture styles in this town to spend their holidays there and enjoy the nice weather of spring and summer. There are two types of second houses in Shahmirzad: the first type is the old ones which have the ancient and traditional architecture style and mostly are used by the citizens of Shahmirzad who now live in other cities. The second type is the houses built after the Islamic revolution and have a new and advanced architecture style and are used mostly by the citizens of other cities such as Semnan, Mazandaran and Tehran. Although it is possible to count the second houses as one of the touristic facilities of the city, these houses are built in green areas and the old part of the city. These houses not only do destroy the old texture and traditional architecture of this part of the city, but also they destroy the green and arable areas as well.

As the living style of the citizens of Shahmirzad is based on gardening and agriculture, it is possible to notice the nature in between the residential units of the city as well. Therefore gardening and production of crops have significant role in the economics of the citizens. Major agriculture products of Shahmirzad are plum, walnut, apple, pear, apricot, almond, cherry, sour cherry, wheat, barely, potato and forage plants such as hay. The information on the turnover of each agricultural product of Shahmirzad is stated in table 6 according to ton per hectare.

5.14 Accessibility Facilities

1. The road connection of Shahmirzad-Semnan-Tehran with the distance of 230 kilometers
2. The road connection of Shahmirzad-Sari with the distance of 170 kilometers
3. The road connection of Shahmirzad-Semnan-Firouzkuh with the distance of 95 kilometers
4. The road connection of Shahmirzad-Doab with the distance of 55 kilometers
5. The road connection of Shahmirzad-Semnan with the distance of 24 kilometers

Moreover, the allover railroad of Tehran-Mashhad which goes through the south part of Semnan has also brought an appropriate access to the city of Shahmirzad.

5.15 Seasonal Characteristics of Travelers

With the beginning of spring, a lot of travelers from the neighboring cities are coming to Shahmirzad to enjoy the natural attractions of the city. As the schools close in this town during the beginning of summer, the number of travelers who are visiting the city increases so that the town gets really crowded in June. It is possible to divide the summer travelers of Shahmirzad into some groups: the first group is the tourists who are

the citizens of nearby cities such as Semnan, Mahdihahr and Sorkheh who visit the city even in a short holiday like the weekends from the beginning of spring. This group is both residential tourists and short-term tourists although short-term tourism is superior to residential tourism based on the number of tourists who visit Shahmirzad.

The second group is basically Shahmirzad citizens who are living in other cities such as Tehran, Semnan and cities around the Caspian Sea. This group has gardens and arable areas in Shahmirzad and is visiting the city from mid-spring till mid-autumn, which is the harvest time. In the past, the houses belonged to this group in the old part of the town with traditional architecture styles.

The third group is the travelers who have small children and should wait for their school to finish in the end of spring and then start their trip to Shahmirzad. As mentioned before, summer travelers are different regarding the time they visit the town based on their distance from this city, their social problems etc. However, what is common among all the groups is their visiting in the summer. Therefore, the population of the city changes as the season changes. For example, according to the census in 1991, the population of the city in winter time was 5535 people, but this population increased a lot and reached 12000 in the summer. However, this population sometimes reaches 25000 to 30000. The town's population fluctuates between 8,000 and up to 40,000 people during summer (Iran Statistical Center).

5.16 Geographical Characteristics of Travelers' Origin

It is possible to divide the summer travelers of Shahmirzad into three groups according to the place they are coming: the first group is the ones who are travelling to Shahmirzad

although they have themselves famous touristic attractions in Iran. This group is coming to the city in spring and summer from the nearby Caspian Sea cities to enjoy the cool and mountain weather of Shahmirzad, whenever they find the time. The second group is the travelers who are running away from the unbearable hot weather of desert and also hectic city life. They visit Shahmirzad to enjoy the nice and mountain weather of the city and also its healthy and calm environment. These are travelers from the cities around the desert such as Tehran, Semnan and MahdiShahr. The third group of travelers is those short-term tourists who are visiting the city mostly during weekends. This group is visiting Shahmirzad from the nearby cities such as Semnan, Sorkheh and MahdiShahr. The number of visitors of this group is high in holidays and weekends. Based on a census in a summer holiday, there were 2148 vehicles with approximately 11660 travelers of this kind in the city (Sadafidarvish, 1995, p.152).

5.17 Facility Assessment

5.17.1 Supply Facilities

Supply facilities are actually attractions which can bring a kind of change to the permanent or usual residential place of people. Generally, touristic attractions of every place can have various kinds such as touristic attractions, transportation units, tourist service units, touristic routes, etc.; this means they can be both attractive to a specific person or a group of people. This is in line with the idea that in tourism industry touristic attractions are the most important elements and also they are national capital of each country.

As stated in chapter two, tourist facilities (attractions) of Shahmirzad are significant outlook; beautiful natural attractions such as appropriate climate, mountain location, springs, vegetation, wildlife, cave, geographical location; historical and memorial attractions such as castle, fort; beautiful and traditional architecture and urban design; cultural and religion attractions such as Jami Mosque, Sheikh Sousan Ata Tomb, and mourning rituals; its economic and subsistence attractions such as drying the plum and shedding walnuts from the huge and old trees.

5.17.2 Limitations in Supply

There is no parking area specified for vehicles, especially for tourist travelers, therefore the main and subsidiary streets around the main square, which is the center of entertainment for the travelers becomes the parking area for these vehicles. The sidewalks in the city are also narrow and would make problems for traffic flow of travelers. As a result, there is interference between walking people and vehicles moving in the city.

5.17.3 Limitations in Demand

Although Shahmirzad has different kinds of natural, historical, cultural etc. attractions and also there are a lot of tourist travelers visiting the town in spring and summer, unfortunately there are a lot of limitations regarding facilities, installations, and equipment such as residential, hospitality, and entertainment facilities for tourists in the city. As it was mentioned before, touristic and hospitality installations of Shahmirzad include two hotels and one hostel in addition to the hospitality installations of the city itself. However, it is worth noting that bathhouses and toilet services of the city are usually imperfect due to different reasons and therefore cannot be used by people. Hygiene facilities in this city are 0.9 square meters per capita compared with 1.7 square

meters in the whole country. This figure shows the lack of these kinds of facilities in Shahmirzad. However, an area of 20400 square meters is needed to deal with these installations for the 12000 population of the city in spring and summer seasons. Currently there is 4995 square meters available in the city, which means an area of 15405 square meters is needed for these installations. As there is not enough parking area, especially for the tourist vehicles, the main and subsidiaries streets around the main square of the city, which is a place for entertaining the travelers, has practically become the parking area for their cars. Thus, the necessity of constructing a parking area for tourist travelers, especially the ones who travel in the weekends, is more obvious.

5.18 Kuhestan Park

This park is located in the center of Shahmirzad, on a hill close to the main square of city and near the Sheikh Cheshmesar River. It is extended over an area of 225000 m² square and it was planned to build and equip with different facilities such as accommodation, restaurants, a theme park, zoo, museum, children's play ground, Cabana trap, cinema and parking lot to attract more tourists to the city. Both private and public sectors, the governor of the city, city council, as well other officials and local authorities, who are usually involved in decision making policies for similar initiatives and projects in small and big cities in the country, negotiated and studied this project for many years. It is worth noting that the city council, who are elected and represented by people's direct vote and are then a democratic institution at the heart of power circle in the city, play the most significant role in expressing people's voices and concerns. They are usually the ones who ask public ideas about any new initiative in the city. As far as this project was concerned, for instance, they sought people's opinions even for the type

of trees they liked to be planted, the type of materials they liked to be used as well as other similar issues. They are mostly concerned about applying people's views into perspective and try to narrow the gap between the government officials with the local people. Therefore, it could be said that this park was a case in which this local body represented the will of community to boost the tourism in the town and to serve the local people's will and power, something which lies at the heart of community-based tourism.

5.19 Conclusion

Although some residents of this city are working in industrial sectors, the city itself lacks any significant kind of factory of industry, and thus these people are working in texture industries situated within the distance of 6 kilometers from Shahmirzad (in MahdiShahr) and are travelling this distance every day. Therefore, the city has no industrial attraction as there is no specific potential for such purposes in the area though it is obvious that the existence of these kinds of industries in the area has environmental pollutions.

As Shahmirzad enjoys various kinds of tourist attractions, especially during spring and summer, as well as natural and beautiful sceneries, the number of tourists and travelers visiting the city for various periods of time is also increasing. It can be concluded that the city can have a tourist-service role for other touristic places in the country. Therefore, for economic interest of the city, a significant amount of investment is needed both in private and governmental sections, besides lots of advertisement. Based on various unique potentials of this city and recent activities such as creation of seasonal exhibitions and different cultural festivals (local games, music, products of traditional bazaars and crafts, and local traditions), CBT would be a great choice to follow. Kesht-o

sanat, kuhestan Park, seasonal exhibitions are some example of CBT in shahmirzad. The council of Shahmirzad provides some facilities in these projects to develop CBT in shahmirzad. For example, only 30000 people visited exhibitions in a couple of weeks.

Chapter 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES AND DATA ANALYSIS

The research methodology intended for this study is based on *triangulation* approach. ‘Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings. Since much social research is founded on the use of a single research method and as such may suffer from limitations associated with that method or from the specific application of it, triangulation offers the prospect of enhanced confidence’ (Bryman, nd). The qualitative research strategy will focus on interviews with the public sector officials at the district and regional levels; in addition, a survey questionnaire will be administered to the randomly selected community residents. This is highly beneficial to determine the compatibility of interview results with the community’s perception and attitude towards CBT. Another benefit of this method is to suggest guidelines for harmonization of officials and community in case of contradiction and conflict (process of cross-checking). Triangulation is sometimes used to refer to all instances in which two or more research methods are employed. Thus, it might be used to refer to multi-method research in which a quantitative and a qualitative research method are combined to provide a more complete set of findings than could be arrived at through the administration of one of the methods alone. The logic of triangulation has been discussed by Hammersley who argued that three approaches are at the heart of multi-strategy research. First, triangulation as it is about corroboration of one strategy’s findings with the other.

Secondly, facilitation which is using one method to aid the other strategy, and third, complementarily, which the two research strategies are employed in order that different aspects of an investigation can be dovetailed-constructed (as sited In Bryman, 2004). Thus, this study had employed a survey questionnaire and face-to-face interviews to fortify the confidence in the findings. The aforementioned approach was applied by Mason and Cheyne (2000), and by Nepal (2008) to investigate tourism development in two different case studies.

To gain a rich understanding of the context of the research, the thesis employs an investigation at the community level to bring together perspectives from the grass-root level, where little research on this topic has been done; involvement of multiple stakeholders that explores perspectives from a range of stakeholders (ordinary members of the community, decision-makers within the community, tourism professionals, tourism businesses and NGOs); and the use of on *triangulation* methods (survey, interviews, field observations, document analysis, and informal discussions). Such an approach improves the validity of the findings and successfully addresses the central research questions. Both quantitative and qualitative data generated from these techniques are analyzed, integrated and compared, and are used to complement each other. Based on the findings obtained from *triangulation* methods, this research concludes that local people wish to play a role in the tourism development decision-making process. Quantitative method based on survey questionnaires has been utilized and the data collected which analyzed through application of SPSS version 17 (<http://www.brothersoft.com/spss-268831.html>).

Phase1. Qualitative approach and analysis:

The first phase of the study employed a qualitative strategy; this process was administered through an in-depth interview with the officials in the city of Shahmirzad, Iran. Overall, 10 interviewees were involved in the process where 18 questions applied to extract responses/information. The aim was to gauge the views of the officials who were directly involved in decision-making process regarding tourism sector and eventually cross-checked against the results of the survey. As Deacon et al stressed (cited in Bryman, 2004, p. 275); ‘this is a complementary process being used to refer to a process of cross-checking findings deriving from both quantitative and qualitative research’. Most of the questions revolved around the significance of *tourism planning*, either proactively or reactively, and the nature of *community participation* (i.e., in the context of CBT) in the decision making process towards a tourism system that is planned, controlled, implemented, and monitored by the community’s participation and consent (Dredge and Jenkins, 2011). The aim of the interview revolved around dimensions that are demonstrated in the model (**refer to figure no in 4.1**). As it is indicated in the model, research focused on extraction of information to achieve exploring: i) if there have been a deliberate promotion of CBT to provide economic benefits to all the Shahmirzadians? ii) To reveal an insight for tourists into Shahmirzad’s culture and challenge their assumptions and perceptions; iii) to reveal whether CBT is applying mechanisms to sustainably protect and advance Shahmirzad’s culture and environment? iv). To encourage tourists to engage in activities to experience aspects of Shahmirzad’s way of life (e.g., volunteer tourism). Sampling the interviewees was limited to 10 respondents who were approachable and informative regarding the topic

(i.e., nonprobability sampling) (Tansey, 2007). The informants were municipality employees with different positions, academicians who are native and familiar with the study site, as well as, members of chamber of commerce. Respondent's answers were recorded on a tape. Later transcribed and reviewed for the incidents of the themes that focused through the interview. Through a coding process (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007), the relevant responses to the main themes identified and tabulated (table 6.1). Then after the careful assessment of the responses, the core categories were identified based on an issue which all other categories are integrated. The first question's focal point was to see if the officials have any relevant idea about 'tourism planning'. The responses by far revealed that respondents' view of tourism planning formulated into number of the tourists that should be attracted to the area. The views in this regard have remained myopic (Bates, 2006; Burns, 1999) and market oriented which was dominant in most of the destinations in the early days of mass tourism expansion. Planning tourism interpreted as how to louver as many tourists as possible, or how to enhance the business of tourism rather than a carefully studied and managed sustainable tourism system with the community's consent. Regarding the 'participatory' involvement, respondents expressed their support. This is not unusual as participation is a process which is easier said than done. The issue is how to provide for and design a mechanism to involve community (Hanna, 2005; White, 2001) in the decision making process while a centralized system is in place and most of the decisions are made outside community domain. When the decisions are made centrally, participation will lose its meaning locally. Interestingly enough, when respondents asked how and in what way community can become a participant, answers were haphazard and meaningless at best. For example respondent X1 replied:

Each society has its own tourism attractions that should be consulted with the ones having enough knowledge in the tourism industry. For example: establishing exhibitions, hotels, water parks and etc.

Respondents X2 simply said:

I have no idea.

Among all the respondents to this question, only one respondent made a relevant comment by saying:

The level of awareness of people should be increased by the ones working on the plan. This is possible only by holding some meetings.

Nevertheless, majority of the respondents agreed that CBT is an interesting concept. To most of them it sounded a positive idea. However, it has not gone beyond remaining simply an idea. To involve community in the process of decision making relevant to tourism sector, certain specific processes are necessary. These processes require a social and political environment conducive to such process. Interview revealed that such environment is absent in the case of Shahmirzad. As Hanna (2005, p. 29) noted: ‘the central challenge for planners [public officials] is to ensure that while the process of decision making is open and inclusive and the community’s power to decide is wide-ranging, the decisions are ultimately pragmatic and attainable’. When respondents were asked to express their opinions about decentralization and centralization of decision making process regarding tourism planning, the outcome was mixed. Some believed that decentralization is conducive to community participation. However, most of the respondents were reluctant to give an answer and some believed a centralized system is better.

Respondent X3 replied:

I agree. Because if the system is centralized on a specific group of people, only that group can benefit from the plan and not anyone else.

And/or, X4 expressed that:

CBT is based on the community and the important role of community is more obvious than of the government.

Nevertheless, these expressions are mostly verbal gestures which in Garrod's (2004 , P. 10) '... The term could imply 'no more than a fig leaf of political correctness, behind which all can carry on as before'. Community participation to be practiced and produce tangible outcome requires political 'empowerment'. Political empowerment of the local people to be realized and materialized, there must be a particular a particular social and political environment. As Garrod (2003, p. 11) noted: 'A local community is politically empowered when diverse interest groups, including the traditionally disenfranchised groups (such as young people and the poor) are able to contribute effectively to the planning and management process. Political empowerment is best achieved when power is decentralized from the national to the local level'. None of the respondents made any clarification about these prerequisites towards community involvement in the context of CBT. Therefore, implementation of CBT is questionable.

Majority of the respondents were aware that CBT is a positive movement and beneficial; however, they lacked the knowledge about specific benefits that CBT will have in relation to economic, environment, culture, skill, influence, and infrastructural development (Simpson, 2008). In fact, lack of understanding of community needs has been associated with government officials, private sector and NGOs in some cases (Simpson, 2008).

When the respondents asked to identify the problems that hinder the CBT, majority of them blamed government and tourism authorities. This is what Simpson (2008) explored in similar case.

Regarding this issue, respondent X5 expressed that:

Yes. The government is not cooperating well and the barriers existing in the administrative units make it difficult for the communities to do what they expect and therefore prevent the society from progressing.

Respondent X6 revealed that:

Yes. The authorities are not paying much attention to the area and therefore are not helping the investors to improve the tourism sector in Shahmirzad.

Respondent X 7 said:

The rules and regulation imposed to the area regarding the tourism sector not only is of no assistance to the industry, but also bring so much problems for the ones interested in improving it or investing in it.

Another important revelation that this phase revealed is that most of the tourism authorities are not aware and do not possess enough knowledge about tourism as a social force with multiple dimensions. The views on tourism is parochial at best and very much market oriented where the emphasis is on increasing the number of tourists without having a long term plan based on sustainable approach. It has been proven in many cases that tourism officials and planners can play a significant role in involving stakeholders in the process of planning and its implementation. The CBT is no exception. However, there are many cases including Shahmirzad where authorities make decisions which stifle the participation (Burby, 2003).

Overall, respondents were unanimous about the CBT as an inclusive and dialogic process. This is in line with similar studies where officials believed in sustainable tourism development but did not act upon making it a reality (Dodds, 2007).

When it was asked about residents' good will and cooperation in contributing to the realization of CBT, respondents failed to verify this. This is very much the case as it would have been impossible to demonstrate a real mechanism in place. Respondents did also agree that for CBT to become a reality, government's support and a democratic environment are essential. For further depiction of the results, refer to table 6.1 the result of the qualitative research has adhered to the criteria of validity, reliability, and objectivity of the research based on Trochim (2006) who has offered an alternative to methods applied in quantitative approach. According to his elaboration four criteria has been adhered to which are: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The *credibility* criteria involve establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research. Since from this perspective, the purpose of qualitative research is to describe or understand the phenomena of interest from the participant's eyes, the participants are the only ones who can legitimately judge the credibility of the results. *Transferability* refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings. *Dependability* is in reference to reliability which is based on the assumption of repeatability or repeatability. Qualitative research tends to assume that each researcher brings a unique perspective to the study. *Confirmability* refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others. There are a number of strategies for enhancing confirmability. The researcher can document the procedures for checking and rechecking the data throughout the study (Trochim, 2006).

Table 6.1 Qualitative Data Analysis matrix

		ITP	MPP	IPP	CSG	RIC	CJG	DCG	CSS	CCD	CPG	total
Respondent 1	High	x			x	x						3
	Medium		x	x			x	x	x		x	6
	Low									x		1
Respondent 2	High		x				x		x	x		4
	Medium	x				x		x			x	4
	Low			x	x							2
Respondent 3	High	x		x		x		x	x			5
	Medium		x		x		x					3
	Low									x	x	2
Respondent 4	High											0
	Medium	x			x			x	x			4
	Low		x	x		x	x			x	x	6
Respondent 5	High				x			x				2
	Medium	x		x								2
	Low		x			x	x		x	x	x	6
Respondent 6	High	x	x	x		x		x	x	x		7
	Medium				x		x				x	3
	Low											0
Respondent 7	High	x				x			x	x	x	5
	Medium		x	x	x		x	x				5
	Low											0
Respondent 8	High	x		x	x	x	x		x		x	7
	Medium		x							x		2
	Low							x				1
Respondent 9	High	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	7
	Medium		x	x								2
	Low				x							1
Respondent10	High	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	8
	Medium				x					x		2
	Low											0

ITP: Clear concept of 'tourism planning'.
MPP: Mechanisms for public participation.
IPP: public participation in place.
CSG: CBT based on smart growth (integrating sectors).
RIC: Role of community involvement in designing CBT as a deliberate plan.
CJG : CBT and the role of government.
DCG: Degree of cooperation, goodwill.
CSS: CBT in the context of Shahmirzad's strength and weaknesses.
CCD :CBT as a cut-and-dry model (i.e., one size fits all?).
CPG: CBT as a form of governance efforts.

Phase2. Quantitative approach and analysis

Addition of the quantitative method to the study is based on perception that the research methods do not have to be contradictory which is embedded in animosity between two methods of inquiry. They are rather different tools based on the shared standards relevant to social inquiry (Brady & Collier, 2010). Therefore, this study tried to benefit from both methods as complementary to each other in achieving causal inferences relevant to the study site. As Tarrow (2010, p. 105) noted: ‘framing qualitative research within quantitative profile’ which he meant ‘...focusing on the qualitative data, using a systematic quantitative database as a frame within which the qualitative analysis is carried out’ (Tarrow, 2010, p. 105). They further argued by saying ‘putting qualitative flesh on quantitative bone’, which they elaborated on how quantitative data can be used as a point of departure for qualitative research and vice versa.

To complete this phase of the research, a survey questionnaire was designed based on the literature on CBT and cases that have applied planning processes towards implementation of CBT (Mathie & Cunningham, 2003; Aref, 2011; Zapata and Hall, 2011; Sebele, 2010; Grybovich and Hafermann, 2010; Beirman, 2006). A random /probability sampling was administered. To achieve this, telephone directory was used to randomly pick the subjects. The sample is mainly male as the telephone numbers are registered to the male member of the households and businesses. In the case of Iran, and remote city of Shahmirzad, it is inconvenience to contact female members for the information and this is not a norm in this kind of environment. Despite the changes, in most of the traditional Islamic societies ‘patriarchy and its legacy, legitimated in the name of religion, remains alive in various Muslim countries although it also being progressively challenged on many levels’ (<http://talenttuning.com/knowledge/open->

section/women-face-differing-conditions-in-muslim-countries.html). Therefore, the sample does not contain female subject.

About 280 questionnaires were distributed to the randomly selected subjects throughout the city. Of these, 200 were returned which were subjected to analysis. However, one survey questionnaire item omitted from the analysis for lack of clarity in its responses (valid N=199). This is a reasonable number of returned survey item of 72%. Each questionnaire form contained 46 questions which the responses were assessed based on Likert scale –essentially a multiple indicator – on a 5-point scale referring to frequency and evaluation ranging from ‘strongly disagree, disagree, undecided or neutral (neutrality), agree, and strongly agree’. The questionnaire items were translated to Persian (Farsi) – the native language of residents in the study site. The questionnaire also contained a demographic section to identify the age group of the samples including questions on education, age, income, tenure in tourism activities (see also table 6.2). This section labeled part A where question on income was answered ‘yes’ or ‘no’ to clarify if the respondent’s involvement in tourism sector was direct or indirect. Majority of the respondents were in the age category of (31-40) with the mean (2.66). Education wise, respondents mainly were university graduates or pursuing a university degree. This is not unusual since the establishment of Islamic Azad University throughout Iran and accessibility of higher education by the public (mean of 3.78) (<http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ceducom/103/>). The result for direct and indirect involvement in tourism activities produced a mean of (1.64) and (2.48) respectively. This is again can be easily postulated as the majority in the sample group indirectly involved in tourism

Table 6.2 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Demographic characteristics	respondents	%	n
AGE	0-15	5.5	200
	16-30	49.5	200
	31-40	24.5	200
	41-55	14.5	200
	more than 55	6.0	200
	total	100	
EDUCATION	No Diploma	4.5	200
	High School Student	11.5	200
	High School Graduate	22.0	200
	University Student	25.0	200
	University Graduate	37.0	200
	total	100	
INCOME1	Income relates to tourism	36.0	200
	Income has no relation to tourism	64.0	200
	total	100	
INCOME2	Below 300	35.5	200
	300-400	20.0	200
	400-600	19.0	200
	600-1000	11.5	200
	above 1000	14.0	200
	total	100	
TENURE	Less than one year	66.5	200
	2-4	16.5	200
	4-6	9.0	200
	more than 6	8.0	200
	total	100	

-Activities, which is the case in many destinations

(<http://epoka.edu.al/new/icme/26.pdf><http://epoka.edu.al/new/icme/26.pdf>).

Data analysis revealed that tenure in tourism was not very high (mean of 1.58), which is plausible as tourism sector is recently coming to life in Iran. In addition, the seasonality factor is also an assumption for such low tenure position (see also table 6.2). Part B of the survey questionnaire contained 46 items where the result produced a bell shape curve for the mean and standard deviation which is again plausible because most of the questions generated a response with emphasis on community members' involvement in tourism sector, as well as, tourism sector is a home grown phenomenon without outside investment and management. This is typical of Iran's political economy which is devoid of foreign investment in general and in tourism in particular. This was also the result of the interview questions where the respondents verified tourism as a home grown activity with community's main input in the operation and management (i.e., cross checking two approaches). At any rate, the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics which are outcomes of both approaches revealed the estimation of parameters in a way where the measure of central tendency and measure of spread indicated by standard deviation and mean (see also table of descriptive statistics, table6.3). Except for question 43 and 46, the central tendency is dominant for the whole sample (i.e. lack of variation). However, in question 43 and 46 the degree of spread is high (mean of 2.86 and 4.21 respectively), with variance of 1.414 and 0.511 respectively. The variance is dramatic because respondents do not have a desire to see government involving in tourism system operation which can bypass the community. Furthermore, they also see tourism sector as a success story despite lack of deliberate CBT. Again, refer to table on descriptive

Table 6.3 Descriptive Statistics

questions	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
NO1	200	3.4800	.8504	.723
NO2	200	3.1500	1.1016	1.214
NO3	200	3.0650	1.0894	1.187
NO4	200	3.2750	1.0221	1.045
NO5	200	3.3450	1.0543	1.112
NO6	200	3.0900	1.0991	1.208
NO7	200	3.8600	.8684	.754
NO8	200	3.9150	.9656	.932
NO9	200	3.4950	1.0224	1.045
NO10	200	3.7000	.9243	.854
NO11	200	3.6600	.9742	.949
NO12	200	3.6350	.8517	.725
NO13	200	3.1100	1.0311	1.063
N14	200	3.9500	.9707	.942
N15	200	3.8100	.9791	.959
N16	200	3.4950	1.0224	1.045
N17	200	3.6750	.9507	.904
N18	200	3.6300	1.0812	1.169
N19	200	3.3700	.8406	.707
N20	200	3.5400	.9014	.812
N21	200	3.6550	.9111	.830
N22	200	3.6450	.9970	.994
N23	200	3.8200	.9338	.872
N24	200	3.8550	.9372	.878
N25	200	3.5800	.8645	.747
N26	200	3.6850	.8999	.810
N27	200	3.9950	.8051	.648
N28	200	3.5350	.8380	.702
N29	200	3.1200	1.0636	1.131
N30	200	3.8350	.7352	.540
N31	200	3.6600	.8822	.778
N32	200	3.2950	1.0834	1.174
N33	200	3.7800	.8216	.675
N34	200	3.7050	.9232	.852
N35	200	3.5550	.9652	.932
N36	200	3.8950	.8705	.758
N37	200	3.6750	.8678	.753
N38	200	3.1200	1.1499	1.322
N39	200	3.8000	.7700	.593
N40	200	3.9650	.7981	.637
N41	200	3.7550	.8995	.809

N42	199	3.3819	.9347	.874
N43	200	2.8650	1.1891	1.414
N44	200	3.4250	.9321	.869
N45	200	3.8750	.8079	.653
N46	200	4.2150	.7151	.511
Valid N (listwise)	199			

Statistics (table 6.3). For the full frequency of the results of the survey, refer to appendix A.

Data analysis also revealed the internal reliability of the indicators that made up the scale/index is in a consistent manner, meaning, Confident interval for the Cronbach's Alpha value is 0.95 percent, which is a validation of reliability coefficients. This is also obvious in relation to standard deviation where almost a bell shape curve can be generated as the variation from the grand mean is minimal. Overall, the quantitative approach guided by objectives of the research which is depicted in the model (see figure6.1).

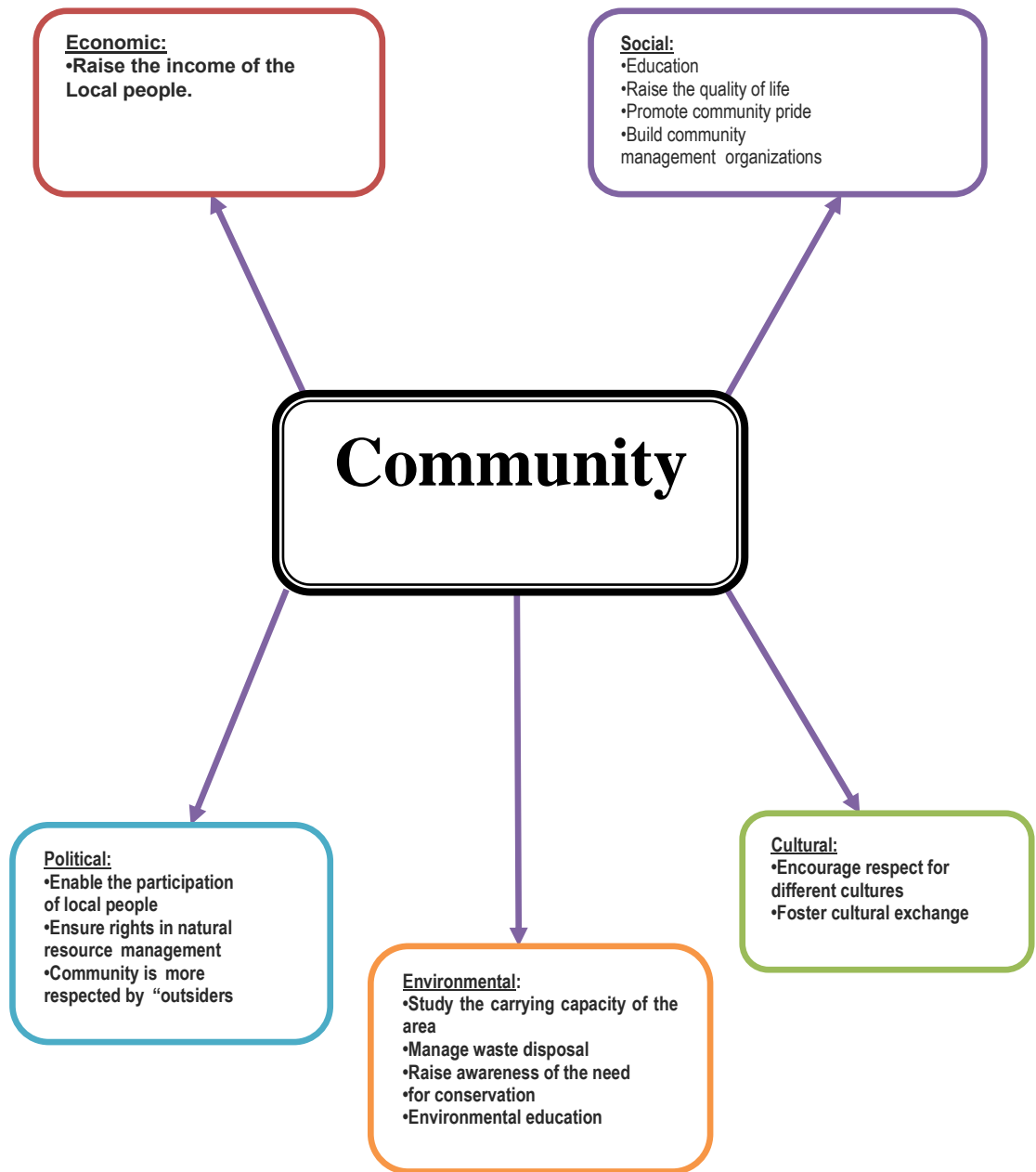


Figure 6.1 Five principles of CBT. Adopted from Hausler (2005).

A hypothesized assumption was that respondents with direct involvement in tourism activities and higher tenure duration will be more supportive of CBT than those with indirect involvement in tourism. To clarify this, a one-way ANOVA (Analysis of variance) statistics for Income 1 and Income 2 in relation to study questions was used. The ANOVA results demonstrated that there are not significant differences ($P \geq 0.05$) between two groups when it comes to their support for CBT. For this purpose, F test was used, which is common in ANOVA, to compare the means of the groups (within the group and between the groups). See also table A.2 Appendix A. the test is based on a comparison of the variance due to the between-groups variability with the within-group variability. Therefore, assumption is correct as there are no mean differences between groups in the population.

6.1 Triangulation and cross-checking

Triangulation is used in bringing together different sources of information to converge or conform to one interpretation. With the convergence of information from different sources (survey, interviews and observations), settings and investigators, the researcher can make a powerful argument that the interpretation is more credible (www.learningdomain.com/Chapter2.Methods.QR.doc).

When the outcomes of the data analysis based on two methods are compared, an interesting finding appeared. First, both the survey and interview findings revealed that community has a positive perception of tourism development despite lack of understanding the nature of tourism and its dynamism. Secondly, both methods revealed that government, to a large extent, has a passive attitude towards tourism, and this

causes a void regarding a proactive planning process. Nonetheless, both methods identified the need for government's active involvement in supporting tourism development. CBT has remained an unknown perspective; therefore, there is a measurable lack of understanding about this type of planning philosophy. A great degree of misinterpretation and misunderstanding appears to be the case when it comes to confusion over the real meaning and dynamism of CBT according to both analyses.

6.2 Findings

A number of questions and challenges have been explored through this research. These can be summarized as follows:

- There's an obvious desire to involve in tourism and Shahmirzadians have a positive view of tourism altogether; however, despite community's involvement, a deliberate CBT strategy is missing.
- The lack of harmony and compatibility between officials and community over CBT and its nature is obvious. Officials have expressed that government has not proactively involved in an active partnership with the community towards a strategic CBT.
- Fostering an endogenous process is highly essential in order for CBT to take hold. It should be a community –driven process indeed. The research explored that outsiders are not playing that much of important role; this by itself is a good sign that people have the opportunity to determine their form of tourism within the community's capacity. This means the degree of dependency is also low.
- The study has not been able to elaborate on the nature of participation in terms of the extension of 'inclusiveness'. Who is excluded from the CBT is a question. Of

particular concern are the opportunities for women and the opportunities for lower-caste or –class groups to build confidence and ‘occupy the space’ for participation. Nevertheless, a CBT approach can be applied in work with the most disadvantaged within the community along with or separate from a more comprehensive community effort. It is also a mobilizing strategy that can be complemented by the kind of civic education associated with rights-based approaches to development.

- Despite the community’s participation in the process, CBT has not been defined nor has it been given a timely space to flourish. Just because the community is part of the tourism system that does not mean CBT is in place. Based on the definition of the CBT, as it is elaborated in the text, government should be an equal partner in formation of this process rather than dictating the process.
- The research revealed that there is a spontaneous process due to attractions and location. There is no sign of any community leadership.
- An obvious outcome, as a plausible assumption, is that CBT in shahmirzad must have social, cultural, economic, political and environmental aims for the community. Whether these objectives are in line with the tourism sector’s long term strategy is a question. Without CBT, it is highly unlikely these aims can be reformulated and processes to achieve them can be clarified.

6.3 pilot Study

A pilot study was applied and intention has been to measure the level of understanding of the topic to be discussed. Piloting is desirable as it is helping the researcher to ensure the instruments are operating properly and for what they are intended for. Overall, the

functions of instruments are at stake. This is also useful to identify questions that might make the respondents to feel uncomfortable. The clarity of the questions are also important in generating the flow of answers by the respondents.

From the result of the pilot study there was no need to change or exclude any issue of the discussion. However, the main aim of the pilot study was to ensure that issues of discussion are well known topics to the different layers of the industry/government where the interview is going to be conducted. Pilot study was also helpful to the researcher to measure the time needed for conducting interview with each respondent. Using this method the researcher was able to inform selected interviewees of the needed time-limit to complete the interview.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Conclusion and Discussion

With more communities turning to tourism in search for diversification and innovation, tourism planners often find themselves responsible for designing and implementing complex value-based processes. While some processes remain rather simple, having to address fewer issues, others become complex as power and political dynamics change and stakes in the process rise. Understanding the intricacies of these processes has great potential to assist practicing planners in their effort to engage broader constituencies in the processes of public decision making. As the tourism literature points out, the question is not whether to plan or not to plan, but what type of tourism planning should be done (Choy, 1991); moreover, the success of tourism plans is directly related to broad and representative resident participation in the planning and development of tourism projects (Cooke, 1982). If this is the case, both tourism and community development should carefully examine best practices of participatory community planning and decision making. The example of this small remote community in Shahmirzad not only showcases how going “above and beyond” traditional planning approaches can help capitalize on the power of community planning, but also demonstrates deliberative

democracy in practice. Although we do not conclude this study with a success recipe, we nevertheless hope that it will facilitate reflection and support communities and planners consider the range of possibilities deliberative democracy provides to the future of tourism and community development. The empirical research revealed that development of tourism requires a slow process of community-building, particularly when conventional stakeholders do not view tourism as a productive activity. For example, a reorientation of the economic base to give tourism a higher profile would require that scattered and diverse local interests pull together to implement changes. The CBT in places like Shahmirzad, which is embedded in a centralized and to some extent authoritarian political culture, must go beyond a lip service. It needs to re-evaluate its past and come to terms with the realities of the present. The tourism phenomenon is not just an economic way of life, but is also a social force. Such a social force requires a social participation of the whole community without remaining ignorance to the nature of community planning. As noted by Munro et al (2010, p. 514) ‘The empirical research revealed that development of tourism requires a slow process of community-building, particularly when conventional stakeholders do not view tourism as a productive activity. For example, a reorientation of the economic base to give tourism a higher profile would require that scattered and diverse local interests pull together to implement changes’.

7.2 Contributions of the study

This study has discussed the significant role of CBT for tourism development. Some main findings have been unearthed. First, lack of harmony in CBT is an important barrier for tourism development in the area (Shahmirzad). Second, lack of (or low)

participation in CBT can be a factor for the underdevelopment of tourism industry in the local communities of Shahmirzad. The major barrier is that members of the communities have restricted access to decision-making. This implies that they lack a sense of ownership with regard to tourism. As a result, local communities in Shahmirzad are not able of the prevailing social, political and economic structures in Iran, which have prevented communities from achieving a higher level of development. “Several studies reveal that without creating opportunities for local people to take part in the decision-making process, it would be very difficult for local communities to get adequate benefits from tourism development (Clancy, 1999; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 1998)”. CBT in Shahmirzad can become the most economic activity by applying specific strategies planning at local and international levels to tackle these barriers. both tourism and community development should carefully examine best practices of participatory community planning and decision making.

The benefits of CBT are :creation of jobs, develop backward linkages with agriculture and gardening, create opportunities for young people and women, encourage local entrepreneurial activity, and improve the quality of life of the poor through funding basic utilities, training and education(de Kadt, 1979,pp.11–12).

7.3 Limitations of the study

As in all research, this study has some limitations. Prominent among these is the difficulty of convincing officials to be available and provide time for an interview. In order to achieve an evaluation/examination of policy and planning processes, it is essential for institutions/organizations, especially in public sector, to be cooperative and

freely express their views in terms of critical issues. Obviously, a degree of intimidation can be detected on the part of respondents. This can be exacerbated by the reluctance to share information. These limitations require special skill to overcome. However, being a native to the case study situation, this study tried to overcome it to some degree. In the case of Iran, due to its peculiar political economy structure, the respondents are not necessarily comfortable in expressing their deep down feeling regarding the issue.

The concept of community tourism is for tourists to respect and understand the environmental and social concerns of Shahmirzad. The concept also includes an aspect of volunteer tourism. The involvement of a large numbers of Shahmirzad in the tourism industry would contribute to the reduction of crime and poverty but in this study we didn't ask tourists' idea and there is not any involvement of tourists/traveler, so need to more research from tourists' perspective. An important limitation in this study is the lack of female idea and participation in our research. In the case of Iran, and remote city of Shahmirzad, it is inconvenience to contact female members for the information and this is not a norm in this kind of environment. Despite the changes, in most of the traditional Islamic societies 'patriarchy and its legacy, legitimated in the name of religion, remains alive in various Muslim countries although it also being progressively challenged on many levels' (<http://talenttuning.com/knowledge/open-section/women-face-differing-conditions-in-muslim-countries.html>). Therefore, the sample does not contain female subject.

7.4 Recommendations for further research

Requires a professional marketing approach to ensure that community based tourism is regarded as an option for visitors to Shahmirzad. Apart from the important issue of

establishing marketing connections with travel distributors and wholesalers in source markets.

“Future research on CBT impacts might adopt a more holistic vision by focusing both on the monitoring of benefits from a community-based perspective and on the synergies of CBT with other productive sectors to which tourism complements and strengthens such as agriculture/gardening. Although in terms of employment and income, the impact of CBT was still low, regarding the strengthening of social and cultural capital for women, young people, and the community are significant and might justify by themselves the investments made by donors, NGOs, and the communities, when they are sustained and embedded in the local societies”(Zapata ,Hall &Lindo,2011).

Future research should address new and effective methods to assess the role of CBT to induce socio-economic development in CBT business in Shahmirzad.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

**EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT
NORTH CYPRUS.**

Dear Respondent

As part of my M.S. research/thesis at the Eastern Mediterranean University, school of tourism and hospitality management in North Cyprus, I am conducting a survey that investigates the planning processes of CBT (community based tourism) in Shahmirzad, Iran. The purpose of the survey is to explore resident's perception and their degree of involvement in the process of CBT in respect of social, economic, and environmental impacts, as well as, the level of participation. The result of this research will be highly beneficial for enhancing CBT projects through participative planning and realization of sustainable tourism in Shahmirzad. Furthermore, the result of this research will provide ample information for the public sector and policy makers. I will appreciate it if you could complete this following questionnaire. Any information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. In any written reports or publications, no one will be identified. This is solely for a research purpose and you do not need to reveal your name. If you have any question about this research, I will be happy to answer and explain.

Phone +98 938 754 8993- +90 533 845 4640

Email: esmaeil_mr@yahoo.com

Thank you very much for your cooperation.
Esmaeil Khaksar Shahmirzadi (researcher)
Eastern Mediterranean University.

PART A

For statistical purposes only. Place a tick where appropriate:

1. Age.....

- a) 0-15
- b) 16-30
- c) 31-40
- d) 41-55
- e) More than 55.

2. Acquired educational level:

- a) No diploma
- b) High school student
- c) High school graduate
- d) University student
- e) University graduate

3. Does your income depend upon tourism direct or indirect activities?

Yes

No

4. Your approximate monthly income in Dollars:

Below 300 300-400 400-600 600-1000

Above 1000

5. years of involvement in tourism business or activities:

Less than 1 year 2-4 4-6 more than 6

PART B

For each of the statements below, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by placing a tick in the appropriate box.

The response scale is as follows:

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Undecided or Neutral
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

1) Tourism planning integrated into comprehensive community planning process

1 2 3 4 5

2) Community has been actively participated in the tourism planning process

1 2 3 4 5

3) Tourism development is going out of control

1 2 3 4 5

4) There have been proactive stance/guidelines for potential developers regarding

CBT

1 2 3 4 5

5) There has been an innovative practice to develop CBT within a sustainable framework.

1 2 3 4 5

6) CBT is the only significant economic activity

1 2 3 4 5

7) CBT has raised the income of local people

1 2 3 4 5

8) CBT is an opportunity for social development

1 2 3 4 5

9) CBT has contributed to enhanced level of education

1 2 3 4 5

10) CBT has raised the quality of life

1 2 3 4 5

11) CBT has raised the community pride

1 2 3 4 5

12) CBT has contributed to the building of community management organizations

1 2 3 4 5

13) The tourism development has brought various social problems

1 2 3 4 5

14) CBT is an opportunity for economic development

1 2 3 4 5

15) CBT has enabled the participation of local people

1 2 3 4 5

16) CBT has ensured rights in natural resource management

1 2 3 4 5

17) CBT has gained more respect for the community by outsiders

1 2 3 4 5

18) CBT has contributed/encouraged environmental conservation

1 2 3 4 5

19) CBT established carrying capacity analysis as a policy tool

1 2 3 4 5

20) CBT has encouraged better waste management

1 2 3 4 5

21) CBT has raised awareness of the need for conservation

1 2 3 4 5

22) CBT has contributed to the environmental education

1 2 3 4 5

23) CBT has encouraged respect for different cultures

1 2 3 4 5

24) CBT has fostered cultural exchange

1 2 3 4 5

25) The tourism planning is a community led enterprise

1 2 3 4 5

26) The tourism development is based on a partnership between community and governmental institutions

1 2 3 4 5

27) Residents participation in the planning process is significant for the success of CBT

1 2 3 4 5

28) Local control over policy decision making is a path to sustainability

1 2 3 4 5

29) The present tourism system is sustainable and adheres to sustainability principles

1 2 3 4 5

30) Participatory planning is a way to interaction within the community; it contributes to community cohesion

1 2 3 4 5

31) The tourism development is based on partnership between private, public, and non-profit organizations

1 2 3 4 5

32) Government has contributed to tourism development by providing financial support for community initiatives

1 2 3 4 5

33) The tourism development is highly reliant on community initiatives

1 2 3 4 5

34) CBT is a community effort that encompasses citizen involvement, utilizing local resources for solving issues of local concerns

1 2 3 4 5

35) Regarding tourism development, residents do often meet for cooperation on issues

1 2 3 4 5

36) The tourism development confronts many obstacles

1 2 3 4 5

37) CBT is within the local capacity and place-based strategies

1 2 3 4 5

38) CBT is imposed on you from elsewhere as cut-and-dry model

1 2 3 4 5

39) CBT as a service industry is a lucrative method for creating unique local identity

1 2 3 4 5

40) CBT is a way for regeneration of Shahmirzad through capitalizing on local assets, individuals, associations and institutions, harnessing them for local development purpose

1 2 3 4 5

41) The tourism development in Shahmirzad is focused on economic growth and marketing (traditional approach) instead of community input

1 2 3 4 5

42) The tourism development is a dialogic process and inclusive based on public judgment

1 2 3 4 5

43) CBT is the job of government and community has nothing to do with its planning and management

1 2 3 4 5

44) Decentralized system of decision making is key to successful CBT

1 2 3 4 5

45) The tourism development has been a proactive process with community's full participation

1 2 3 4 5

46) Planning for tourism development in Shahmirzad is a success story for the community

1 2 3 4 5

Thank you very much for your time and contribution.

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
AGE	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.6600	.9947	.989
EDUCATIO	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7850	1.1899	1.416
INCOME1	200	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.6400	.4812	.232
INCOME2	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.4850	1.4283	2.040
TENURE	200	3.00	1.00	4.00	1.5850	.9525	.907
NO1	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4800	.8504	.723
NO2	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1500	1.1016	1.214
NO3	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0650	1.0894	1.187
NO4	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2750	1.0221	1.045
NO5	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3450	1.0543	1.112
NO6	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.0900	1.0991	1.208
NO7	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8600	.8684	.754
NO8	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.9150	.9656	.932
NO9	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4950	1.0224	1.045
NO10	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7000	.9243	.854
NO11	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6600	.9742	.949
NO12	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6350	.8517	.725
NO13	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1100	1.0311	1.063
N14	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.9500	.9707	.942
N15	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8100	.9791	.959
N16	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4950	1.0224	1.045
N17	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6750	.9507	.904
N18	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6300	1.0812	1.169
N19	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3700	.8406	.707

N20	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5400	.9014	.812	
N21	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6550	.9111	.830	
N22	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6450	.9970	.994	
N23	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8200	.9338	.872	
N24	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8550	.9372	.878	
N25	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5800	.8645	.747	
N26	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6850	.8999	.810	
N27	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.9950	.8051	.648	
N28	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5350	.8380	.702	
N29	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1200	1.0636	1.131	
N30	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8350	.7352	.540	
N31	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6600	.8822	.778	
N32	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.2950	1.0834	1.174	
N33	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7800	.8216	.675	
N34	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7050	.9232	.852	
N35	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.5550	.9652	.932	
N36	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8950	.8705	.758	
N37	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.6750	.8678	.753	
N38	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.1200	1.1499	1.322	
N39	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8000	.7700	.593	
N40	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.9650	.7981	.637	
N41	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.7550	.8995	.809	
N42	199	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.3819	.9347	.874	
N43	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	2.8650	1.1891	1.414	
N44	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.4250	.9321	.869	
N45	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.8750	.8079	.653	
N46	200	4.00	1.00	5.00	4.2150	.7151	.511	

Valid N (listwise)	199							
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Frequency Table

AGE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-15	11	5.5	5.5	5.5
	16-30	99	49.5	49.5	55.0
	31-40	49	24.5	24.5	79.5
	41-55	29	14.5	14.5	94.0
	more than 55	12	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

EDUCATION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Diploma	9	4.5	4.5	4.5
	High School Student	23	11.5	11.5	16.0
	High School Graduate	44	22.0	22.0	38.0
	University Student	50	25.0	25.0	63.0
	University Graduate	74	37.0	37.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

INCOME1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid	Cumulative
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			Percent	Percent
Valid	Income relates to tourism	72	36.0	36.0
	Income has no relation to tourism	128	64.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0

INCOME2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below 300	71	35.5	35.5	35.5
	300-400	40	20.0	20.0	55.5
	400-600	38	19.0	19.0	74.5
	600-1000	23	11.5	11.5	86.0
	above 1000	28	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

TENURE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than one year	133	66.5	66.5	66.5
	2-4	33	16.5	16.5	83.0
	4-6	18	9.0	9.0	92.0
	more than 6	16	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Disagree	28	14.0	14.0	15.0
	Undecided or Neutral	55	27.5	27.5	42.5
	Agree	102	51.0	51.0	93.5
	Strongly Agree	13	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	63	31.5	31.5	36.5
	Undecided or Neutral	29	14.5	14.5	51.0
	Agree	83	41.5	41.5	92.5
	Strongly Agree	15	7.5	7.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	65	32.5	32.5	37.5
	Undecided or Neutral	44	22.0	22.0	59.5
	Agree	64	32.0	32.0	91.5
	Strongly Agree	17	8.5	8.5	100.0

Total	200	100.0	100.0
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NO4

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	5.5
Disagree	36	18.0	18.0	23.5
Undecided or Neutral	55	27.5	27.5	51.0
Agree	83	41.5	41.5	92.5
Strongly Agree	15	7.5	7.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO5

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
Disagree	42	21.0	21.0	25.0
Undecided or Neutral	45	22.5	22.5	47.5
Agree	83	41.5	41.5	89.0
Strongly Agree	22	11.0	11.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO6

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	5.5
Disagree	64	32.0	32.0	37.5

Undecided or Neutral	36	18.0	18.0	55.5
Agree	74	37.0	37.0	92.5
Strongly Agree	15	7.5	7.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO7

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
Disagree	15	7.5	7.5	9.5
Undecided or Neutral	22	11.0	11.0	20.5
Agree	123	61.5	61.5	82.0
Strongly Agree	36	18.0	18.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO8

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	16	8.0	8.0	11.0
Undecided or Neutral	18	9.0	9.0	20.0
Agree	109	54.5	54.5	74.5
Strongly Agree	51	25.5	25.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO9

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Disagree	35	17.5	17.5	20.5
	Undecided or Neutral	39	19.5	19.5	40.0
	Agree	94	47.0	47.0	87.0
	Strongly Agree	26	13.0	13.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	24	12.0	12.0	14.0
	Undecided or Neutral	28	14.0	14.0	28.0
	Agree	116	58.0	58.0	86.0
	Strongly Agree	28	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Disagree	24	12.0	12.0	15.0
	Undecided or Neutral	32	16.0	16.0	31.0
	Agree	108	54.0	54.0	85.0
	Strongly Agree	30	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	17	8.5	8.5	10.5
	Undecided or Neutral	47	23.5	23.5	34.0
	Agree	112	56.0	56.0	90.0
	Strongly Agree	20	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

NO13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	63	31.5	31.5	35.0
	Undecided or Neutral	43	21.5	21.5	56.5
	Agree	75	37.5	37.5	94.0
	Strongly Agree	12	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	14	7.0	7.0	10.5
	Undecided or Neutral	15	7.5	7.5	18.0

Agree	110	55.0	55.0	73.0
Strongly Agree	54	27.0	27.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N15

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	9	4.5	4.5	4.5
Disagree	14	7.0	7.0	11.5
Undecided or Neutral	22	11.0	11.0	22.5
Agree	116	58.0	58.0	80.5
Strongly Agree	39	19.5	19.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N16

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	9	4.5	4.5	4.5
Disagree	28	14.0	14.0	18.5
Undecided or Neutral	42	21.0	21.0	39.5
Agree	97	48.5	48.5	88.0
Strongly Agree	24	12.0	12.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N17

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Disagree	18	9.0	9.0	12.0
	Undecided or Neutral	43	21.5	21.5	33.5
	Agree	101	50.5	50.5	84.0
	Strongly Agree	32	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N18

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Disagree	28	14.0	14.0	18.0
	Undecided or Neutral	35	17.5	17.5	35.5
	Agree	88	44.0	44.0	79.5
	Strongly Agree	41	20.5	20.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N19

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	22	11.0	11.0	13.0
	Undecided or Neutral	83	41.5	41.5	54.5
	Agree	78	39.0	39.0	93.5
	Strongly Agree	13	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N20

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Disagree	22	11.0	11.0	13.5
	Undecided or Neutral	52	26.0	26.0	39.5
	Agree	102	51.0	51.0	90.5
	Strongly Agree	19	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N21

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	22	11.0	11.0	13.0
	Undecided or Neutral	39	19.5	19.5	32.5
	Agree	109	54.5	54.5	87.0
	Strongly Agree	26	13.0	13.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N22

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	22	11.0	11.0	14.5
	Undecided or Neutral	39	19.5	19.5	34.0
	Agree	99	49.5	49.5	83.5

Strongly Agree	33	16.5	16.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N23

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	12	6.0	6.0	9.0
Undecided or Neutral	36	18.0	18.0	27.0
Agree	104	52.0	52.0	79.0
Strongly Agree	42	21.0	21.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N24

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
Disagree	15	7.5	7.5	9.5
Undecided or Neutral	35	17.5	17.5	27.0
Agree	98	49.0	49.0	76.0
Strongly Agree	48	24.0	24.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N25

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0

Disagree	23	11.5	11.5	12.5
Undecided or Neutral	53	26.5	26.5	39.0
Agree	101	50.5	50.5	89.5
Strongly Agree	21	10.5	10.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N26

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	1.5	1.5	1.5
	Disagree	23	11.5	11.5	13.0
	Undecided or Neutral	35	17.5	17.5	30.5
	Agree	112	56.0	56.0	86.5
	Strongly Agree	27	13.5	13.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N27

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Disagree	5	2.5	2.5	3.5
	Undecided or Neutral	38	19.0	19.0	22.5
	Agree	102	51.0	51.0	73.5
	Strongly Agree	53	26.5	26.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N28

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Disagree	17	8.5	8.5	11.0
	Undecided or Neutral	57	28.5	28.5	39.5
	Agree	108	54.0	54.0	93.5
	Strongly Agree	13	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N29

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	9	4.5	4.5	4.5
	Disagree	59	29.5	29.5	34.0
	Undecided or Neutral	47	23.5	23.5	57.5
	Agree	69	34.5	34.5	92.0
	Strongly Agree	16	8.0	8.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N30

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
	Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	6.0
	Undecided or Neutral	34	17.0	17.0	23.0
	Agree	128	64.0	64.0	87.0
	Strongly Agree	26	13.0	13.0	100.0

Total	200	100.0	100.0
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N31

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	8.5
Undecided or Neutral	54	27.0	27.0	35.5
Agree	103	51.5	51.5	87.0
Strongly Agree	26	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N32

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	5.5
Disagree	42	21.0	21.0	26.5
Undecided or Neutral	45	22.5	22.5	49.0
Agree	81	40.5	40.5	89.5
Strongly Agree	21	10.5	10.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N33

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
Disagree	13	6.5	6.5	8.5

Undecided or Neutral	31	15.5	15.5	24.0
Agree	127	63.5	63.5	87.5
Strongly Agree	25	12.5	12.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N34

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Disagree	19	9.5	9.5	12.0
Undecided or Neutral	36	18.0	18.0	30.0
Agree	110	55.0	55.0	85.0
Strongly Agree	30	15.0	15.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N35

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
Disagree	27	13.5	13.5	17.0
Undecided or Neutral	34	17.0	17.0	34.0
Agree	112	56.0	56.0	90.0
Strongly Agree	20	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N36

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	6.5
	Undecided or Neutral	42	21.0	21.0	27.5
	Agree	96	48.0	48.0	75.5
	Strongly Agree	49	24.5	24.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N37

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	1.5	1.5	1.5
	Disagree	13	6.5	6.5	8.0
	Undecided or Neutral	61	30.5	30.5	38.5
	Agree	92	46.0	46.0	84.5
	Strongly Agree	31	15.5	15.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N38

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	21	10.5	10.5	10.5
	Disagree	39	19.5	19.5	30.0
	Undecided or Neutral	54	27.0	27.0	57.0
	Agree	67	33.5	33.5	90.5
	Strongly Agree	19	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N39

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
	Disagree	11	5.5	5.5	6.0
	Undecided or Neutral	44	22.0	22.0	28.0
	Agree	115	57.5	57.5	85.5
	Strongly Agree	29	14.5	14.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N40

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	1.5	1.5	1.5
	Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	5.0
	Undecided or Neutral	28	14.0	14.0	19.0
	Agree	118	59.0	59.0	78.0
	Strongly Agree	44	22.0	22.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N41

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Disagree	14	7.0	7.0	9.5
	Undecided or Neutral	39	19.5	19.5	29.0

Agree	109	54.5	54.5	83.5
Strongly Agree	33	16.5	16.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N42

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	27	13.5	13.6	17.1
	Undecided or Neutral	63	31.5	31.7	48.7
	Agree	87	43.5	43.7	92.5
	Strongly Agree	15	7.5	7.5	100.0
	Total	199	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
Total		200	100.0		

N43

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	29	14.5	14.5	14.5
	Disagree	56	28.0	28.0	42.5
	Undecided or Neutral	41	20.5	20.5	63.0
	Agree	61	30.5	30.5	93.5
	Strongly Agree	13	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N44

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	23	11.5	11.5	15.0
	Undecided or Neutral	66	33.0	33.0	48.0
	Agree	86	43.0	43.0	91.0
	Strongly Agree	18	9.0	9.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N45

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	5.0
	Undecided or Neutral	37	18.5	18.5	23.5
	Agree	117	58.5	58.5	82.0
	Strongly Agree	36	18.0	18.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

N46

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
	Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.5
	Undecided or Neutral	22	11.0	11.0	12.5
	Agree	103	51.5	51.5	64.0
	Strongly Agree	72	36.0	36.0	100.0

Total	200	100.0	100.0
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ONEWAY ANOVA

ANOVA statistics between Income 1 and Study Questions

Table A.1

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
NO1	Between Groups	1.546	1	1.546	2.150	.144
	Within Groups	142.374	198	.719		
	Total	143.920	199			
NO2	Between Groups	1.125	1	1.125	.927	.337
	Within Groups	240.375	198	1.214		
	Total	241.500	199			
NO3	Between Groups	2.781	1	2.781	2.359	.126
	Within Groups	233.374	198	1.179		
	Total	236.155	199			
NO4	Between Groups	6.420	1	6.420	6.310	.013
	Within Groups	201.455	198	1.017		
	Total	207.875	199			
NO5	Between Groups	3.209	1	3.209	2.915	.089
	Within Groups	217.986	198	1.101		
	Total	221.195	199			
NO6	Between Groups	6.661	1	6.661	5.643	.018
	Within Groups	233.719	198	1.180		
	Total	240.380	199			
NO7	Between Groups	2.205	1	2.205	2.952	.087
	Within Groups					
	Total					

	Within Groups	147.875	198	.747			
	Total	150.080	199				
NO8	Between Groups	9.753E-02	1	9.753E-02	.104	.747	
	Within Groups	185.457	198	.937			
	Total	185.555	199				
NO9	Between Groups	4.014E-02	1	4.014E-02	.038	.845	
	Within Groups	207.955	198	1.050			
	Total	207.995	199				
NO10	Between Groups	.459	1	.459	.536	.465	
	Within Groups	169.541	198	.856			
	Total	170.000	199				
NO11	Between Groups	4.550	1	4.550	4.888	.028	
	Within Groups	184.330	198	.931			
	Total	188.880	199				
NO12	Between Groups	.856	1	.856	1.181	.278	
	Within Groups	143.499	198	.725			
	Total	144.355	199				
NO13	Between Groups	9.643	1	9.643	9.455	.002	
	Within Groups	201.937	198	1.020			
	Total	211.580	199				
N14	Between Groups	5.556E-02	1	5.556E-02	.059	.809	
	Within Groups	187.444	198	.947			
	Total	187.500	199				
N15	Between Groups	.475	1	.475	.495	.483	
	Within Groups	190.305	198	.961			
	Total	190.780	199				
N16	Between Groups	2.329	1	2.329	2.242	.136	

	Within Groups	205.666	198	1.039			
	Total	207.995	199				
N17	Between Groups	.125	1	.125	.138	.711	
	Within Groups	179.750	198	.908			
	Total	179.875	199				
N18	Between Groups	.467	1	.467	.398	.529	
	Within Groups	232.153	198	1.172			
	Total	232.620	199				
N19	Between Groups	.121	1	.121	.170	.680	
	Within Groups	140.499	198	.710			
	Total	140.620	199				
N20	Between Groups	1.431	1	1.431	1.768	.185	
	Within Groups	160.249	198	.809			
	Total	161.680	199				
N21	Between Groups	1.531E-02	1	1.531E-02	.018	.892	
	Within Groups	165.180	198	.834			
	Total	165.195	199				
N22	Between Groups	.934	1	.934	.939	.334	
	Within Groups	196.861	198	.994			
	Total	197.795	199				
N23	Between Groups	1.076	1	1.076	1.235	.268	
	Within Groups	172.444	198	.871			
	Total	173.520	199				
N24	Between Groups	5.281E-02	1	5.281E-02	.060	.807	
	Within Groups	174.742	198	.883			
	Total	174.795	199				
N25	Between Groups	1.473	1	1.473	1.981	.161	

	Within Groups	147.247	198	.744			
	Total	148.720	199				
N26	Between Groups	1.635	1	1.635	2.029	.156	
	Within Groups	159.520	198	.806			
	Total	161.155	199				
N27	Between Groups	.121	1	.121	.186	.667	
	Within Groups	128.874	198	.651			
	Total	128.995	199				
N28	Between Groups	.923	1	.923	1.316	.253	
	Within Groups	138.832	198	.701			
	Total	139.755	199				
N29	Between Groups	.121	1	.121	.106	.745	
	Within Groups	224.999	198	1.136			
	Total	225.120	199				
N30	Between Groups	1.681E-02	1	1.681E-02	.031	.861	
	Within Groups	107.538	198	.543			
	Total	107.555	199				
N31	Between Groups	.436	1	.436	.558	.456	
	Within Groups	154.444	198	.780			
	Total	154.880	199				
N32	Between Groups	3.533	1	3.533	3.041	.083	
	Within Groups	230.062	198	1.162			
	Total	233.595	199				
N33	Between Groups	.320	1	.320	.473	.492	
	Within Groups	134.000	198	.677			
	Total	134.320	199				
N34	Between Groups	3.804	1	3.804	4.543	.034	

	Within Groups	165.791	198	.837			
	Total	169.595	199				
N35	Between Groups	3.472E-05	1	3.472E-05	.000	.995	
	Within Groups	185.395	198	.936			
	Total	185.395	199				
N36	Between Groups	.257	1	.257	.338	.562	
	Within Groups	150.538	198	.760			
	Total	150.795	199				
N37	Between Groups	.889	1	.889	1.181	.278	
	Within Groups	148.986	198	.752			
	Total	149.875	199				
N38	Between Groups	2.801	1	2.801	2.130	.146	
	Within Groups	260.319	198	1.315			
	Total	263.120	199				
N39	Between Groups	2.820	1	2.820	4.848	.029	
	Within Groups	115.180	198	.582			
	Total	118.000	199				
N40	Between Groups	2.880	1	2.880	4.603	.033	
	Within Groups	123.875	198	.626			
	Total	126.755	199				
N41	Between Groups	.623	1	.623	.770	.381	
	Within Groups	160.372	198	.810			
	Total	160.995	199				
N42	Between Groups	2.139	1	2.139	2.467	.118	
	Within Groups	170.835	197	.867			
	Total	172.975	198				
N43	Between Groups	.113	1	.113	.079	.778	

	Within Groups	281.242	198	1.420			
	Total	281.355	199				
N44	Between Groups	.125	1	.125	.143	.705	
	Within Groups	172.750	198	.872			
	Total	172.875	199				
N45	Between Groups	1.063	1	1.063	1.635	.203	
	Within Groups	128.812	198	.651			
	Total	129.875	199				
N46	Between Groups	.138	1	.138	.269	.605	
	Within Groups	101.617	198	.513			
	Total	101.755	199				

ANOVA statistics between Income 2 and Study Questions

Table A.2

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
NO1	Between Groups	1.779	4	.445	.610	.656	
	Within Groups	142.141	195	.729			
	Total	143.920	199				
NO2	Between Groups	11.628	4	2.907	2.466	.046	
	Within Groups	229.872	195	1.179			
	Total	241.500	199				
NO3	Between Groups	5.332	4	1.333	1.126	.345	
	Within Groups	230.823	195	1.184			
	Total	236.155	199				
NO4	Between Groups	5.675	4	1.419	1.368	.246	
	Within Groups	202.200	195	1.037			
	Total	207.875	199				

NO5	Between Groups	5.364	4	1.341	1.211	.307	
	Within Groups	215.831	195	1.107			
	Total	221.195	199				
NO6	Between Groups	1.514	4	.379	.309	.872	
	Within Groups	238.866	195	1.225			
	Total	240.380	199				
NO7	Between Groups	3.309	4	.827	1.099	.358	
	Within Groups	146.771	195	.753			
	Total	150.080	199				
NO8	Between Groups	1.876	4	.469	.498	.737	
	Within Groups	183.679	195	.942			
	Total	185.555	199				
NO9	Between Groups	8.377	4	2.094	2.046	.090	
	Within Groups	199.618	195	1.024			
	Total	207.995	199				
NO10	Between Groups	7.350	4	1.837	2.203	.070	
	Within Groups	162.650	195	.834			
	Total	170.000	199				
NO11	Between Groups	6.924	4	1.731	1.855	.120	
	Within Groups	181.956	195	.933			
	Total	188.880	199				
NO12	Between Groups	5.983	4	1.496	2.108	.081	
	Within Groups	138.372	195	.710			
	Total	144.355	199				
NO13	Between Groups	2.469	4	.617	.576	.681	
	Within Groups	209.111	195	1.072			
	Total	211.580	199				

N14	Between Groups	10.185	4	2.546	2.800	.027	
	Within Groups	177.315	195	.909			
	Total	187.500	199				
N15	Between Groups	4.337	4	1.084	1.134	.342	
	Within Groups	186.443	195	.956			
	Total	190.780	199				
N16	Between Groups	1.352	4	.338	.319	.865	
	Within Groups	206.643	195	1.060			
	Total	207.995	199				
N17	Between Groups	7.278	4	1.819	2.056	.088	
	Within Groups	172.597	195	.885			
	Total	179.875	199				
N18	Between Groups	3.392	4	.848	.721	.578	
	Within Groups	229.228	195	1.176			
	Total	232.620	199				
N19	Between Groups	3.271	4	.818	1.161	.329	
	Within Groups	137.349	195	.704			
	Total	140.620	199				
N20	Between Groups	6.699	4	1.675	2.107	.081	
	Within Groups	154.981	195	.795			
	Total	161.680	199				
N21	Between Groups	3.515	4	.879	1.060	.378	
	Within Groups	161.680	195	.829			
	Total	165.195	199				
N22	Between Groups	5.675	4	1.419	1.440	.222	
	Within Groups	192.120	195	.985			
	Total	197.795	199				

N23	Between Groups	1.569	4	.392	.445	.776	
	Within Groups	171.951	195	.882			
	Total	173.520	199				
N24	Between Groups	.454	4	.114	.127	.973	
	Within Groups	174.341	195	.894			
	Total	174.795	199				
N25	Between Groups	4.556	4	1.139	1.541	.192	
	Within Groups	144.164	195	.739			
	Total	148.720	199				
N26	Between Groups	4.467	4	1.117	1.390	.239	
	Within Groups	156.688	195	.804			
	Total	161.155	199				
N27	Between Groups	2.166	4	.542	.833	.506	
	Within Groups	126.829	195	.650			
	Total	128.995	199				
N28	Between Groups	11.254	4	2.813	4.269	.002	
	Within Groups	128.501	195	.659			
	Total	139.755	199				
N29	Between Groups	8.157	4	2.039	1.833	.124	
	Within Groups	216.963	195	1.113			
	Total	225.120	199				
N30	Between Groups	3.870	4	.967	1.820	.127	
	Within Groups	103.685	195	.532			
	Total	107.555	199				
N31	Between Groups	4.053	4	1.013	1.310	.268	
	Within Groups	150.827	195	.773			
	Total	154.880	199				

N32	Between Groups	4.795	4	1.199	1.022	.397	
	Within Groups	228.800	195	1.173			
	Total	233.595	199				
N33	Between Groups	2.853	4	.713	1.058	.379	
	Within Groups	131.467	195	.674			
	Total	134.320	199				
N34	Between Groups	2.181	4	.545	.635	.638	
	Within Groups	167.414	195	.859			
	Total	169.595	199				
N35	Between Groups	4.401	4	1.100	1.185	.318	
	Within Groups	180.994	195	.928			
	Total	185.395	199				
N36	Between Groups	1.420	4	.355	.463	.763	
	Within Groups	149.375	195	.766			
	Total	150.795	199				
N37	Between Groups	9.797	4	2.449	3.410	.010	
	Within Groups	140.078	195	.718			
	Total	149.875	199				
N38	Between Groups	17.474	4	4.369	3.468	.009	
	Within Groups	245.646	195	1.260			
	Total	263.120	199				
N39	Between Groups	6.542	4	1.635	2.861	.025	
	Within Groups	111.458	195	.572			
	Total	118.000	199				
N40	Between Groups	2.480	4	.620	.973	.424	
	Within Groups	124.275	195	.637			
	Total	126.755	199				

N41	Between Groups	.318	4	7.949E-02	.096	.983	
	Within Groups	160.677	195	.824			
	Total	160.995	199				
N42	Between Groups	1.147	4	.287	.324	.862	
	Within Groups	171.828	194	.886			
	Total	172.975	198				
N43	Between Groups	5.773	4	1.443	1.021	.397	
	Within Groups	275.582	195	1.413			
	Total	281.355	199				
N44	Between Groups	2.327	4	.582	.665	.617	
	Within Groups	170.548	195	.875			
	Total	172.875	199				
N45	Between Groups	1.240	4	.310	.470	.758	
	Within Groups	128.635	195	.660			
	Total	129.875	199				
N46	Between Groups	2.599	4	.650	1.278	.280	
	Within Groups	99.156	195	.508			
	Total	101.755	199				

Appendix B: Interview Questions

1. Do you have any idea about ‘tourism planning’; what type of tourism planning?
2. Do you have any idea about ‘participatory planning’?
3. What mechanisms for public participation exist?
4. Has there been any method of involving public participation in tourism industry?

5. Is CBT based on '*smart growth*' approach (Smart growth is a better way to build and maintain our towns and cities. Smart growth means building urban, suburban and rural communities with housing and transportation choices near jobs, shops and schools. This approach supports local economies and protects the environment) (<http://www.smartgrowthamerica.org/what-is-smart-growth>).
6. 'Decentralized system of decision making is key to successful CBT', what is your idea?
7. 'The role of community involvement in CBT is significant', what is your idea?
8. 'CBT is the job of government and community has nothing to do with its planning and management', what is your idea?
9. Is CBT a dialogic process and inclusive based on public judgment?
10. Is CBT contributing to the objectives of the community?
11. What is the degree of cooperation and goodwill of Shahmirzad community regarding CBT?
12. What is your idea about CBT and the strengths of Shahmirzad?
13. Is CBT, as a service industry, a lucrative method for creating unique local identity?
14. Is the CBT imposed on you from elsewhere as a cut-and-dry model?
15. Do you have any barriers to community based tourism development?
16. Is CBT a way for community development within a democratic framework?
17. 'CBT is a community effort that encompasses citizen involvement, utilizing local resources for solving issues of local concerns', what is your idea?
18. 'CBT is participatory governance efforts', what is your idea?

List of Respondents

Respondent 1: D.A., The manager of Armoun Traditional exhibition in shahmirzad.

Respondent 2:T.A., The assistant of shahmirzad municipality.

Respondent 3:K.R., Prof.Dr.Owner and Manager of kiani private clinic in shahmirzad.

Respondent 4:K.M.Y., PhD of archeology, Teacher of Tehran University.

Respondent 5:F.M., A member of Cultural and Heritage society.

Respondent 6: A.A.M., A member of city Council.

Respondent 7:N.B., PHD of ELT teacher of Semnan University.

Respondent 7:H.M., PHD of polymer, teacher of Shahmirzad Azad University.

Respondent 8:L.E., Departement of Law in shahmirzad municipality.

Respondent 9:H.A., Master of Marketing Management, General management of khaneh Gol private Hotel.

Respondent 10:A.Sh. Master of sociology, Director of higher education department in shahmirzad.