

ARA

VOL. 4 - No. 1
YEAR/AÑO 2014
e-ISSN: 2014-4458

JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH / REVISTA DE INVESTIGACIÓN EN TURISMO



ARA

■ En el taíno, una de las lenguas indígenas del Caribe, el término *Ara* significa árbol y gente, entre varias otras acepciones. *Ara* es un símbolo de identificación y arraigo al territorio caribeño, y a la vez un símbolo universal con un mensaje y un sentido muy positivos.

El principal objetivo de la revista *Ara* es ser un medio de comunicación académico y de ciencia aplicada. Mediante la publicación de artículos y estudios enfocados a la investigación científica y práctica, se pretende profundizar, extender y divulgar la comprensión de la red de relaciones existentes entre el fenómeno turístico y el desarrollo sostenible de las sociedades.

Desde la revista *Ara* se invita a investigadores de todas las disciplinas académicas a nivel mundial a que contribuyan a este fin con sus aportaciones. Para ello son especialmente bienvenidos aquellos estudios que traten el turismo en la zona geográfica del Caribe en su sentido más amplio, es decir, incluyendo las zonas costeras orientales del continente americano limítrofe al Caribe, así como los estudios que se centren en zonas de cualquier otro lugar del mundo con situaciones similares a las del Caribe.

Los artículos pueden ser presentados en español o en inglés, y serán publicados, después de haber pasado la evaluación del anonimato doble, en la lengua original del manuscrito, siempre con un resumen en ambas lenguas. La revista *Ara* Journal of Tourism Research / Revista de Investigación en Turismo tiene una periodicidad semestral.



■ In the Taíno language, one of the indigenous languages of the Caribbean, the term *Ara* means tree and people, among various other significations. *Ara* is a symbol of Caribbean identity and origins as well as a universal symbol with a positive message.

The main objective of the *Ara* Journal is to be an academic journal of basic and applied science. Through the publication of articles and studies specialising in scientific research and practice it aims to deepen, extend and propagate the understanding of the network of relationships between tourism and the sustainable development of communities.

Ara invites researchers from all academic disciplines around the world to contribute to this objective. Especially welcome are studies which deal with tourism in the Caribbean in the widest sense of the term, that is to say including the eastern coast of the American continent bordering the Caribbean, as well as those studies which focus on areas of other parts of the world with similar situations to those in the Caribbean.

Articles may be submitted in English or Spanish and will be published in the original language of the manuscript. The abstract will always be published in both languages. The frequency of publication of *Ara* Journal of Tourism Research is half-yearly.

Comité de Honor / Honorary Committee:

Presidente / President:

Dr. Leonel Fernández, Presidente Honorario y Fundador / Honorary President and Founder, Fundación Global Democracia y Desarrollo (FUNGLODE), Ex-Presidente de la República Dominicana / Ex-President of the Dominican Republic

Taleb Rifai, Secretario General de la Organización Mundial de Turismo / Secretary General of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), Madrid, España / Spain

Dra. Ligia Amada Melo de Cardona, Ministra de Educación Superior, Ciencia y Tecnología / Minister of Higher Education, Science and Technology República Dominicana / Dominican Republic

Dr. Jeffrey D. Sachs, Director, The Earth Institute, Columbia University, New York, EE UU de América / USA

Dr. Luis José Asilis, Presidente y CEO / President and CEO, Metro Group, República Dominicana / Dominican Republic

Frank Rainieri, Presidente del Grupo Puntacana y de la Fundación Ecológica Punta Cana / President of the Puntacana Group and of the Punta Cana Ecological Foundation, República Dominicana / Dominican Republic

Dra. Maria Abellanet, CEO y Directora General, Grup CETT / CEO and Director General, CETT Group, Barcelona, España / Spain

Rocío Pichardo, Cónsul General de la República Dominicana en Barcelona, España / Consul General of the Dominican Republic in Barcelona, Spain

Consejo Editorial / Editorial Board:

Coordinador / Coordinator:

Dra. Anna Torres, Escola Universitària d'Hoteleria i Turisme CETT - Universitat de Barcelona, España / Spain

Miembros / Members:

François Bédard, Université du Québec; Worldwide Center for Excellence in Tourist Destinations (OMT / UNWTO), Montréal, Canada

Lino Briguglio, University of Malta; Islands & Small States Institute, Malta

Clifford E. Griffin, School of Public and International Affairs, North Carolina State University, USA

Jafar Jafari, University of Wisconsin-Stout, USA; Founding Editor, Annals of Tourism Research

Lee Jolliffe, Faculty of Business, University of New Brunswick, Saint John, Canada

Jos van der Sterren, NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

Joan Tugores Ques, Centro de Estudios Internacionales, Universitat de Barcelona, España / Spain

François Vellas, CEREST – Institut de Recherche pour l'Économie de Service et de Tourisme, Université de Toulouse 1, France

Editores / Publishers:



FUNGLODE
FUNDACIÓN GLOBAL
DEMOCRACIA Y DESARROLLO

FUNGLODE – Fundación Global Democracia y Desarrollo
Capitán Eugenio de Marchena no. 26 - La Esperilla
Santo Domingo, República Dominicana / Dominican Republic
Tel. +1 (809) 685 9966
Fax: +1 (809) 685-9926
www.funglode.org

CETT



CETT Escola Universitària d'Hoteleria i Turisme
Adscrita a la Universitat de Barcelona / affiliated to the University of Barcelona
Avda. Can Marçet, 36-38
E-08035 Barcelona (España / Spain)
Tel. +34 93 504 04 25 / +34 93 428 0777
Fax: +34 93 428 6777
e-mail: ara@cett.es
www.cett.cat

Director de la revista / Director of the publication:

David Peguero, CETT Consultors, Barcelona, España / Spain

Dirección académica / Academic direction:

Ramon Serrat, Escola Universitària d'Hoteleria i Turisme CETT - Universitat de Barcelona, España / Spain

Dra. Anna Torres, Escola Universitària d'Hoteleria i Turisme CETT - Universitat de Barcelona, España / Spain

Asistentes de producción / Production assistant:

Jarolin de la Cruz, estudiante del máster Dirección Estratégica de Empresas Turísticas: Sostenibilidad y Gestión de la Calidad Turística.

Reimy de la Cruz, estudiante del máster Dirección Estratégica de Empresas Turísticas: Sostenibilidad y Gestión de la Calidad Turística.

Diseño gráfico / Graphic Design:

Ferran Bonet, Director de arte, EO, Barcelona, España / Spain

Ilustración Portada / Cover Illustration:

Jordi Carreras, Valencia, España / Spain

Maquetación / Lay-out:

Olga Prat, Mar de Paraules, Barcelona, España / Spain

Registro formal: No. 70175

(Secretaría de Interior y Policía, República Dominicana)

e-ISSN: 2014-4458

FUNGLODE y la EUHT CETT-UB realizan un esfuerzo por asegurar la precisión de los contenidos de la presente revista. Sin embargo, FUNGLODE y la EUHT CETT-UB no se hacen responsables en ningún caso de la perfección o de la idoneidad de los mismos y renuncia a dicha responsabilidad y garantía allí donde se exprese o de donde se implique hasta el máximo grado permitido por la ley. Cualquier opinión aparecida en esta publicación es la opinión de su autor y en ningún caso la de FUNGLODE o la de la EUHT CETT-UB.

FUNGLODE and EUHT CETT-UB make every effort to ensure the accuracy of this journal's content. However, FUNGLODE and the EUHT CETT-UB make no representations or warranties whatsoever as to the accuracy, completeness or suitability for any purpose of the content and disclaim all such representations and warranties whether expressed or implied to the maximum extent permitted by law. Any views expressed in this publication are the views of the authors and not the views of FUNGLODE and the EUHT CETT-UB.

ÍNDICE

SUMMARY

- 7-25 “Sustaining Ecotourism in Tanzania through Community Empowerment”
Liliane Pasape, Wineaster Anderson, George Lindi
- 27-36 “La gobernanza de los convenios de colaboración en España: La gestión participativa del turismo frente la jerarquización de la acción social”
Ana Haro González
- 37-49 “El Derecho al Turismo Cultural de las personas con discapacidad”
Yolanda Lázaro Fernández, Aurora Madariaga Ortuzar
- 51-59 “Management Competencies and Tourism Graduates: Future Leaders of Caribbean Tourism”
Acolla Lewis-Cameron
- 61-69 “Culturally responsible curriculum development in hospitality, tourism and events management”
Erwin Losekoot, Linda Wong
- 71-82 “Analysis for the Curricular Design of Tourism Studies in the Dominican Republic: Competences and Professional Profiles to Enable the Prospective Development of Tourism”
David Peguero Manzanares, Gloria Sanmartín Antolín, Montserrat Iglesias Xamaní
- 83-89 “Work In Progress: The Role Of Higher Education In Post-Conflict Tourism Development, A Case Study From Rwanda”
Kabera Callixte, Karel Werdler
- 91 Invitación para la presentación de artículos / Invitation for the submission of articles
- 92 Normativa y guía de estilo / Guidelines and manual for manuscript submission
- 95 Formulario de suscripción / Subscription Form

Sustaining Ecotourism in Tanzania through Community Empowerment

Liliane Pasape

Lecturer at the School of Business Studies and Humanities
Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science and Technology, Arusha, Tanzania

Wineaster Anderson

Senior Lecturer
Department of Marketing. University of Dar es Salaam Business School

George Lindi

Senior Lecturer
Department of Marketing. University of Dar es Salaam Business School

Submitted: 20th March 2014; Resubmitted: 13th June 2014; Accepted: 16th June 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Abstract

■ This study explores the contribution of community empowerment to the sustainability of ecotourism in Tanzania using education programmes, access to information and language. Through the survey approach data was collected from Tanzania's ecotourism stakeholders (N=250) in the eight selected regions of Dar es Salaam, Pwani, Morogoro, Tanga and Zanzibar (for the eastern tourism circuit) and Arusha, Kilimanjaro and Manyara (for the northern circuit) and thereafter a qualitative analysis was employed complemented by estimation of the multinomial logistic regression model. The findings show that tourism stakeholders lack sufficient knowledge on ecotourism conservation and preservation. Likewise community members have poor access to information due to insufficient ecotourism publications, tourist information centres, a reliable mechanism for communicating with stakeholders and the use of foreign languages in most of the publications. It is therefore the study's recommendation that community members be empowered through being provided with adequate education programmes and access to relevant information and the use of a language that is understood by them in order to broaden their level of understanding, enhance their management skills and contribute significantly to ecotourism-related activities.

Key Words:

Community empowerment, education programmes, access to information, language, sustainable ecotourism, Tanzania

Resumen

■ Este estudio explora la contribución del empoderamiento comunitario a la sostenibilidad del ecoturismo en Tanzania, a través de programas de educación, el acceso a la información y el lenguaje. Por medio del método de encuesta, se recogieron datos de los actores del ecoturismo de Tanzania (N = 250) en las ocho regiones seleccionadas: Dar es Salaam, Pwani , Morogoro , Tanga y Zanzíbar (para el circuito turístico del Este), y Arusha, Kilimanjaro y Manyara (para el circuito Norte) y, posteriormente, se empleó un análisis cualitativo complementado con la estimación del modelo de regresión logística multinomial. Los resultados muestran que los agentes del turismo carecen de conocimientos suficientes sobre la conservación y preservación del ecoturismo. Así mismo los miembros de la comunidad tienen poco acceso a la información debido a la falta de publicaciones sobre ecoturismo, centros de información turística, un mecanismo fiable para la comunicación entre actores y el uso de lenguas extranjeras en la mayoría de las publicaciones. Por tanto, la recomendación de este estudio es que los miembros de la comunidad estén empoderados a través de disponer de programas de educación adecuados y acceso a la información pertinente y el uso de un lenguaje que sea comprendido por ellos con el fin de ampliar su nivel de comprensión, mejorar sus habilidades de gestión y contribuir de manera significativa a las actividades relacionadas con el ecoturismo.

Palabras clave:

Empoderamiento comunitario, programas educativos, acceso a la información, lenguaje, ecoturismo sostenible, Tanzania

Introduction

■ Ecotourism has emerged as one of the most emphasized areas worldwide as a means of sustainable development. It refers to travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations found in these areas (Anderson, 2009; Fennel 2001; Ceballas-Lascurain 1983). Numerous authors, for instance (MacKercher, 1993; Honey, 1999; Mwamwaja, 2006), have written on ecotourism and Wright (1994) depicted that the key principles governing eco-tourism are that it should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner; it should in the long term benefit the resource, the local community and industry; it should involve the education of all parties, local communities, the government non-government organizations, industry and tourists (before, during and after the trip); it should provide first-hand, participatory and enlightening experiences; it should encourage all those involved to recognize the intrinsic value of the resource; it should involve acceptance of the resource on its own terms and recognition of its limits, which involves supply-oriented management; it should promote understanding and involve partnerships between many players, which could involve the government, non-government organizations, industry, scientists and local communities (both before and during operations); it should promote moral and ethical responsibility for and behaviour towards the natural and cultural environment by all players.

For a long time now, ecotourism has been well known worldwide for contributing substantially to both social and economic development. For example in Tanzania, earnings as a share of the gross domestic product increased significantly, from about one per cent in the 1986–92 period to over six per cent in the 1993–98 period. Comparable data for the East Africa region and African countries on average show that tourism earnings as a share of the gross domestic product increased marginally from 1.5 per cent to about two per cent over the same period. In addition, as a share of total exports, tourism earnings increased from about 15 per cent in the 1980s to over 40 per cent in the 1990s, becoming the second largest foreign exchange earner after agriculture, as revealed in Kweka, Morrissey and Brake (2003). Moreover, Carlson (2009) and Anderson (2010) depicted that the sector is one of the primary national foreign exchange earners in Tanzania, contributing 17.2 per cent of the gross domestic product and producing over 250,000 jobs. The substantial contribution of tourism to the social and economic development of Tanzania has resulted from the biodiversity of the country as far as ecotourism is concerned. The country's location, natural resources, cities and broad cultural heritage place Tanzania in a more competitive position than other countries, as revealed in Tanzania Tourist Board (2009).

It has been argued by Honey (2008) that Tanzania is the richest country in the world in term of its wildlife, with more elephants, lions, zebras, antelopes, and many other large mammals than any other country in Africa. With regard to the relationship between tourism and ecotourism, Anderson (2010) argued that ecotourism accounts for about 90% of all the tourism in Tanzania, and so most tourism activities in the country depend on ecotourism's attractions. The literature also shown that economically, ecotourism provides employment and trade opportunities (Jusko, 1994); socially, it stimulates people's education and income levels; and helps local communities revive their ancient festivals and restore their cultural landmarks (Wright, 1993).

In view of the benefits brought by ecotourism and its associated risks, ecotourism stakeholders around the world have voiced their concern on what should be done to make tourism more environmentally friendly for both current and future consumption without affecting the indigenous environment. In view of this, several authors have tried to work on different means believed to be tried and tested for ensuring the sustainability of ecotourism. For example, Anderson (2009) depicted that for an attraction to be regarded as ecotourism-oriented it should primarily involve the natural environment, with associated cultural elements constituting secondary components. In addition, the interaction between tourists and the environmental attraction should be based on their being educated, so that they learn and appreciate that ecotourism should be environmentally, socio-culturally and economically sustainable. However, despite these recommendations, there is still a substantial gap in the literature, especially on how best stakeholders can be involved in sustaining ecotourism. This study therefore looks at strategies that involve stakeholders, with an emphasis on how to empower community members and other stakeholders in an effort to sustain ecotourism in the country. Among many issues in the empowerment context, the study gave special consideration to education programmes, access to information and use of language, on the assumption that, for ecotourism projects and plans to be successfully implemented, the community has to be empowered so that they can make decisions and contribute to protecting their environment. The study is absolutely crucial, particularly at this time when there is a great need for more strategies that involve stakeholders in the whole business of making ecotourism sustainable in Tanzania so as to sustain all the benefits associated with it.

Literature Review

■ Ecotourism, which is believed to be the fastest growing sub-sector of tourism, (Wally, 2001) originates from the ethics of conservation and sustainable development (Miller, 2007), following the legalizing of

hunting, which stimulates the need to protect national parks and game reserves (Dodds, 2008), with the aim of conserving biodiversity and maintaining the wellbeing of local people. This includes providing them with learning experiences, responsible action being taken by the tourism industry, and requiring the least possible consumption of non-renewable resources and reducing the stress on them Anderson (2009). To make ecotourism sustainable from the stakeholders' point of view, this study assumed that more emphasize needs to be placed on community empowerment.

To empower is to give an employee, an organization or a community the power or authority that will enable them to be strong enough to make certain decisions or to access certain services or resources. There are a number of definitions for the term empowerment. For instance, Napier (2009) defines empowerment as the process by which individuals and groups gain power, access to resources and control over their own lives. In so doing, they gain the ability to achieve their highest personal and collective aspirations and goals. Alsop, Bertelsen and Holland (2006) argued that empowerment enhances an individual's or group's capacity to make purposive choices and to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes. The same authors revealed that empowerment can be measured indirectly via asset endowments, such as psychological assets (capacity to envisage change), informational assets (access to different media sources), organizational assets (membership of an organization), material assets (ownership of productive assets such as land), financial assets (value of household savings) and human assets (literacy level). Osborne (1994) suggested four possible societal settings for empowerment, known as the marketplace, the community, the public sector and the political system. The Department of Communities and Local Government (2008) considers community empowerment as the process of enabling people to shape and choose the services they use on a personal basis so that they can influence the way those services are delivered. Community empowerment is aimed at making people strong spiritually, politically, socially and economically, so as to increase their capacity and confidence level to influence decision making, to tackle their problems, challenge discrimination, strengthen community unity and build sustainable communities.

Over the years various studies have been conducted on community empowerment and some theories developed. Napier (2009) presented an empowerment theory with the argument that empowerment resides in a person, not a helper or social worker, and it addresses oppression, stratification and inequality as social barriers, with an emphasis on the fact that problems do not develop because of personal deficiencies. The theory pointed out that empowerment is a process of increasing intrapersonal, interpersonal and political power. Intrapersonal power, which is gained at the micro level, is the foundation on which other empowerment levels are built. It builds

self-efficacy and personal consciousness, while reducing self-blame and assuming personal responsibility. On top of that, interpersonal power, which is gained at the mezzo level, enables the empowered person to work with others at changing oppression on a broader level, it increases group consciousness and develops skills for mobilizing resources and it enables a commonality to develop between group members. On the other hand, political power in a community is usually gained at the macro level and it enables the empowered person to advocate for a change in policies, as well as educating and informing the public about opportunities and inequality in their community.

Moreover, one well-known empowerment model for social work practice was that presented by Anderson, Wilson, Mwansa and Osei-Hwedie (1994), with the argument that empowerment in society means personal, social, educational, economic and political empowerment. The model is useful to this study as it recognizes the five dimensions of empowerment, as previously depicted in Osborne (1994) and Alsop, Bertelsen and Holland (2006), and is used by this study to lay the foundation for the development of various stakeholder empowerment strategies for the sustainability of ecotourism in Tanzania. In addition, this study makes reference to the empowerment framework of Scheyven (1999), which emphasizes signs of empowerment and disempowerment in terms of economic, psychological, political and social empowerment (table 1).

For quite a long time most empirical research on tourism has emphasized its economic, social-cultural and environmental impact. In recent years, the world has observed a significant increase in the number of studies relating to ecotourism. For instance, John and Pang (2012) summarized the ecotourism literature and found that past studies have mainly concentrated on evaluating ecotourism at different destinations and on discussing whether the specific conservation and development principles of ecotourism have been adhered to (Ross & Wall 1999; Wallace & Pierce 1996). Some have emphasized the definitions and/or impacts of ecotourism (Blamey 1997; Walker 1996; Obua & Harding 1997; Sirakaya et al. 1999; Scheyvens 1999; Bjork 2000; Chin et al. 2000; Doan 2000), while others have examined the roles and responsibilities of different players in the planning or promotion of ecotourism destinations (Inskeep 1991; Walker 1996; Campbell 1999; Ross & Wall 1999b; Hjalager 1999; Sindiga 1999). Except for a few studies that profile and examine the motivations of ecotourists (Eagles 1992; Eagles & Cascagnette 1995; Wight 1996), most studies focus on the supply side of ecotourism.

Because few of those studies covered East African countries, Ofosu-Amaah (2007) conducted a study to examine the global concept of ecotourism, to analyze how ecotourism has been applied in the national and

Table 1 Framework for Community Empowerment

Signs of Empowerment	Signs of Disempowerment
1. Economic empowerment	
<p>Ecotourism brings lasting economic gains to a local community. Cash earned is shared between many households in the community. There are visible signs of improvements from the cash that is earned (e.g. improved water systems, houses made of more permanent materials).</p>	<p>Ecotourism merely results in small, spasmodic cash gains for a local community. Most profits go to local elites, outside operators, government agencies, etc. Only a few individuals or families gain direct financial benefits from ecotourism, while others cannot find a way to share in these economic benefits because they lack capital, appropriate skills or negotiation power.</p>
2. Psychological empowerment	
<p>The self-esteem of many community members is enhanced because of outside recognition of the uniqueness and value of their culture, their natural resources and their traditional knowledge. The increasing confidence of community members leads them to seek out further education and training opportunities on ecotourism and other developmental matters. Access to employment and cash leads to an increase in status for traditionally low-status sectors of society, e.g. women and youths.</p>	<p>Many people have not shared in the benefits of ecotourism, yet they may face hardships because of reduced access to the resources of a protected area and their inability to comment on various issues especially when required to use a foreign language which is unfamiliar and they don't have full control. They are thus confused, frustrated, uninterested or disillusioned with the initiative.</p>
3. Political empowerment	
<p>The community or political structure, which fairly represents the needs and interests of all community groups, provides a forum through which people can raise questions relating to the ecotourism venture and have their concerns dealt with. Agencies initiating or implementing the ecotourism venture seek out the opinions of community groups (including the special interest groups of women, youths and other socially disadvantaged groups) and provide opportunities for them to be represented on decision-making bodies, e.g. the Wildlife Park Board. Before, during and after the discussion and collecting their opinions, relevant information will be shared with stakeholders through the medium of communication and publications they understand.</p>	<p>The community has an autocratic and/or self-interested leadership. Agencies initiating or implementing the ecotourism venture treat communities as passive beneficiaries, failing to involve them in decision-making. Thus the majority of community members feel they have little or no say over whether the ecotourism initiative operates or the way in which it operates. Besides, some of them don't comment because they are less knowledgeable on ecotourism matters as they lack proper education and access to relevant information</p>
4. Social empowerment	
<p>Ecotourism maintains or enhances the local community's equilibrium. Community cohesion is improved as individuals and families work together to build a successful ecotourism venture. Community members participate fully in various discussions within their community using a familiar language, hence making informed decisions regarding ecotourism and community development projects. Likewise, community members will continue to embrace their traditional and cultural values to the extent that they may incorporate ecotourism conservation stories in various themes of their poetry and tales and pass them down from one generation to another.</p>	<p>Disharmony and social decay. Many in the community take on outside values and lose respect for traditional culture and for elders. Disadvantaged groups (e.g. women) bear the brunt of problems associated with the ecotourism initiative and fail to share equitably in its benefits. Rather than cooperating, individuals, families, ethnic or socio-economic groups compete with each other for the perceived benefits of ecotourism. Resentment and jealousy are commonplace. Most people do not participate fully in various ecotourism-related discussions because they fail to understand the language used as the medium of communication.</p>

Source: Modified from Scheyven (1999)



local context in Tanzania, and to ascertain how and under what conditions ecotourism functions as a sustainable development tool. The finding reveals that walking safaris and campsites are concrete examples of the various manifestations of ecotourism in Tanzania. The study was found to be relevant as it provided background information on ecotourism in Tanzania that gave a better understanding, enabling the present study to be well grounded. However, the study discusses mostly the cultural aspect of ecotourism, which is why the present study sought to fill the gap by examining both the natural and cultural aspects of ecotourism, as well as working on the author's recommendation of increasing the involvement of local communities in the planning and implementation of projects through empowering them.

Another empirical study was conducted by Scheyvens (1999) to show how ecotourism ventures impact the lives of people living in and around the environments ecotourists frequently visit. The findings revealed that from the development perspective, ecotourism ventures should only be considered successful if local communities have some measure of control over them and if they share equitably in the benefits emerging from ecotourism activities. The study also proposed an empowerment framework (Table 1) as a suitable mechanism for aiding

analysis of the social, economic, psychological and political impacts of ecotourism on local communities. The rationale for the framework is that ecotourism should promote both conservation and development at the local level. The framework could be applied in both western and developing country contexts but, because it takes as its central concern the concept of empowerment, it is perhaps particularly pertinent when examining the extent to which indigenous people, or other disadvantaged groups, are benefiting from ecotourism.

On top of that, Osborne (1994) examined the concept of empowerment and suggested that, rather than being a unitary concept, it is in fact an umbrella term, which encompasses four possible modes of empowerment, which are the market place, the community, the public sector and the political system (Table 2). The study shows that empowerment is not a single process but a cluster of processes that are not consensual, since different stakeholders could have conflicting needs, which is why care must be taken to make sure that stakeholders' interests are taken into account. In addition, in terms of both its pursuit and analysis, it is essential to be clear about the type of empowerment being sought and ensure that the correct process is taken (ibid).

Table 2 A typology of empowerment

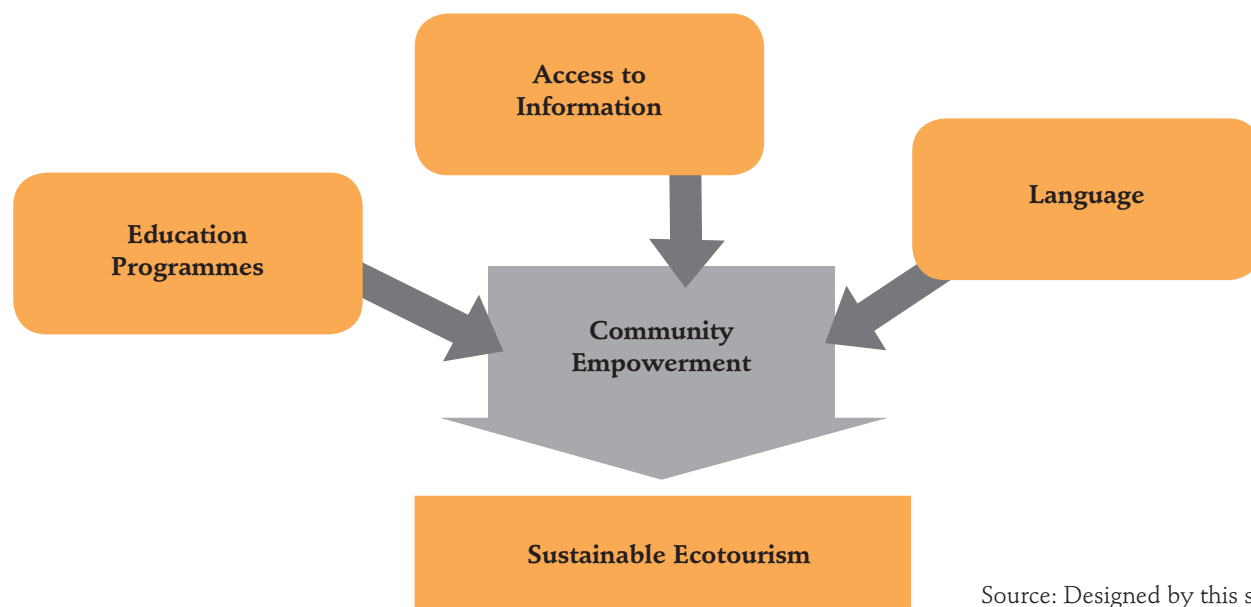
Societal Setting	Institutional Basis	Process	Key Mechanism	Main Dangers
Marketplace	Community/ Commercial/ Tourist organization	Selling and buying ecotourism products	Communication and use of familiar language	Market inefficiency and lack of communication between community members, tourists and other stakeholders
Community	Self-help/mutual aid organizations	Community development and organization	Action	Inadequate knowledge and skills for conserving ecotourism and other resources
Political system	Central / local government	Formulation and implementation of relevant policies, laws and procedures on ecotourism	Decision making	Local communities lack access to relevant information and proper educational materials to enable them to fully understood ecotourism, its implementation and respective policies for their protection
Public sector	Service organization	Service delivery/ therapy	Professional intervention	De-skilling, clashes of clients and professionals

Source: Modified from Osborne (1994)

The present study therefore went further to establish relevant strategies for community empowerment with the null hypothesis that community empowerment through education, access to information and use of language has no significant influence on sustainable ecotourism in Tanzania. The assumption underlying this hypothesis lies in the fact that once stakeholders are empowered, they will be in a good position to effectively

and efficiently participate in the decision-making process, protect ecotourism's attractions and also educate their colleagues, which will in turn ensure the sustainability of ecotourism-related projects. The conceptual framework (Figure 1) guided the authors in formulating and assessing what strategies would be best for empowering ecotourism stakeholders in Tanzania to ensure that there will be sustainable ecotourism from their perspective.

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework



Source: Designed by this study

Methodology

■ This study explores the contribution of community empowerment to the sustainability of ecotourism in Tanzania through education programmes, access to information and use of language. The study adopted the quantitative methodology to study the key components of community empowerment and the relationship that exists between community empowerment strategies and the sustainability of ecotourism. The sample population comprised Tanzania's tourism stakeholders located in tourism's eastern circuit (Dar es Salaam, Pwani, Morogoro, Tanga and Zanzibar) and the northern circuit (Kilimanjaro, Arusha and Manyara). The choice of these two circuits was based on the fact that most cultural and natural tourism takes place in the eastern and northern circuits, respectively. In this study the sample was selected randomly to make a total of 250 from both the eastern and northern tourism circuits in Tanzania. Sixty percent of the sample population originated from the northern circuit, because the bulk of investment in tourism in Tanzania has been concentrated in a small number of globally famous National Parks in the northern part of

the country, comprising the famous Serengeti, Tarangire, Lake Manyara and Mount Kilimanjaro National Parks, as revealed by Nelson (2004). The questionnaire used to collect the primary data comprised nine questions, the first five of which sought to establish the respondents' characteristics, such as gender, age, location in tourism's circuits, education level and occupation. These were later used to assess to what extent they influence respondents as to whether to agree or not with the effect of the independent variables or predictors on the dependent variable. Questions six, seven and eight covered the general issues of community empowerment, such as the importance of ecotourism education for empowering community members, the significance of collective decision making in terms of empowering community members and the contribution of local languages to the management of ecotourism. The last question, which comprised fourteen statements (Box 1), was aimed at testing the proposed empowerment strategies for ensuring sustainable ecotourism in Tanzania, whereby statements one to six cover education programmes, statements seven to ten cover access to information and statements eleven to fourteen focus on language.

Box 1 Community Empowerment Strategies for Ensuring Sustainable Ecotourism

1. Offer basic ecotourism education to community members surrounding the ecotourism sites.
2. Train all stakeholders groups and networks in ecotourism management
3. Provide capacity building programmes for local community leaders.
4. Increase the awareness of ecotourism of decision makers.
5. Use a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality colleges.
6. Make use of non-governmental and community-based organizations offering ecotourism education
7. Enhance access to ecotourism publications.
8. Improve access to tourism information.
9. Make use of reliable mechanisms for communicating with stakeholders.
10. Make use of local leaders to receive and disseminate ecotourism information.
11. Avoid using foreign languages when communicating with the local community.
12. Use both Kiswahili and the local vernacular when communicating with community members
13. Use both Kiswahili and foreign languages such as English when communicating with community members about ecotourism matters.
14. Make use of poetry and tales to educate stakeholders.

This study also made use of relevant secondary data from various sources, mostly from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), the Tanzania Tourist Board, Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority, Tanzania National Parks, Confederation of Tourism Associations, Tanzania Association of Tour Operators and related ones so as to collect information on the trend of tourism's performance, its challenges and opportunities, and it also used planned and ongoing strategies. The filled in questionnaires were examined to detect errors and to ensure that the raw data were complete and consistent and the information had been correctly entered. After editing the data, the responses were coded by assigning numerals for efficient data analysis. The numerals used were one to twelve, while zero '0' was used for a non-response to a question or a missing value. In addition, when coding the data, their names, labels and values were described. For statistical analysis, discrete choice models were used to predict the factors influencing respondents' decisions on which strategy stakeholders would choose from among the given set of predictors. The responses to the questions in the questionnaire were coded so that the lower values indicated a stronger response and vice versa, as follows: "totally agree" 1, "agree" 2, "neither agree nor disagree" 3, "disagree" 4 and "totally disagree" 5 to make five groups, which qualify for multinomial regression analysis originating from the formulae,

$$P(\text{AGREE}=i) = \exp(x_i\beta) / 1 + \exp(x_i\beta) \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation (1)}$$

Where:

$$x_i\beta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ education} + \beta_2 \text{ information} + \beta_3 \text{ language} \sum_j^f B_j z_{ij}$$

Hereafter AGREE_i denotes the ith individual agreeing (AGREE_i=1) or disagreeing (AGREE_i=0) with the community empowerment strategies, z_{ij} denotes the dummy variables, and β₁, β₂ and β₃ denote the regression

coefficients with respect to education programmes, access to information and use of language, respectively. One variable in each factor was left out of the model to form a reference group for the sake of interpreting the estimated groups. This reference group comprised male respondents aged between 26 and 35, resident in Kilimanjaro, educated to the level of college certificate, who were local community members. The issue of the validity and reliability of the study was taken into account through the use of a pre-tested questionnaire, the findings and context of previous similar studies, the adoption of data collection instruments from the literature and the conceptual framework.

Results and Discussion

Respondent's Characteristics

■ The respondents' population comprised ecotourism stakeholders in Tanzania, the country that resulted from the union of Tanganyika and Zanzibar (which comprises the two main islands of Unguja and Pemba, plus about 50 smaller islets). Geographically, Tanzania is bordered by Kenya and Uganda to the North, Zambia, Mozambique and Malawi to the South, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo to the West and the Indian Ocean to the East. From about forty million people who reside in all regions of the country, the sample population comprised 250 respondents from the eight selected regions of Dar es Salaam, Pwani, Morogoro, Zanzibar and Tanga (in the eastern ecotourism circuit) and Kilimanjaro, Arusha and Manyara (in the northern ecotourism circuit). Residents of the eastern circuit are rich in culture and traditions from almost every region of the country (it can also be considered multicultural) although the coastal culture dominates in all the regions

except Morogoro. On the contrary, the population of stakeholders in the northern tourism circuit are more involved in and informed about ecotourism as it the most active tourism circuit in the country. They possess a substantial number of cultures, based on the existing major tribes such as the 'wamasai', 'waarusha', 'wamburu', 'wamang'hati', 'wahadzabe', 'wachaga' and the 'wapare'. The response rate was a hundred percent as all issued questionnaires were returned. The finding on the respondents' characteristics (Table 3) reveals that the sample population comprised 65.2 percent of males and 34.8 percent of females, whereby more males were recorded in the northern circuit than in the eastern circuit, as revealed by the percentage of 62.6 and 37.4 for the northern and eastern circuits, respectively. With regard to female respondents, the percentage was 55.2 and 44.8 for the northern and eastern circuits, respectively. The majority of respondents (30.8 percent) were between 36 and 46 years old, while other respondents' ages were as follows: 28.8 percent were between 26 and 36, 24.0 percent were between 46 and 55, 9.6 percent were under 25 and 7.2 percent were over 55. The findings also revealed that 60 percent of the respondents were found in Tanzania's northern circuit and 40 percent were found in the eastern circuit of tourism. This is due to the sampling arrangement of the ratio of the respondents in the two circuits being 2:1, since more ecotourism activities take place in the northern circuit than in the eastern circuit, according to the MNRT (2009). Furthermore, the study findings revealed that respondents have different levels of education, ranging from primary to PhD, with 34.4 percent of the respondents reaching at least the advanced level of secondary education. The majority of respondents (51.2 percent) possess an undergraduate qualification of a certificate, diploma or first degree, while those with a post-graduate qualification comprised 14.2 percent of the respondents.

Apart from the above respondents' characteristics, this study assessed the country's empowerment initiatives and examined the respondents' general knowledge and perception of the broad community empowerment issues regarding sustainable ecotourism, such as collective decision making for the empowerment of community members, the collective management of ecotourism by players in both the public and private sector and the contribution of local languages to the communication process for community empowerment. The findings are as follows:

Community Empowerment in Tanzania

■ Empowerment is not a new phenomenon in Tanzania as the government has been working to empower its society via a number of initiatives for political, social and economic empowerment. However, in most cases, efforts have been directed at economic empowerment, on the assumption that, when citizens are economically

Table 3 Respondents' Characteristics

Variable	N=250 (Percent)
Gender	
1. Male	65.2
2. Female	34.8
Age	
1. <25 years	9.6
2. 26-35	28.4
3. 36- 45	30.8
4. 46-55	24.0
5. >55 years	7.0
Residency	
1. Dar es Salaam	8.0
2. Pwani	8.0
3. Morogoro	8.0
4. Zanzibar	8.0
5. Tanga	8.0
6. Kilimanjaro	20.0
7. Arusha	20.0
8. Manyara	20.0
Education	
1. uneducated	0.8
2. primary education	8.0
3. form four	15.6
4. form six	10.8
5. college certificate	20.4
6. college diploma	15.2
7. first degree	15.6
8. masters	10.0
9. PhD	3.6
Occupation	
1. local community member	10.8
2. central government officer	8.4
3. local government officer	10.4
4. community-based organization member	8.0
5. non-governmental organization member	12.0
6. governmental organization member	4.8
7. researcher	7.2
8. academician in private institution	3.2
9. academician in public institution	4.8
10. tour operator	8.0
11. hotel and restaurants	8.0
12. transporter	4.8

Source: Obtained from this study

empowered, they will be able to handle political, psychological or social areas as well. According to Kweka, (2006), since 2000, the government of Tanzania has utilized various studies on how the country can develop

and strengthen itself economically in order to formulate policies and strategies that will be used to economically empower Tanzanians so that they can own, run and benefit from their economy. In line with this, the National Economic Empowerment Policy and National Economic Empowerment Act have been in place since 2004. In order to operationalize this Policy, various programmes have been established and initiatives taken to enhance facilitation of economic actors in the country. In relation to these initiatives, it is gratifying to note that efforts are being made by institutions like the Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF) to provide a forum for policy dialogue and enhancing knowledge on how best economic actors in both the public and private sector can be empowered to better contribute to economic development. These initiatives act as a catalyst to speed up the implementation of various national strategies and programmes geared towards economic empowerment. The challenges faced and the objectives and strategies underlined in the Empowerment Policy are succinct and as already observed a good number of strategies outlined in the policy document are being implemented, as shown below:

- i. Business Environment Strengthening for Tanzania (BEST Programme – MKUMBITA),
- ii. Property and Business Formalization Programme (MKURABITA),
- iii. Programme for Development of Primary Education (MMEM);
- iv. Programme for Development of Secondary Education (MMES);
- v. Community Development Fund (TASAF),
- vi. Revision of Public Procurement Act to give preference to Tanzanian firms and individuals,
- vii. Programme for Empowering Tanzanian Entrepreneurs Through Provision of Soft Loans,
- viii. Project for Recognizing Ownership of Unplanned Settlements and Issuing Residential Licences,
- ix. Tanzania Mini-Tiger Plan 2020 and National Strategy for Growth and Reduction in Poverty (NSGRP-MKUKUTA).

The Tanzanian government under the Prime Minister's Office has also launched a Ministry to deal only with the Empowerment and Investment issues of the country. This ministry together with other stakeholders, such as the MNRT, the Ministry of Industry Trade and Marketing, the Ministry of Law and Legal Affairs and others, have joined hands to ensure that the Tanzanian community is empowered. Following the enactment of the Public Private Partnership Act number 18 of 2010 and the Public Private Partnership Regulation of 2011 made from section 28 of the Act, private and public players are now officially allowed to participate in community empowerment activities. Among the associations supporting the government in empowering ecotourism stakeholders and the general public is Empower Tanzania Inc. (ETI). This organization works in partnership with

rural Tanzanians to improve their quality of life. Through its mandate, ETI is addressing underlying issues, such as health care, education, agricultural practices, markets for products and increasing the supply and quality of water, which hinder resilience in rural areas. (ETI, 2012). By improving the health, education and economy of rural communities, the environment will be conducive enough to attract both domestic and foreign tourists. Likewise, other ecotourism stakeholders see the need to join in these efforts in order to empower their colleagues in the sector, such as, for example, the Association of Women in Tourism in Tanzania (AWOTTA), which aims to promote gender equality and women's empowerment and to take proactive steps to mainstream gender in tourism policies, planning and operations. AWOTTA is also promoting sustainable ecotourism and propagating this agenda to relevant organizations in Tanzania (AWOTTA, 2012).

In addition, the government of Tanzania is paying special attention to empowerment, especially in relation to ecotourism. For instance, at the summit to celebrate the international year of ecotourism in Quebec, Canada, Luhanjo (2002) reported that, in recognition of the significance of eco-tourism to the national development agenda, Tanzania has embarked on some major policy reforms aimed at promoting economic empowerment and local community participation in eco-tourism activities. Eco-tourism planning is now taking place at various levels in the country and Tanzania has started implementing ecotourism development strategies on various fronts, particularly natural, marine and cultural-based tourism. This has helped to forge links with local communities to enable them to make more informed choices, such as cultural tourism and community/private sector partnerships. In addition, the establishment of Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) adjacent to wildlife protected areas is a triumph for local ecotourism initiatives of empowering communities to plan and manage their own natural resources in a more holistic way for their own economic emancipation (ibid).

Community Empowerment Strategies for Sustainable Ecotourism

■ In addition to the above community empowerment information concerning Tanzania, the general findings from this study on community empowerment strategies revealed that, while assessing the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that respondents would comment on the relationship between ecotourism education and sustainable ecotourism in Tanzania, the model as a whole incorporate between 56.4 % (Cox and Snell R Square) and 61.3 % (Nagelkerke R Square). The study results revealed that about 80 % of the respondents agreed that the collective management of ecotourism by players from both the public and private sector has a greater chance of making ecotourism sustainable, 12.6 % where not sure about the effect and about 5 % had

a negative opinion on the matter. These results were supported by Minj and Kumar (2008), who initiated a directed discussion and critical thinking on community involvement in social development projects, and their findings show that communities or beneficiaries can be empowered by ensuring their participation in programme development, assessment and outreach. Pertaining to the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that respondents would agree that the contribution of local languages to the communication process would ensure sustainable ecotourism, 43 % of the respondents agreed to the highest level, 6 % disagreed to the highest level and neutral respondents comprised 14.8 %. As stipulated earlier, community empowerment was viewed by this study in terms of education programmes, access to information and the use of language. In addition to the general findings, the specific results in these three key areas are as follows:

Education Programmes

■ Education has been projected as key to a successful life and its associated development and so stakeholders both in the public and private sector are participating willingly in the process of offering education and building the capacity of various players in the tourism industry worldwide. Although, the education offered comprised both formal and informal programmes, the former has been emphasized more than the latter. In view of this, the Ecotourism Society compiled a list of universities that offer programmes and courses specializing in ecotourism (Hawkins and Lamoureux, 2001). As the demand for ecotourism education and the smooth offering of programmes has risen, the government of Tanzania has also increased its emphasis on this area, as evidenced by the establishment of the Tanzania Tourism Training Programme under the supervision of the MNRT to raise the standard of tourism education and the level of training, as well as increasing training capacity to meet the current and future needs of the sector. In an effort to achieve this, the following academic and training centres have been established:

i. **National College of Tourism (NCT):** It originated from the Hotel and Tourism Training Institute, established in 1969, under a British firm called "Hallmark Hotels Ltd". The objective of the college was to provide basic skills in Front Office Operations, Housekeeping and Laundry, Food Production and Food & Beverage Service. The Institute was first handed over to the Tanzania Tourist Corporation and then in 1977 to the MNRT. Due to the emerging need to improve service delivery and because of the growing demands of the tourism industry, NCT was launched as an Executive Agency under the MNRT in 2003, in accordance with Executive Agency Act No. 30 of 1997. As a result of its establishment, there is great potential for growth of both the hospitality and tourism sector in the country.

ii. **College of African Wildlife Management – Mweka, Moshi:** This was established in 1963 as a pioneer institution in the field of technical wildlife management. Despite the fact that the college operates as a parastatal organization under the MNRT, it serves all people in both the public and private sector with the vision of becoming a centre of excellence, providing professional and technical training, and research and consultancy services in African wildlife management. The enhancement of capacity is achieved through a number of activities, such as the provision of a relevant and diverse range of practical wildlife management training courses, as well as research and consultancy services.

iii. **Forestry Training Institute – Olmotonyi, Arusha (FTI):** This Institute was established in 1937 with the objective of providing a two-year training course for Forest Rangers at certificate and diploma level. The government conferred powers on FTI to perform its duties after receiving accreditation from the National Council for Technical Education in 2005. The FTI is responsible for delivering adequate knowledge, skills and attitudes to clients, who are expected to be involved in sustainable development and the management of trees, forests, bee resources and the environment and hence ecotourism and natural resources.

iv. **Forestry Industries Training Institute – Moshi:** This Institute was established in 1975 with the aim of providing technical knowledge on sawmills, logging and other wood-processing systems. From 1994 to 2003 it was not fully operational in the provision of long courses but instead offered short courses. The certificate level course in mechanical wood industries resumed in 2004. The Institute operates under the auspices of the MNRT.

v. **Community-Based Conservation Training Centre (CBCTC):** This training centre was established in July 1995 as a result of joint efforts between The United Republic of Tanzania and the Federal Republic of Germany, with the aim of aiding implementation of the National Wildlife Policy, which emphasizes Community participation in the Conservation and Utilization of Wildlife for Sustainable Development. The specific objectives of the CBCTC include the following: to equip villagers with appropriate knowledge and skills for controlling ravaging and dangerous game; to impress on them the importance of wildlife conservation for sustainable development and the importance of community participation in the conservation of natural resources; to set up community enterprises/projects, which are not destructive of the environment; and to teach them about behaviour, ecology and the movement of wildlife in their WMAs.

Tanzania has also established and coordinates other education centres serving related roles, such as the

Pasiansi Wildlife Training Institute in Mwanza, and the Beekeeping Training Institute in Tabora. In Zanzibar, under the Zanzibar Commission of Tourism, the Zanzibar Hotel and Tourism Institute operates mainly to develop human resources in the areas of front office management, food production, food and beverages and housekeeping, as well as offering short courses in being a tour guide, secretarial duties and small business management (Zanzibar Ecotourism Study, 2006). Moreover, most universities in the country, such as Sokoine University of Agriculture, University of Dar es Salaam, Saint Augustine University and the National College of Tourism, are now offering ecotourism-related courses. In spite of that, to date, the National College of Tourism is offering only courses at Diploma level as compared to its counterpart in Kenya (Utalii College) which is more competitive, offering both low and higher-level courses.

The integration of ecotourism education in some Tanzanian curricula demonstrates the value the country places on ecotourism. Despite these initiatives, with the exception of those offered at degree level, most of the tourism education provided in the training programmes of other colleges (which are the majority and are found all over the country) focus on producing human resources to serve in tourist hotels. In view of this fact, this study sees the need to diversify the education currently provided to cover all levels, from certificate to postgraduate. Such education programmes need to be offered to various parties, such as local communities, the government, non-governmental organizations, industry and tourists, as also supported by Wight (1994).

The response on the degree of agreement or disagreement with the link between offering basic ecotourism education and sustainable ecotourism shows that the most acceptable strategies are those offering basic ecotourism education to community members living in areas surrounding the ecotourism sites, which was agreed on by 56.7 %, followed by training all stakeholder groups and networks in ecotourism management (by 53.6 %) and increasing the awareness of ecotourism of decision makers (by 49.6 %). Although 14.5 % of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed on the effect of education on community empowerment and sustainable ecotourism, less than 2 % strongly disagreed with the linkage between the variables.

These findings could have resulted from the fact that community members residing in areas surrounding the ecotourism sites have a greater chance of protecting or destroying the attractions, and so if one is thinking of building the capacity of ecotourism stakeholders, the local community must be given first priority, followed by ecotourism networks and decision makers at the local government, due to the fact that these groups of stakeholders represent the majority of people. Most of the time, they are required to make certain decisions on behalf of the people in their areas or networks. In view

of this, network leaders and decision makers need to be informed so as to make sound decisions for the benefit of the majority and the sustainability of the sector. In line with this argument, the provision of capacity building and training for local communities, as well as technical support, was identified as key to the proper development of ecotourism in the region, as supported by the World Ecotourism Summit, (2002). Another targeted group that in general needs to be educated about ecotourism is the media, which often covers ecotourism without properly reflecting its real essence (ibid).

In assessing the probability of the respondents agreeing with the community empowerment strategies and their statistical significance as regards sustainable ecotourism, the findings on education (Table 4) revealed that the five predictors have different significance levels for the six selected education programme strategies, for instance that of strategy 1, offering basic ecotourism education to community members living in areas surrounding ecotourism sites. With the exception of education and the role of respondents in ecotourism, all other predictors in the model were statistically significant χ^2 (4, N=250), $P < 0.05$.

Notes. Refer to box 1 for strategies number 1-6

Although as regards strategy 2 on the need to train all stakeholder groups and networks in ecotourism management, the age and role of respondents were statistically insignificant, as regards strategy 3 on the provision of capacity building programmes for local community leaders, only residence and education level were significant. A different situation was observed in relation to strategy 6, in which the degree of agreement with the utilisation of non-governmental and community organizations in offering ecotourism education decreased in line with all the characteristics of the respondents (gender age, education, location, role of respondents). Details reflecting these strategies are presented in Box 1.

To ensure sustainable ecotourism, basic ecotourism education has to be offered to community members living in areas surrounding ecotourism sites, because indigenous people often lack the skills, resources and ability to get involved in, and maximize the benefits of, the tourism development process, as also evidenced by Sinclair, (2003) and Hinch and Butler, (2007). Ecotourism education will therefore ensure that stakeholders are aware of what is going on in their communities and how to act responsibly to meet their current and future needs as far as cultural and natural tourism's resources are concerned. Hence, all stakeholder groups and members of networks have to be trained in ecotourism management so that they can handle the management of ecotourism projects even in the absence of responsible officials from the government or non-governmental organizations. Moreover, local governments, with aid of other stakeholders and partners, should ensure that

Table 4 Effect of Education on Sustainable Ecotourism

Response		Degree of Agreement of the Education in Sustainable Ecotourism					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Case Processing Summary (%)	Very high	57.6	53.6	46.4	49.6	47.6	47.2
	High	26.6	29.2	35.7	36.8	33.2	34.4
	Moderate	12.4	12.0	13.6	11.2	14.4	23.2
	Low	3.6	4.0	3.2	2.0	3.6	4.4
	Very low	0.4	1.2	1.6	0.4	1.2	0.8
Pseudo R-Square (%)	Cox&Snell	46	53.4	54.5	44.6	50.1	42.6
	Negelkerke	52.2	59.6	60.3	50.7	55.4	47.2
Model Fit Information	χ^2 (N=250)						
	• Gender	(4 = 0.02)	(4 = 0.011)	(4 = 0.429)	(4 = 0.171)	(4 = 0.214)	(4, = 0.936)
	• Age	(16 = 0.029)	(16 = 0.145)	(16 = 0.093)	(16 = 0.340)	(16 = 0.001)	(16, = 0.820)
	• Residence	(28 = 0.001)	(28 = 0.003)	(28 = 0.002)	(28 = 0.010)	(28 = 0.000)	(28, = 0.008)
	• Education	(32 = 0.339)	(32 = 0.003)	(32 = 0.000)	(32 = 0.004)	(32 = 0.138)	(32, = 0.085)
	• Role	(44 = 0.071)	(44 = 0.007)	(44 = 0.148)	(44 = 0.005)	(44 = 0.000)	(44, = 0.398)

Source: Obtained from this study

capacity building programmes are provided for local community leaders with the aim of increasing their awareness of ecotourism matters and their enhancing their decision-making ability. Similar issues were emphasized at the World Ecotourism Summit (2002) in that, because capacity building and training programmes have been identified as key to the proper development of ecotourism, there is a need to build the capacity of local communities through training and technical support.

Furthermore, Byrd, (2007) argued that educating and informing the local community will strengthen the tourism industry and give a greater understanding of the tourism impacts the community perceives and the actual impacts that result from tourism. Educational institutions (such as schools, colleges and universities) have an important role to play in educating and providing ecotourism knowledge, through both formal and informal educational systems. The concept of ecotourism should be incorporated in related courses at schools, such as the environment, nature and its surroundings and sustainable development. At college level, relevant tourism or natural resources departments could offer special courses in ecotourism or sustainable tourism development that could be the foundation for elective courses for students. To provide real experience, schools should organize educational trips to natural sites. They may also consider organizing ecotourism activities/events on campus to increase students' awareness and provide ecotourism

information. In addition, schools could encourage and support the establishment of ecotourism clubs/ organizations, as also supported in Sangpikul and Batra (2007). Furthermore, regarding tourism and hospitality colleges, the study findings revealed that there should be a common curriculum in tourism and hospitality colleges and, since it will not be possible for all community members and other stakeholders to attend formal tourism and hospitality colleges, non-governmental and community organizations could be used to help provide ecotourism education. In addition to formal education, communities that have lived close to nature for centuries usually have wide environmental knowledge about the ecosystem and plant and animal species inhabiting it, which should not only be incorporated into community efforts at ensuring the viability of the ecosystem, but the knowledge should also be maintained. Avenues through which environmental and cultural knowledge can be passed to the next generation should be established (Michaelidou et al, 2002 and McNeely, 1992).

Access to Information

■ Tanzania, like other developing countries, aims at attaining high economic growth and poverty reduction. This can be achieved by implementing sound macroeconomic reforms, which include creating a conducive investment environment for attracting both domestic and foreign investors. So far, achievements have

been recorded in sectors like tourism, where increased investment in accommodation establishments has been registered. The improved performance of the tourism industry is also attributed to the joint efforts made by the Government and the private sector to develop the industry and market the country as a unique tourist destination. The sustainable development of the tourism industry depends on the availability of reliable tourism information for policy formulation and decision making (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2010). To ensure that information on tourism continues to be available, the multi-institutional committee, which consists of the MNRT, the Bank of Tanzania, the National Bureau of Statistics, the Immigration Department and the Zanzibar Commission for Tourism, conducted an International Visitors' Exit Survey in 2008. The key objective of the survey was to collect up-to-date information on tourist expenditure to be used in the "Tourist Expenditure Model" for estimating international tourism receipts in order to compile National Accounts and Balance of Payments statistics. The survey also aimed at obtaining information to be used for strategic planning, the promotion of tourism and macroeconomic policy formulation (ibid). In addition, various organizations are currently involved in providing information to tourists and other stakeholders. These are tour operators, hotel owners, investors and other private individuals, both in Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar. These stakeholders operate in terms of networks and associations, such as the Tourism Confederation of Tanzania, the Tanzania Association of Tour Operators, the Hotel Association of Tanzania, the Tanzania Hunting Operators Association, the Tanzania Society of Travel Agents, the Tanzania Air Operators Association, the Intra-Africa Tourism & Travel Association, the Tanzania Professional Hunters Association, the Zanzibar Tourism Investors Association, the Tanzania Tour Guides Association and the Tourism & Hotel Professionals Association of Tanzania.

In addition to those organizations, the government through MNRT has established an Information, Education and Communication Unit, also named the Government Communication Unit, with the main objective of communicating the Ministry's policies and other relevant information to all internal and external stakeholders. This information is communicated through both print and electronic media, such as brochures, posters, books, stickers and calendars, as well as the radio, television and mobile video vans. The print media are then distributed during seminars, meetings and special events like exhibitions. To encourage effective communication with the media, the Unit also organizes press conferences, press briefings and field trips to various natural resource sites in the country so as to make the media well informed about all the activities going on concerning the Natural Resources Sector, as depicted in MNRT (2012).

Another key organ in relation to tourism information in the country is the Tanzania Tourism Board (TTB),

which was established by the Act of Parliament known as the Tanzania National Tourism Board (Amendment) Act of 1992 to promote Tanzania in both the local and international market. In executing this function, the TTB works in close collaboration with the private sector, which comprises all operators and agents from the various sub-sectors of the industry, using a number of techniques, such as participating in local and international trade fairs and road shows, being involved in media/public relations and advertising in local and international media. Access to information has been established as one of the vital tools for empowering community members. Various strategies were put forward with regard to access to information, such as access to ecotourism publications and tourism information, having a reliable mechanism for communicating with stakeholders and making use of local leaders to receive and disseminate ecotourism information. When comparing the information and communication situation of other countries, the report of Sangpikul and Batra (2007) revealed that Thai youths received ecotourism information through government agencies and television programmes relating to ecotourism. Programmes like travel documentaries give audiences both an insight into the travel experience and knowledge of ecotourism. Another feasible option considered is using a popular celebrity to act as an anchor to encourage wider interest. Frequent access to information gives various alternatives, thereby helping people to make sound decisions, because psychological research shows that people make better decisions when they are able to compare alternatives (Pearce, 1997). The study findings (summarized in Table 5.) show that, regarding strategy 7 on enhancement of access to ecotourism publications, the full model containing only residence predictors was found to be statistically significant, resulting to between 48 (Cox and Snell R square) and 53 (Nagelkerke R square) of the variance. However, as regards strategy 9 on making use of reliable mechanisms for communicating with stakeholders, the full model containing only residence, education and role was statistically significant at 5% and 10% confidence interval, as revealed by χ^2 (21, N=250), $p < 0.000$, χ^2 (24, N=250), $p < 0.009$, and χ^2 (33, N=250), $p < 0.006$, respectively. The model explained between 50 (Cox and Snell R square) and 56 (Nagelkerke R square).

Notes. Refer to box 1 for strategies number 7-10

Moreover strategy 10, regarding 'to make use of local leaders to receive and disseminate ecotourism information' happened to be statistically insignificant due to having the highest significance value ($p > 0.05$) of all predictors, possibly because in some communities a number of the local leaders have shown various weaknesses when managing several developmental projects at the village or local governmental level, and so ecotourism stakeholders find it difficult to give them the full mandate to manage these issues. This was also supported by the findings that the model on making use of local leaders to receive and disseminate ecotourism

Table 5 Effect of Access to Information on Sustainable Ecotourism

Response		Degree of Agreement with Access to Information for Sustainable Ecotourism			
		7	8	9	10
Case Processing Summary (%)	Very high	39.6	48.4	46.8	42.0
	High	36.8	33.6	34.8	32.0
	Moderate	19.2	10.9	13.2	20.0
	Low	3.2	5.2	5.2	4.0
	Very low	1.2	1.6	0.0	2.0
Pseudo R-Square (%)	Cox&Snell	47.9	36.1	49.9	15
	Negelkerke	52.6	39.8	55.6	16.9
Model Fit Information	χ^2 (N=250)				
	• Gender	(df 4 = 0.924)	(df 4 = N/A)	(df 3 = 0.149)	(df 4, = 0.193)
	• Age	(df 16 = 0.096)	(df 16 = N/A)	(df 12 = 0.142)	(df 16, = N/A)
	• Residence	(df 28 = 0.000)	(df 28 = 0.616)	(df 21 = 0.000)	(df 28, = 0.252)
	• Education	(df 32 = 0.437)	(df 32 = N/A)	(df 24 = 0.009)	(df 32, = N/A)
• Role	(df 44 = 0.397)	(df 44 = 0.487)	(df 33 = 0.006)	(df 44, = 1.0)	

Source: Obtained from this study

information gave a poor reading (15 %) Cox and Snell R Square and (16.9) percent (Negelkerke R Square), while the model with a better reading was on increasing access to ecotourism publications, with (47.9 %) Cox and Snell R Square and (52.6 %) Negelkerke R Square). It is believed that access to information will personally empower stakeholders once they gain sufficient skills and knowledge to take action on ecotourism-related matters, as individuals or as a group, as well as laying the foundation for future dialogue.

Language

■ Tanzania has more than 120 tribes, each having its own language that is understood by people of that particular society, but Kiswahili has been used as the national language since independence. English was introduced later on as the official language, mainly for schools, offices and business communications. For a number of years the ecotourism sector has used English in most of its communications, such as during the preparation of communication materials and for sign boards at tourist attractions, as well as the medium of communication at meetings and conferences. In recent years things have started to change and some stakeholders have realized that, when foreign languages such as English and French are used, large groups of people, particularly in rural areas, fail to understand what is being said. The Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (2010) revealed that the principal

language of Tanzania is Kiswahili, but English was introduced as a second language in schools less than two decades ago, with the result that English is widely but not universally spoken and understood. Some organizations, particularly in the northern tourism circuit, are now using local languages, such as Kiswahili and Maasai, not only to enhance effective communication but also to preserve their cultural heritage.

Because language was found by the current study to make a significant contribution to the sustainability of ecotourism, foreign languages need to be avoided by communicators, especially when communicating with local community members. This was revealed by 40.8 and 28.2 % of the respondents strongly agreeing and agreeing, respectively. It is known for a fact that most local community members are not conversant with foreign languages and so there is a danger that messages will not be clearly delivered. The findings also revealed that both local vernacular and foreign languages, especially English, need to be used in some areas, as evidenced by over 70 % of the respondents (Table 6). The reason behind this is probably because in some cases both tourists and local stakeholders meet and so each one needs to understand the discussion or publication using his or her own language. In some situations, using the local vernacular might not be feasible because there are many of them, in particular at ecotourism attractions. Hence the need to use both foreign languages and Kiswahili was recommended,

Table 6 Effect of Language on Sustainable Ecotourism

Response		Degree of Agreement of the Language in Sustainable Ecotourism			
		11	12	13	14
Case Processing Summary (%)	Very high	40.8	42.4	27.2	28.8
	High	28.2	30.6	28.4	38.4
	Moderate	18.8	20.4	24.0	18.0
	Low	6.8	4.4	13.6	10.4
	Very low	6.4	2.8	6.8	4.4
Pseudo R-Square (%)	Cox&Snell	51.4	53.8	49.9	36.2
	Negelkerke	54.8	58.2	52.5	38.5
Model Fit Information	χ^2 (N=250)				
	• Gender	(df 4=0.592)	(df 4 =0.83)	(df 4 = 0.000)	(df 4, =0.000)
	• Age	(df 16 = 0.000)	(df 16 =0.023)	(df 16 = 0.000)	(df 16,= 0.27)
	• Residence	(df 28 = 0.003)	(df 28 = 0.005)	(df 28 = 0.000)	(df 28, = 0.003)
	• Education	(df 32= 0.029)	(df 32 = 0.000)	(df 32= 0.88)	(df 32, = 1)
	• Role	(df 44 = 0.001)	(df 44 = 0.001)	(df 44 = 0.039)	(df 44, = 0.003)

Source: Obtained from this study

although at a low level, as evidenced by the responses, of which 20% rated the need as low and very low while about 24 % were unsure as to whether to agree or not.

Notes. Refer to box 1 for strategies number 11-14

The findings also show that, although over 67 % thought that using both Kiswahili and local vernaculars to communicate with local community members might make a significant contribution to the empowerment of stakeholders, this is probably because a large group of people, mainly in rural areas, are interested in other cultural tools, such as tales, songs and drama. In addition, the findings show that for strategy 11 (avoid using foreign languages when communicating with the local community) and 12 (using both Kiswahili and the local vernacular when communicating with the local community) all predictor variables were statistically significant, with the exception of the gender of the respondents (χ^2 (4, N=250), $p > 0.05$). This indicates that the model was able to distinguish between respondents who agree and disagree with these strategies. The situation was different for strategy 13 on using both Kiswahili and foreign languages such as English when communicating with community members on all matters concerning ecotourism, whereby education was insignificant in the model ($P=0.88$).

Estimating Logit Models

■ This study also estimated all fourteen logit models that deliver the estimated probability of agreeing with each concerning the proposed community empowerment strategies for ensuring sustainable ecotourism in order to establish the attributes relating to each one. The models were assessed via two options, namely, whether the effect is increasing or decreasing the probability of agreement with the model in the study, as it was not realistic for the estimated values to interpret the direct effect of each independent variable. In view of that, the significant values obtained and regression coefficients were compared with the reference group (male respondents aged between 26 and 35, resident in Kilimanjaro, educated to the level of college certificate and who were local community members).

The overall findings reveal that, although the respondents' characteristics influencing the models were mostly residency and their role in ecotourism, the influence least observed was on gender and education, but the respondents' age showed no influence in any of the models. The reason for this observation might have been because people living near ecotourism attractions and working in the sector in any of the roles would give them the ability to see, assess and hence comment on whether or not the given initiatives influence their lives more than education, gender and age.

The specific findings depicted that, in all six strategies of education programmes (statements 1-6), the respondents' characteristics had no influence on either increasing or decreasing the probability of agreement. However, the results from the estimated logit models for the four strategies on access to information (numbers 7-10) reveal that the probability that respondents would agree on strategy ten, pertaining to making use of local leaders to receive and disseminate ecotourism information, would decrease if they were resident in Tanga and Manyara. A similar situation was observed for stakeholders assuming the role of transporters in ecotourism, and so the probability of agreeing with strategy 9 on making use of reliable machinery for communicating with stakeholders decreases with gender (female). For language strategies, the study findings also show that the probability that the respondents would agree with strategy eleven on avoiding the use of foreign languages when communicating with the local community decreases with gender and respondents living in Tanga and Manyara who are female. Likewise, the probability of agreement decreases with respondents who have attained advanced secondary level education (form six) and work as transporters. These results might be attributed to the fact that it is very uncommon for females at community level (especially in the villages) to use foreign languages. This is because most of them are not conversant with such languages. Also taking into account their lifestyle, a large number of them might interact a lot less with foreigners than men.

The same scenario was observed among residents of Tanga, because this region does not receive as many foreign tourists as other regions in the eastern and northern tourism circuits. Similarly, the residents of Tanga, like most people along the coast, use Kiswahili in their daily activities much more than people in the non-coastal regions of Tanzania, which is why other citizens used to call them the 'Waswahili'. Contrary to the findings on the decreasing influence of respondents who were transporters, the study expected to find the opposite, because transporters spend most of the time with foreign tourists and communicate with them using different foreign languages, such as English, French, Spanish and Italian. In addition, although it was thought likely that respondents would agree with strategy fourteen on using poetry and tales to educate stakeholders, that was not the case in Zanzibar, Tanga and Arusha, where residents disagreed. Therefore, it was assumed that the role of local government officers there reduced the probability of agreement with the strategy of making use of cultural tools, such as tales and poetry to educate people, with the intention of increasing the level of empowerment.

These findings on few respondents agreeing to strategy fourteen may be attributed to the fact that most of the time government officers carry out their tasks and responsibilities based on a set work plan and the use of certain tools, at either regional or district level, making it potentially difficult for them to incorporate other tools.

Moreover, it is believed that some local government officers lack creativity and are unwilling to change, and so using tales and poetry would be unacceptable to them as they perceived them to be primitive tools of communication.

Conclusion

■ Through an assessment of community empowerment strategies for sustainable ecotourism in Tanzania, education programmes, access to information and language were examined. Using the survey approach, data were collected from Tanzania's ecotourism stakeholders (N=250) in eight selected regions in the eastern and northern tourism circuits and analyzed through multinomial logit regression. On educational strategies, the findings revealed that most tourism education and training programmes provided focused on the management of tourist hotels, with little consideration being given to other stakeholders residing within or near ecotourism attractions. The findings also revealed the need for all stakeholders groups and networks to be trained in the basics of ecotourism management so that they could handle ecotourism-related issues, even in the absence of responsible officials from the government or non-governmental organizations. Moreover, the necessity of capacity building programmes being extended to local community leaders was identified so as to raise awareness and strengthen the decision-making ability of decision makers. On tourism and hospitality colleges, the need for a common curriculum was recognized, together with the use of non-governmental and community organizations to assist in the provision of ecotourism education for various groups within the community.

With regard to the link between community empowerment and access to information, the need for extra effort was identified as a means of ensuring that various stakeholders have adequate access to ecotourism publications and tourism information through the establishment of reliable communication mechanisms and the use of local leaders for the smooth flow of ecotourism information. Pertaining to the contribution of languages to the management of ecotourism, the findings revealed that the majority of local community members were not conversant with foreign languages, and so the use of both Kiswahili and local vernaculars would enable training and discussion sessions to be understood. Apart from this, it was established that, under certain conditions, both Kiswahili and foreign languages such as English could be used at the same time, with the help of translators, particularly when communicating with community members about some ecotourism matters in the presence of tourists. Furthermore, poetry and tales could also be used to educate stakeholders as they touch on the interests of local communities directly and often reflect their own traditional practices and beliefs.

Despite the fact that the findings make a significant contribution to various stakeholders, policy makers and research centres as far as filling a gap in the literature and adding to the body of knowledge on community empowerment strategies is concerned, there are other areas that still need further research and attention, and so the following recommendations are made. First of all, ecotourism stakeholders and the general public should take the chance to invest and participate in developing infrastructural support, such as training and information centres, so that local communities and other stakeholders are provided with relevant education and information.

With respect to further research, the study wishes to see research conducted on a structural framework that would ensure that the community is empowered in terms of an ecotourism curriculum, especially for the informal education system, as well as on the dissemination and translation of ecotourism information that would be appropriate for meeting stakeholders' needs and for fitting in with both local and central government systems. Such research is needed because the local community needs to be empowered to decide on what forms of tourism facilities and wildlife conservation programmes they want to be developed in their respective communities, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders. This contention is also supported by Akama, (1996).

Moreover, policy and decision makers should emphasize measures for empowering the community and other stakeholders that are feasible and sustainable, such as providing basic ecotourism and conservation education, expanding access to information and ensuring regular communication. At the moment as there is great chance of ecotourism being sustainable if community members and other stakeholders are properly empowered to manage and contribute to ecotourism-related activities and projects. This is because the empowerment of individuals leads to their increasing self-efficacy, which is critical for systematically searching for opportunities for change and innovation through leadership, Drucker, (1985). In view of this, further studies are recommended on what issues should be included in the ecotourism curriculum in formal colleges and various education programmes offered to stakeholders in different areas of the country, taking into account their differences in education level and ecotourism attractions.

References

- Akama, J. (1996). Western environmental values and nature-based tourism in Kenya. *Tourism Management*, Vol 17. No. 8, 567-574.
- Alsop, R., Bertelsen, M.F. and Holland, J. (2006). *Empowerment in Practice: From Analysis to Implementation*.
- The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank.
- Anderson, S. C, Wilson. M. K, Mwansa, L.K and Osei-Hwedie, K. (1994). Empowerment and Social Work Education and Practice in Africa. *Social Development in Africa*. Vol 9. No. 2, 71-86.
- Anderson, W. (2009). Promoting Ecotourism through Networks: Case Studies in the Balearic Islands. *Journal of Ecotourism*. Vol. 8 No.1, 51-69
- Anderson, W. (2010). Determinants of all-inclusive travel expenditure. *Tourism Review*. Vol. 65 No. 3, 4-15.
- Association of Women in Tourism Tanzania (2012), *AWOTA first chairperson Mary Consolata Kalikawe's message*. Retrieved on Tuesday 22nd May 2012. www.awotta.org.
- Australian Government Overseas Aid Program (2000). *Good Governance: Guiding Principles for Implementation*. Australian Agency for International Development.
- Byrd, E. T. (2007). Stakeholders in Sustainable Tourism Development and their Roles: Applying Stakeholder Theory to Sustainable Tourism Development. *Journal of Tourism*. Vol. 67 No. 2, 6-13.
- Carlson, L. (2009). *Tanzania Tourism and Travel News*. <http://www.tanzaniainvest.com>, visited on June 20, 2009 at 10:10 am.
- Ceballos-Lascurain Architect (1983). *Definition adopted by the World Conservation Union (IUCN) and World Tourism Organization (WTO) in 1993*.
- Department of Communities and Local Government (2008). <http://www.communities.gov.uk/corporate/> visited on 12 August, 2008 at 12:30 pm.
- Doods, R. (2008). *Is sustainable Tourism Achievable?*. <http://www.sustainabletourism.net/> visited on 16th June 2009 at 10:30 am.
- Drucker, P. (1985). *Innovation and entrepreneurship*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Duffy, R. (2002). *A trip too far: Ecotourism, politics & exploitation*. Sterling, London: Earthscan Publications, Ltd.
- Ecotourism Australia (2008). www.ecotourism.org.au visited on 10 August, 2009 at 10:50 am
- Empower Tanzania Inc (2012). *Empowering the people of rural Tanzania*. <http://www.empowertz.org/>, retrieved on Tuesday 22nd May 2012.
- Empter, S. and Josef. J. (2009). Sustainable Governance

- Indicators 2009 - An Introduction, in: Bertelsmann Stiftung (ed.): *Sustainable Governance Indicators Policy Performance and Executive Capacity in the OECD*. Gütersloh: Verlag Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2009.
- Fennell, D. & Butler, R. (2003). A human ecological approach to tourism interactions. *International Journal of Tourism Research*. Vol. 5, 197-210.
- Hawkins, D. & Khan, M. (2001). Ecotourism opportunities for developing countries. In W. Theobald (Ed.), *Global Tourism 2nd Edition* (pp. 191-204). Oxford, UK: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Higham, J. (2007). *Ecotourism: competing and conflicting schools of thought*. In: J. Higham (Ed.) *Critical issues in ecotourism: Understanding a complex tourism phenomenon*. London, Great Britain: Elsevier, pp. 1-20.
- Hinch, T. and Butler, R. (2007). *Introduction: revisiting common ground*. In: R. Butler and T. Hinch (Eds.). *Tourism and indigenous peoples: issues and implications*. Oxford, Elsevier Ltd, pp. 1-14.
- Hipwell, W. (2007). Towards Aboriginal Ecotourism Tanayiku Natural Ecological Park. *Annals of Tourism Research*. Vol 34. No.4, 876-897.
- Honey, M. (2008). *Ecotourism and Sustainable Development 2nd Edition*. Island Press.
- Jusko, J. (1994). *CHIC Addresses Threats to Tourism*. Hotel and Motel Management, (209): 6-29.
- Kweka, J. (2006). *Empower Tanzania*. A Paper Presented By the Executive Secretary of the National Economic Empowerment Council in a Policy Dialogue Seminar Organized by ESRF on 7th September, 2006.
- Kweka, J., Morrissey, O and Brake, A. (2003). The Economic Potential of Tourism in Tanzania. *Journal of International Development* J. Int. Dev. 15, 335-351 (2003) Published online in Wiley InterScience (www.interscience.wiley.com). DOI: 10.1002/jid.990.
- Luhanjo, F. (2002). *Ecotourism development in Tanzania: The Sustainability Challenge*. Statement by Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism-Tanzania, at the summit of celebration of the international year of ecotourism, Quebec Canada, 19-22 may 2002.
- Luvanga and Shitundu (2003). *The Role of Tourism in Poverty Alleviation in Tanzania*. Research Report No. 03.4, Mkuki na Nyota Publishers for Research on Poverty Alleviation (REPOA).
- McKercher, B. (2001). Attitudes to a non-viable community-owned heritage tourist attraction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol 9. No. 1, 29-43.
- McKercher, B. (2003). *Sustainable Tourism Development – Guiding Principles for Planning and Management*. Presentation to the National Seminar on Sustainable tourism Development Bishkek, Kyrgystan, November 5 – 9, 2003.
- Mc Neely J. A. (1992). *The Biodiversity Crisis: Challenges for Research and Management*. In Sandlund O. T., K. Hindar & A. H. D. Brown (eds.). *Conservation of Biodiversity for Sustainable Development*. pp. 15-26. Scandinavian University Press, Oslo.
- Michaelidou M., D. J. Decker & J. P. Lassoie (2002). *The Interdependence of Ecosystem and Community Viability: A Theoretical Framework to Guide Research and Application*. In Society and Natural Resources 15, 599-616. Taylor & Francis
- Miller (2007). *Global Ecotourism Conference*. Oslo Norway, May 14-18.
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2009). www.mtnr.or.tz visited on 10 June, 2009 at 07:00 p.
- Minj, A. and Kumar, A. (2008). Empowering Stakeholders. *Jharkhand Journal of Development and Management Studies* XISS, Ranchi, Vol. 6, No. 1, March 2008, pp. 2825-2827.
- Mwamwaja, E. (2006). *Developing Sustainable Tourism in Tanzania*. A Paper Presented in USAID Training Seminar on Sustainable Tourism in Arusha on 19/02/2006.
- Napier, A. (2008). Empowerment Theory. <http://www.docstoc.com/docs/4358549/empowerment-theory>, retrieved on 2 Dec, 2008.
- Nelson, F. (2004). *The evolution and impacts of community-based ecotourism in northern Tanzania*. International Institute for Environmental Development. Issue No. 131
- Ofori-Amaah, N. B. (2007). *Conservation for Sustainable Development? Ecotourism in Tanzania*. A Thesis Presented to the Committee on Degrees in Environmental Science and Public Policy in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a degree with honors of Bachelor of Arts Harvard College Cambridge, Massachusetts March 2007.
- Osborne, S.P. (1994). The Language of Empowerment. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*. Vol 7. No 3, 56-62.
- Sangpikul and Batra (2007). Ecotourism: Knowledge, Attitude and Travel Experience of Thai. *Journal of*

Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education. Vol 6. No.1, 81-85.

Scheyvens, R (1999) . "Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities". *Tourism Management*. Vol 20. No. 2, (1999) 245-249.

Sinclair, D. (2003). Developing Indigenous tourism: Challenges for the Guianas. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. Vol 15. No. 3, 140-146.

Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (2010). The 2008 International Visitors' Exit Survey Report.

Tanzania Tourist Board (2009). www.ttb.or.tz visited on 10 June, 2009 at 1:10 am.

Wight, P. (1993). Ecotourism: Ethics or Eco-self?. *Journal of Travel Research*, Winter, 3-9.

Wight, P. (1994). *Environmentally Responsible Marketing of Tourism*. In "Ecotourism: A Sustainable Option?", edited by E. Cater and G. Lowman. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons and Royal Geographical Society, pp. 39-55.

World Ecotourism Summit (Québec, Canada, 19 – 22 May 2002) <http://www.gdrc.org/uem/eco-tour/Final-Report-WES-Eng.pdf> visited on 12 July, 2011.

Contact details:

Liliane Pasape
School of Business Studies and Humanities
The Nelson Mandela African Institution of
Science and Technology (NM-AIST).

Phone: +255- 754 364675 and
+255-712 530021

Fax: +255 -22 -2410006

E-mail: lilypasape@yahoo.com

Bibliographical note

■ Liliane Pasape is a Lecturer at the Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science and Technology (NM-AIST). Her research interests include sustainability of ecotourism, stakeholders' perspectives of tourism, entrepreneurship and innovation management.

■ Wineaster Anderson is a Senior Lecturer at University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), where she has been since 2001. Dr. Anderson received Bachelor of Commerce and MBA Degrees (UDSM) and Masters and PhD in Tourism and Environmental Economics from the University of Balearic Islands, Spain

■ George Lindi is a Senior Lecturer at University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM). Dr. Lindi received Bachelor of Commerce (UDSM), then Master of Commerce (University of Strathclyde, UK) and PhD from the University of Economics and Business Administration in Vienna, Austria

La gobernanza de los convenios de colaboración en España: La gestión participativa del turismo frente la jerarquización de la acción social

Ana Haro González

Department of Government. Intercultural Center.
Georgetown University. Washington DC, USA

Recibido: 17 Marzo 2014; Aceptado: 28 Marzo 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Resumen

■ La gobernanza de los convenios de colaboración entre diferentes niveles de gobierno es un tema de creciente interés que no ha recibido mucha atención por parte de la literatura. Con la intención de contribuir a un mejor conocimiento de este instrumento de gestión, este artículo identifica dos modelos de gobernanza, analizando las políticas de turismo y accesibilidad para personas con impedimentos físicos en España para entender sus dinámicas. Este análisis nos permite observar que la gobernanza participativa permite el involucramiento de todos los actores en la gestión de los proyectos, siendo por ello más efectiva para la gestión de proyectos de turismo. Por su parte, el análisis de la gobernanza jerárquica nos muestra una mayor incidencia de los actores del centro, encontrándose así en sectores estratégicos como la accesibilidad. Se trata, por tanto, de un estudio comparado que dibuja algunas conclusiones que pueden servir como referencia para otras experiencias en América Latina.

Palabras clave:

Gobernanza, convenio, participación, jerarquía, turismo, accesibilidad

Abstract

■ The governance of collaborative agreements among different levels of government is a new subject that has not been sufficiently studied by the literature. Aiming to contribute to a better knowledge of this management tool, this paper identifies two models of governance, analyzing tourism and accessibility policies in order to comprehend their dynamics. The analysis shows that the participative model allows the different governmental actors to take responsibilities in the management of the projects, being thus more effective for policies of tourism. The study also shows that the hierarchical model has a stronger presence of the central institutions, being more appropriate for focused policies such as accessibility for disable people. It is a compared study that draws interesting conclusions which might be useful for Latin American countries.

Key Words:

Governance, agreement, participation, hierarchy, tourism, accessibility

Introducción

■ Los convenios de colaboración son instrumentos de gestión intergubernamental que permiten a varias administraciones trabajar de manera conjunta y dar respuesta a diferentes problemas sociales de forma coordinada. La aprobación de un convenio implica, por tanto, el establecimiento de una red de gobernanza en la que la dirección, el liderazgo y la responsabilidad se reparten entre los diferentes actores que la conforman. Esta nueva forma de discutir, negociar y diseñar políticas públicas puede tomar diferentes caminos y dar, por tanto, cabida a muy diferentes formas de actuación. En ese sentido, cabe preguntarse ¿qué modelos de gobernanza predominan en la actualidad? ¿Qué consecuencias tiene la aplicación de esos modelos en políticas públicas de desarrollo económico o en políticas sociales?

Este artículo tiene como objetivo comparar la gobernanza del convenio en materia de turismo y de accesibilidad para personas con impedimentos físicos. Para ello, el mismo analiza la gobernanza de los convenios de turismo y de accesibilidad en España. El análisis inductivo de los convenios de colaboración permitirá dibujar y comparar dos modelos diferentes de gobernanza. Así, este ejercicio servirá, en primer lugar, para conocer cómo se gestiona el turismo y la acción social en España, observando las dinámicas intergubernamentales que marcan el ritmo de esa gestión. En segundo lugar, el análisis permitirá comparar dos modelos distintos de gobernanza, observando cuáles son las ventajas y los inconvenientes que crea cada modelo de gestión.

El caso español se presenta como un caso interesante dado el alto nivel de descentralización que muestra el país y dada la ambición de su sistema público para buscar nuevos instrumentos de gobernanza multinivel que favorezcan la consolidación de nuevos equilibrios territoriales. Esta experiencia puede ofrecer algunas pistas interesantes para los países latinoamericanos que se enfrentan ahora a retos similares.

La gobernanza como concepto

■ La gobernanza es un concepto confuso. El término gobernanza surge de las reformas del sector público llevadas a cabo en Gran Bretaña por Margaret Thatcher en los años 80. En ese momento, se realizan toda una serie de transformaciones encaminadas a descongestionar la responsabilidad del Estado frente a las demandas de los ciudadanos. El sector público busca eficacia y, para ello, traslada a la gestión estatal los mecanismos y los procedimientos del sector privado. Esto significa una fuerte terciarización de los servicios públicos y un notable recorte del gasto público. En este proceso, la gobernanza entrará como el conjunto de procedimientos de gestión que maximizarán la eficacia de un servicio.

El concepto es llevado a otros escenarios de las ciencias sociales. Encontramos el concepto en las Relaciones Internacionales donde, entre otras, se entendería por gobernanza al sistema de reglas, al nivel de la actividad humana en el que la persecución de objetivos a través de ejercicios de control tiene repercusiones transnacionales (Rosenau, 1995: 13); por su parte, en el ámbito de la administración y políticas públicas, Rhodes entenderá a la gobernanza como las redes auto-gestionadas e interorganizacionales caracterizadas por la independencia, el intercambio de recursos, las reglas del juego y una autonomía significativa del Estado (Rhodes 1997); finalmente, Hyden, en política comparada, entenderá que la gobernanza es el establecimiento de reglas del juego políticas formales o informales. Gobernanza se refiere al ejercicio de poder y la superación de los conflictos por encima de dichas reglas (Hyden 1999:185)

Las instituciones internacionales, por su parte, también trabajan el concepto de gobernanza. En este caso, la gobernanza se entiende como una figura en la que se mezclan elementos cercanos a la gobernabilidad, donde se destacan las capacidades y posibilidades de los actores y responsables políticos para satisfacer las demandas de la ciudadanía, y elementos cercanos a la concepción inicial de gobernanza, donde se buscan los instrumentos y procedimientos que permitieran la gestión eficaz de esos servicios demandados por los ciudadanos. Así, el Banco Mundial irá cambiando su definición de gobernanza, comenzando con una definición cercana a la gestión económica de los recursos y a la búsqueda de la estabilidad financiera de los países en desarrollo (World Bank 1992) y terminando con una más reciente definición, más cercana al neoinstitucionalismo, donde la gobernanza se transforma en una forma de gestión de los recursos públicos efectiva y participativa, donde la eficiencia se alcanza cuando la provisión de los servicios públicos se hace de manera transparente, responsable y representativa (Stone and Wriqth 2007).

Con la democratización de los procedimientos de gobierno, la oleada de descentralizaciones, la terciarización de los servicios públicos y el ascenso de nuevos grupos de presión desde la sociedad civil, el concepto de gobernanza sufre un giro desde esa postura más eficientista hacia una concepción más participativa. La gobernanza se apoyará ahora en la relación que se establece entre los diferentes actores que participan en una determinada acción de gobierno. Esos actores se tienen que poner de acuerdo para sentar unas reglas básicas de funcionamiento en la gestión y poder tomar las decisiones de manera pactada y ordenada. La gobernanza establece una serie de instituciones formales e informales, unos patrones de conducta, unas reglas del juego que permiten que las políticas públicas salgan adelante con la participación de todos los agentes.

Dentro de este nuevo marco, Anne Mette Kjaer define a la gobernanza como el establecimiento, la aplicación

y el refuerzo de las reglas del juego¹ (Kjaer 2004). Esta definición estaría fuertemente vinculada a las concepciones últimas de gobernanza, donde primarían los valores de democracia y participación y donde estaría muy presente el elemento de la toma de decisiones. Diversos actores establecen, aplican y refuerzan una serie de pautas de actuación, ante esto surgen varias preguntas ¿cómo intervienen los actores en este proceso? ¿cómo se relacionan estos actores entre sí? ¿quién toma las decisiones en este marco plural? ¿cómo se distribuye la responsabilidad entre los mencionados actores?

Entre las diferentes definiciones que la literatura ha dado al concepto de gobernanza, la definición de Mette Kjaer parece ser la que mejor se adapta a la realidad gerencial de las sociedades actuales. Hoy en día, la gestión pública es una actividad que engloba actores de muy diferente naturaleza, favoreciendo la canalización de información y el ajuste de las políticas a los usuarios y haciendo más compleja al mismo tiempo la toma de decisiones. Dicho esto, el presente artículo se apoyará en el paraguas conceptual proporcionado por Kjaer, analizando el convenio de colaboración en diferentes materias para desglosar las relaciones gerenciales de las que la habla la autora.

Diferentes modelos de gobernanza de un convenio de colaboración

■ La aplicación del debate de la gobernanza y, en particular de la definición de Anne Mette Kjaer, a los convenios de colaboración, llevaría a preguntarse acerca de la gestión interna del convenio, de la toma de decisiones que en él se hace y del establecimiento de las reglas de juego que van a permitir la puesta en práctica del mismo. El convenio de colaboración está firmado por una serie de actores partícipes, se apoya en una serie de normas y reglas definidas, se acoge a un tipo de gestión determinada y sus actores responden jurídicamente ante las acciones que en él desarrollan. En este sentido, cualquier modelo de gobernanza de un convenio tendría que responder a varias preguntas:

1. Reglas del juego: ¿Se ampara el convenio en algún acuerdo marco? ¿Quién elabora dicho acuerdo? ¿Cuáles son las pautas de comportamiento que deberán de seguir los actores?
2. Actores: ¿Cuántos agentes participan en la firma del convenio? ¿Cuántos participan en la financiación?
3. Toma de decisiones: ¿Cómo se seleccionan los casos que se van a financiar? ¿Quién los selecciona?

¹ Traducción del autor. La definición original es "the setting rules, the application of rules and the enforcement of rules (Kjaer: 2004: 20)

¿Quién elige los proyectos que se van a financiar?

4. Organización interna: ¿Cómo se organizan los órganos de seguimiento? ¿Con qué frecuencia se producen los necesarios contactos?
5. Responsabilidad: ¿Cómo responden los actores ante sus acciones? ¿Cómo se ejerce el control sobre dichas acciones?

La respuesta a estas preguntas dará como resultado un tipo determinado de gestión y de gobernanza. Así, el tipo de gobernanza será muy diferente según sean las reglas del juego, los patrones de conducta, la toma de decisiones, la organización interna o el tipo de responsabilidad. Una composición teórica exploratoria indicaría la existencia de múltiples formas de gobernanza, encontrándose sin embargo dos extremos típico-ideales marcados por la democratización o jerarquía de la toma de decisiones. Para conocer mejor la lógica de estos dos extremos, en los próximos apartados se analizarán dos formas diferentes de gestionar un convenio de colaboración, acudiendo a las políticas de turismo y de accesibilidad para desglosar sus dinámicas y funcionamiento. Este análisis servirá para dar forma a los dos modelos de gobernanza que coronarán el eje decisional de la gobernanza del convenio.

Modelo de colaboración participativa en España

■ A grandes rasgos, el modelo de colaboración participativa sería aquel que concedería igual grado de participación a las partes que firman el convenio. En él, los criterios de selección de casos, los proyectos que se van a financiar, la toma de decisiones y el seguimiento del convenio se realizaría de manera conjunta. Aterrizando las preguntas planteadas más arriba, se observa que en España la Administración central del Estado (ACE) abre espacios de negociación para que participen los niveles subnacionales, recayendo la responsabilidad de las acciones en los diferentes entes partícipes. La negociación entre administraciones suele conllevar la firma de instrumentos de colaboración, entre los cuales destaca el convenio. Cuando los agentes participantes en la negociación adquieren las mismas responsabilidades y pueden incidir con la misma fuerza en la gestión de la competencia tratada, se puede decir que nos encontramos ante una gobernanza del convenio de carácter horizontal.

En España, los criterios de selección de casos se sientan en la Conferencia Sectorial correspondiente donde participará la ACE y los gobiernos regionales (Comunidades Autónomas-CCAA). En estas reuniones, se fijarán también los objetivos de los planes y de los convenios y la organización interna que deberá de seguir el convenio. Se propone como órgano gestor del convenio a una Comisión de Seguimiento que concederá el mismo

peso a todas las entidades participantes. A partir de ahí, el convenio será gobernado por la Comisión de Seguimiento y las nuevas decisiones se tomarán en su propio seno.

En estos casos, la colaboración se prolonga a lo largo de la duración del convenio. La Comisión de Seguimiento, en la que participan la ACE, las Comunidades Autónomas y, en su caso, los terceros agentes que firmen el convenio, toma decisiones de manera constante y define, cada cierto tiempo, los nuevos proyectos y las nuevas necesidades que surgen del convenio. La colaboración exige un contacto continuado y una constante redefinición del consenso. Las Comunidades Autónomas y los terceros agentes enviarán los documentos de control al Ministerio, la memoria de los proyectos y de la financiación. La ACE supervisará que el desarrollo del convenio haya seguido las directrices marcadas.

Modelo de colaboración participativa: la gestión del turismo

■ En las últimas décadas, se han llevado a cabo varios Planes de Turismo en España. El objetivo de estos planes era convertir al turismo en una actividad económica fuerte y consolidada. En concreto se han firmado tres Planes desde 1992: el Plan Futures I (1992-1996), el Plan Futures II (1996-2000) y el PICTE (2002-2006). Los objetivos de los planes han ido variando a lo largo del tiempo, sin embargo, destacan dos grandes líneas de acción: la dinamización de determinadas zonas con grandes potencialidades turísticas y la mejora y perfeccionamiento de aquellos enclaves turísticos ya explotados.

Los objetivos de los planes de Turismo, consensuados, casi siempre, en las Conferencias Sectoriales, se articulan a través de los ya conocidos convenios de colaboración. Estos convenios se corresponderán con las dos líneas de acción comentadas en el párrafo anterior, encontrando así, convenios de dinamización turística y convenios de excelencia turística. A pesar de la diferenciación de objetivos, puede considerarse que todos los convenios en materia de Turismo pertenecen a un único formato de convenio.

La mayoría de los convenios se firman entre el Ministerio, la Comunidad Autónoma y el Ayuntamiento correspondiente. Además, se suele invitar a otros agentes sociales y privados que puedan contribuir a un mejor diseño y desarrollo de los proyectos. La gestión del convenio en estos casos es realmente interesante al crearse, además de las relaciones intergubernamentales verticales, toda una serie de relaciones intergubernamentales horizontales que potencian el valor de las acciones del convenio.

Los convenios de colaboración en materia de Turismo siguen un modelo de gobernanza especialmente participativo. Absolutamente todos los convenios del rango cuentan con la financiación de tres agentes: la ACE, las CCAA y los entes locales. Además de éstos, firmarán

el convenio y participarán en su gestión agentes del sector privado. La participación de estos cuatro agentes convierte al convenio en un foro de encuentro de las tres administraciones y el sector privado, y crea una gestión de redes que, como se verá, trascenderá, incluso, más allá del propio convenio.

El órgano central de la colaboración en los convenios de Turismo viene representado por la Comisión de Seguimiento. Esta comisión no sólo supervisa la evolución del convenio sino que ejerce de órgano decisor en todas las actuaciones. Cada Comisión de Seguimiento está constituida por dos representantes de la ACE, dos representantes de la CCAA, dos representantes de los entes locales y dos representantes del sector privado. Las tres administraciones tienen voz y voto. El sector privado, salvo contadas ocasiones, tiene voz pero no tiene voto. Participará también en las Comisiones de Seguimiento el Gerente del Plan. Éste será el encargado de la gestión diaria del convenio. La selección del gerente se realiza de acuerdo a los procedimientos administrativos de la entidad local participante. El Gerente participa en las Comisiones de Seguimiento con voz pero sin voto.

Las decisiones se toman en la Comisión de Seguimiento de manera consensuada. Todos los agentes partícipes alimentan la discusión y proponen nuevas ideas para el convenio. Toda decisión tiene que ser aprobada por unanimidad de las tres administraciones lo que convierte al convenio en un elemento realmente participativo. La secuencia del convenio se produce de la siguiente manera: los ayuntamientos que están interesados en llevar a cabo un convenio de revitalización turística presentan a la Comunidad Autónoma un documento con las potencialidades de la región. La Comunidad Autónoma, entre las propuestas enviadas, selecciona aquellos casos que considere prioritarios de acuerdo a una serie de criterios propios de cada Comunidad. La Comunidad Autónoma envía los casos seleccionados al Ministerio.

Los criterios para seleccionar los municipios definitivos que van a recibir financiación se establecen en la Conferencia Sectorial de Turismo. En realidad, los criterios se discuten primero en la Conferencia de Directores Generales. Una vez seleccionados los criterios, éstos serán enviados a la Conferencia Sectorial donde se aprobarán. Una vez aprobados, cada Comunidad presenta, de nuevo en la reunión de Directores Generales, sus propuestas de financiación. El Ministerio seleccionará aquellos casos que se correspondan con los objetivos de los Planes y que se definan por los criterios seleccionados.

La selección de casos activa automáticamente las funciones y la responsabilidad de la Comisión de Seguimiento. A partir de ese momento, todas las decisiones deberán de ser tomadas de manera conjunta y por unanimidad. A diferencia de los convenios gestionado por el modelo jerárquico, los proyectos que recibirán financiación serán elegidos desde la propia Comisión de Seguimiento. En este

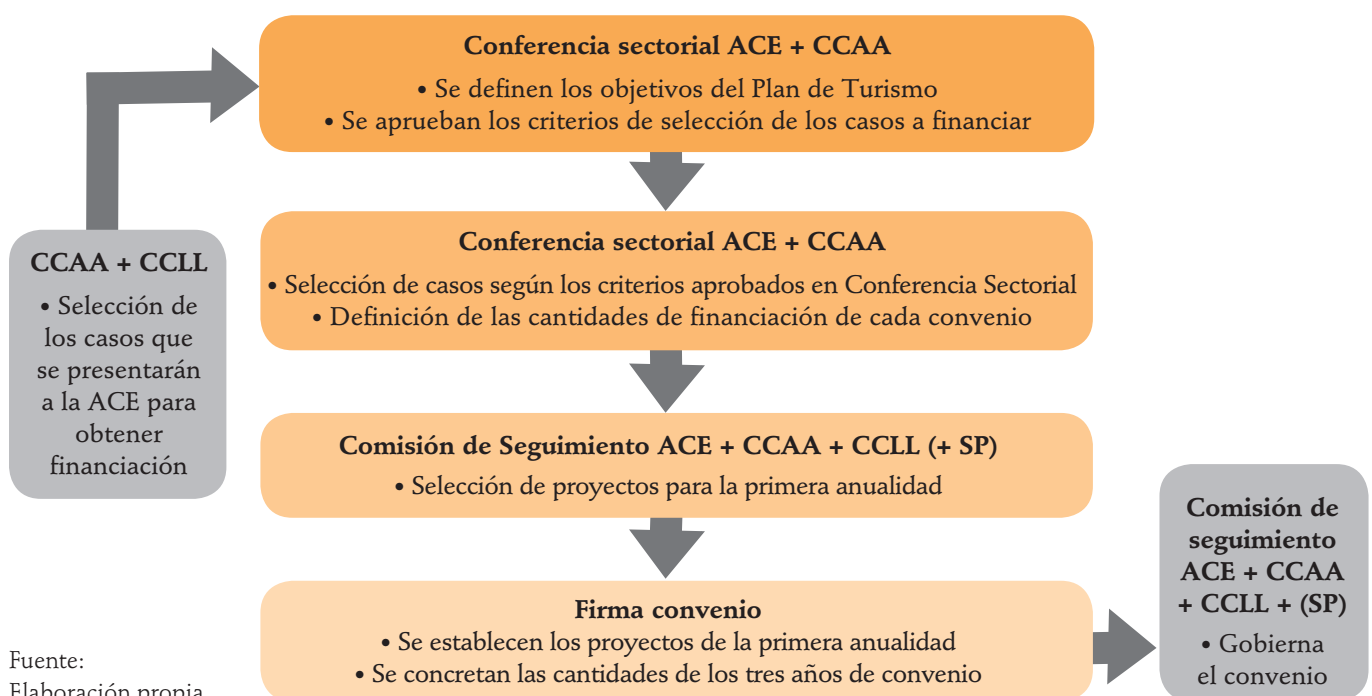
caso, la ACE no será la que ponga el límite a la decisión de los entes subnacionales sino que todas las entidades consensuarán las actividades a realizar. El Gerente del proyecto supervisará el desarrollo diario del convenio y comunicará a las tres administraciones las novedades que precisen de una nueva decisión. Las entidades subnacionales enviarán al Ministerio los documentos justificativos precisados. El Ministerio ejercerá la labor de controlar que el convenio ha seguido las directrices y procedimientos acordados en la firma del mismo.

Resulta especialmente interesante en los convenios de colaboración en materia de Turismo, las redes de gestión que se consolidan y que, trascienden, en muchas ocasiones, los términos del propio convenio. Muchas veces, los proyectos que se seleccionan en la Comisión de Seguimiento vinculan a otros municipios u otros terceros agentes. A modo de ejemplo, citaremos el caso de la Comarca del Sobrarbe, en Aragón. En este caso, la Comisión de Seguimiento disponía de una serie de fondos para financiar determinados proyectos. De manera unánime, se decidió utilizar parte de los fondos para firmar pequeños acuerdos con otros agentes ajenos al convenio. Así, se consiguió firmar algunos convenios con municipios de la comarca donde, el Convenio de Turismo aportaba la mayor parte del dinero (70-85%) y el municipio interesado aportaba la cantidad restante. Esto permitió la revalorización turística de ciertos pueblos situados en el área del Convenio de Turismo, así como la creación de toda una serie de redes que trascendían al convenio inicial y optimizaban las intenciones del Plan.

Cabe destacar, asimismo, que la gestión de los convenios de Turismo ha permitido la configuración de mecanismos horizontales de colaboración. Es el caso de Sierra Espuña en Murcia. Antes del Plan de Dinamización Turística, el Parque Nacional de Sierra Espuña estaba dividido en dos regiones históricas y naturales diferentes. La posibilidad de mancomunar a estas dos regiones para obtener financiación por parte del convenio llevó a los diferentes ayuntamientos de la Sierra a negociar y a trabajar de manera conjunta. Así, los ayuntamientos que integraban el Parque Nacional de Sierra Espuña presentaron a la Comunidad la posibilidad de llevar a cabo un convenio de colaboración en materia turística. Esta propuesta siguió los pasos correspondientes al proceso comenzado hasta conseguir la firma del correspondiente convenio. La Mancomunidad de Sierra Espuña se constituye como foro de colaboración de los ayuntamientos en materia de turismo. La presidencia de la Mancomunidad es rotatoria de manera que todos los alcaldes participan, en algún momento, en la Comisión de Seguimiento. Asimismo, se invita como consejeros a todos los alcaldes a todas las reuniones en las que se traten temas relativos a sus municipios.

Con todo esto, resultan interesantes las posibilidades que concede el convenio de colaboración en materia de Turismo. No sólo ofrece la igualdad de las Administraciones en la toma de decisiones sino que potencia la colaboración con otros agentes externos. La gestión de redes se amplía con este tipo de colaboración. Un resumen del modelo de gobernanza participativo de las políticas de turismo en España queda reflejado en el esquema 1.

Esquema 1 Gobernanza participativa en materia de turismo en España



Fuente:
Elaboración propia

Modelo de colaboración jerárquica

■ Frente al modelo de gobernanza participativa, se encuentra el modelo de colaboración jerárquica. Este modelo implica la preponderancia de un determinado agente sobre los otros. Este mejor posicionamiento permite al agente privilegiado imponer una serie de directrices y establecer una serie de criterios propios que determinarán el direccionamiento del convenio. En estos casos, en España, la Administración Central del Estado parte, inicialmente, de una posición aventajada en la negociación. El Estado tiene una serie de fondos que debe distribuir. Para llevar a cabo la distribución, la ACE decide utilizar el instrumento del convenio de colaboración. Este instrumento implica la participación financiera paritaria entre los agentes que lo firman. Esta igualación de esfuerzos y voluntades debería de situar a los diferentes agentes en un mismo plano y debería de ofrecer espacios de negociación horizontal entre las diferentes partes. Sin embargo, la ACE, al ser el impulsor del convenio y al ejercer con él una labor de coordinación, consigue guardarse para sí determinadas funciones básicas.

En la mayoría de los convenios, se decide en Conferencia sectorial las cantidades que deberán de aportar la ACE y la Comunidad Autónoma para cada caso. Asimismo, en estas reuniones se fijan los objetivos del Plan o de los convenios que lo desarrollan. Finalmente, se suelen fijar los criterios de selección de los casos a financiar.

Una vez establecida las cantidades correspondientes a cada Comunidad Autónoma, éstas envían al Ministerio correspondiente un compendio de proyectos que se deberían financiar con el convenio. La ACE decidirá si los proyectos se corresponden con los objetivos del Plan o de la acción, y concederá la financiación correspondiente. A través del convenio, se plasmará materialmente el acuerdo sobre la financiación, los proyectos y su control. En el caso de que las Comunidades Autónomas no respeten los objetivos del Plan o la acción, teóricamente, el Ministerio correspondiente podrá denegar la financiación en futuros ejercicios.

La preponderancia de la ACE vendrá determinada por dos vías:

- a) El establecimiento de los criterios de distribución de fondos, entre CCAA o entre casos concretos, según el sector. Si los criterios de distribución son establecidos por los Ministerios, las Comunidades Autónomas no podrán más que enviar sus documentos de demanda de financiación y esperar a que estos sean aceptados. Los criterios se suelen consensuar en Conferencia Sectorial, sin embargo, existen algunos casos donde las Comunidades tendrán que atenerse a unos criterios ya pre-establecidos.
- b) La selección final de los proyectos: Una vez distribuidos los fondos, las CCAA enviarán al Minis-

terio los proyectos que quieren financiarse. Estos proyectos deberán de responder al espíritu del convenio pero será, en la mayoría de los casos, el Ministerio correspondiente el que tenga la última palabra en la decisión.

Si estas dos secuencias están presentes en el convenio, se entenderá que la ACE ejerce una labor de coordinación tanto al inicio, con los criterios, como al final, con la selección y control de los proyectos. En este caso, se estaría ante una gestión del convenio y una gobernanza del mismo considerablemente jerarquizada.

Modelo de colaboración jerárquica: la gestión de la accesibilidad

■ Los convenios de colaboración en materia de acción social pueden responder a una gran variedad de modelos. En España, en líneas generales, los convenios de colaboración en acción social se acogen a tres modelos diferentes de convenio, estos son, los Convenios de Accesibilidad para las personas con impedimentos físicos, Convenio de voluntariado y los Convenios sobre la financiación de Corporaciones Locales en materia de Servicios Sociales.

Los tres modelos comentados siguen una línea, más o menos, jerárquica. En todos ellos, la presencia de la ACE tiene un peso especial en la selección de criterios y proyectos o, por lo menos, parte de una situación privilegiada a la hora de supervisar y controlar los proyectos que definitivamente se financiarán. Este peso preponderante variará según el tipo de convenio del que se trate. A continuación se analizarán los convenios de accesibilidad, como muestra representativa de los convenios de acción social, para entender mejor las dinámicas de gobernanza jerárquica.

Los convenios de accesibilidad, tanto de elaboración de Planes de accesibilidad concretos como de Obras, son los convenios con participación de terceros agentes que más financiación manejan. Todos los convenios de accesibilidad se apoyan en un Convenio marco firmado entre el Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales y la Fundación ONCE el 4 de julio de 2001². El mencionado convenio-marco establece como órgano decisor, gestor y planificador a una Comisión de Seguimiento. Esta comisión estará formada por tres representantes del IMSERSO³ y tres representantes de la Fundación ONCE⁴. Estos representantes decidirán cuáles son los objetivos de los Planes

² El convenio marco se renovó en 2004. El nuevo convenio perfeccionó el término de la colaboración, especificando cómo y cuando podían contribuir los entes subnacionales. Lo cierto es que, en términos de la gobernanza del convenio, los criterios de funcionamiento siguen siendo los mismos.

³ Instituto de Mayores y Servicios Sociales.

⁴ Organización Nacional de Ciegos.

de accesibilidad, cuáles son los criterios de distribución de los fondos y qué proyectos se financiarán con esos fondos. En palabras del propio convenio, *corresponde a esta Comisión [de Seguimiento] definir los objetivos y prioridades en la realización de Planes Especiales y proyectos de ejecución, y la aprobación de los proyectos concretos a realizar, así como proponer su aprobación a los órganos de decisión de las partes firmantes correspondientes (cláusula tercera).*

El convenio-marco de 2001, en su cláusula undécima, establece una serie de criterios básicos para realizar la selección de convenios y proyectos. Estos criterios serán⁵:

- a) Viabilidad del proyecto, de acuerdo con los dictámenes que emitan los órganos técnicos en materia de accesibilidad dependientes del Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales y de la Fundación ONCE.
- b) Interés social del proyecto por la localización, en el ámbito territorial de la entidad solicitante, de centros para personas discapacitadas y otros de atención social.
- c) Rentabilidad social de los itinerarios accesibles propuestos.
- d) Carácter global del proyecto de accesibilidad, de manera que implique un conjunto de soluciones para la eliminación de las barreras arquitectónicas, urbanísticas y de la comunicación sensorial.
- e) Cuando se trate de estudios, se primarán aquellos proyectos referidos al término municipal en su conjunto, y que prevean la posterior realización de obras de ejecución y desarrollo de los mismos.
- f) Equilibrio territorial en la solución de peticiones provenientes de las distintas Comunidades Autónomas.

La selección de los casos y de los proyectos a financiar por parte de la Comisión de Seguimiento concede una potestad definitiva al IMSERSO y a la Fundación ONCE, sin que las CCAA y los entes locales puedan participar

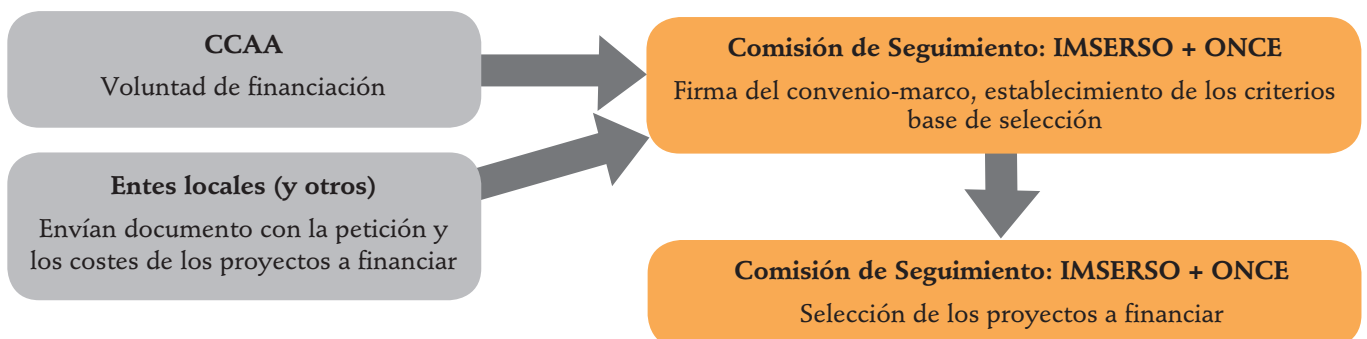
en la decisión. La secuencia del proyecto se produce de la siguiente manera: los entes locales envían al Ministerio de trabajo un documento con los proyectos que desean realizar y los costes de los mismos. Por otro lado, la Comunidad Autónoma envía al Ministerio un documento donde expresa su voluntad de participar en la financiación de todos los proyectos que, en esta materia, se financien en su territorio⁶. Todo convenio que conlleve la participación de las Comunidades Autónomas tiene que pasar, previamente, por la Comisión Delegada para la Política Autonómica. Este requisito ralentiza bastante el proceso, es por ello que, muchos de los convenios, sin la colaboración de las CCAA, se realizan entre el IMSERSO (con los fondos comunitarios), la ONCE y los entes locales.

Una vez que los entes locales u otras organizaciones envían sus peticiones al Ministerio, la Comisión de Seguimiento, previa consulta a su Comité Técnico, selecciona los proyectos que se van a realizar en función de los criterios seleccionados. Si estos proyectos no cuentan con el visto bueno de la Comisión, esto es, del IMSERSO y de la ONCE, no podrán obtener la financiación. Esto permite vislumbrar una clara preponderancia de la ACE y la Fundación ONCE. Ambas instituciones serán quienes decidan sobre los criterios de selección y sobre los proyectos, en concreto, que se financiarán. Los entes locales o entidades proponentes deberán de supeditar sus peticiones a los criterios que los anteriores establezcan. Un reflejo gráfico del modelo de gobernanza en materia de accesibilidad queda reflejado en el esquema 2.

⁵ Estos criterios han sido ligeramente modificados en el convenio de 2004. La selección de los mismos sigue, sin embargo, los mismos procedimientos que en el 2001.

⁶ En el Convenio-marco, en la cláusula décima, se establece que el Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales dará traslado a los órganos de gobierno de las CCAA de las propuestas recibidas, correspondientes a su ámbito territorial. En la práctica, esto sólo se realizará en el caso de que la Comunidad Autónoma haya manifestado su voluntad de participar en el convenio.

Esquema 2 Gobernanza jerárquica en materia de accesibilidad en España



Fuente: Elaboración propia

Modelos de gobernanza del convenio en perspectiva comparada

■ La gobernanza del convenio, como se ha visto a lo largo del artículo, puede tomar diferentes formas según el tipo de acuerdo marco dentro del cual se inscribe, los actores participantes, los criterios para elegir los municipios y los proyectos y la potestad para hacerlo, la naturaleza de los órganos de seguimiento y la rendición de cuentas de los agentes participantes. Según la naturaleza de cada uno de estos componentes el convenio se gobernará de una forma más o menos jerárquica, más o menos participativa. La participación suele conllevar mayor información y mejor representación; la jerarquía suele llevar consigo mayor dirección y utilización planificada de los recursos. Será la administración central la que decida qué valor debe primar en la gestión de un convenio y, por tanto, qué modelo de gobernanza debe engrasar una política pública.

Dicho esto, el modelo de gobernanza participativa de un convenio se caracteriza por inscribirse dentro de un acuerdo marco diseñado desde el centro pero aceptado por los niveles subnacionales de gobierno. La gobernanza participativa implica además la integración de múltiples actores relacionados con el proyecto. Algunos de estos actores tendrán voz y voto y otros sólo tendrán voz. En todo caso, la finalidad será recabar toda la información posible y gestionarla de manera corresponsable entre los agentes implicados. Al tratarse de un convenio de colaboración, el centro seguirá manteniendo la potestad para decidir qué municipios o comunidades serán elegidas para la ejecución del convenio. Sin embargo, los proyectos en particular que se desarrollarán serán elegidos por los diferentes agentes participantes, estableciéndose una relación igualitaria entre el centro y los otros niveles de gobierno. Esta horizontalidad ofrece gran poder a los órganos de gobierno del convenio, ya que los mismos serán los que tomen las decisiones definitivas sobre el mismo. En los casos aquí previstos, destaca el rol de la comisión de seguimiento, la cual está formada por miembros de las tres administraciones públicas implicadas en el proceso y exige el consenso entre los participantes a la hora de tomar decisiones. La responsabilidad de las acciones en el modelo de gobernanza participativa recae sobre todos los agentes con voto en la comisión de seguimiento. Las instituciones centrales y subnacionales inspeccionarán la buena actuación de la red, imputando a todas las partes en caso de que exista alguna irregularidad. El turismo se presenta como un sector donde este tipo de gobernanza alcanza una eficacia y una efectividad destacables.

En el caso del modelo de gobernanza jerárquica de un convenio de colaboración se observa la posición preponderante del centro frente a los otros agentes participantes en la colaboración. Las redes de gobernanza jerárquica se inscriben, como en el caso anterior, en un acuerdo-marco conocido por las partes. Sin embargo, la gobernanza jerárquica se apoya en una formalidad más consolidada en la que, en muchas ocasiones, es el centro

el que establece las pautas generales de la colaboración. La gobernanza jerárquica integra a varios participantes, sin embargo, reduce su capacidad de incidencia sobre la dirección de los proyectos. En ese sentido, se prima la focalización y el impacto directo programado desde el centro. Los agentes participantes, en este caso, ofrecen información y demandas pero es reducido el número de actores que puede incidir en el desarrollo del convenio. El espacio limitado para los terceros actores concede al centro mayores potestades para decidir qué municipios obtendrán finalmente la financiación y qué proyectos se realizarán con esos fondos. Los órganos de seguimiento del convenio, en estos casos, tendrán menor responsabilidad ya que muchas de las pautas vendrán dadas desde el centro. Será, por tanto, el centro y los agentes participantes centrales los que asuman la responsabilidad en caso de que los proyectos sean mal gestionados.

El desarrollo de uno u otro modelo de gobernanza del convenio tiene su correspondiente impacto en la política pública sobre la que se aplica. Así, el estudio aquí presentado permite observar que los convenios de turismo, regidos por un modelo participativo, ofrecen mayores oportunidades a los agentes subnacionales para incidir en el desarrollo del convenio. Se trata, así, de una gestión participativa en la que la dinamización y la excelencia del sector depende de las estrategias que diseñen los diferentes agentes implicados. Se concibe, así, al turismo como una política de desarrollo en la que deben participar todos los agentes públicos y privados que puedan contribuir a la competitividad de una actividad concreta y, por tanto, del conjunto del sector. Por el contrario, se observa que los convenios de accesibilidad están regidos por una gobernanza direccionada desde el centro. Los agentes subnacionales, en este caso, se presentan como demandantes y ejecutores. Este tipo de política prima, por tanto, la incidencia directa y programada del convenio. Se trata, por tanto, de una política nacional para incidir sobre los diferentes territorios de un país.

Conclusiones

■ La gobernanza es un concepto complejo que puede adoptar diferentes acepciones y puede ser abordado desde diferentes enfoques. En el presente trabajo, se entiende por gobernanza al establecimiento, aplicación y reforzamiento de las reglas del juego. Este concepto, aplicado a los convenios de colaboración, permite entender cómo se toman las decisiones y cómo interactúan los actores en la firma, desarrollo y conclusión del convenio.

En este sentido, en el presente trabajo se han identificado dos modelos de gobernanza: la gobernanza jerárquica y la gobernanza participativa. La primera se caracterizaría por una preponderancia de la Administración Central del Estado. La segunda permite una mayor pluralidad en

la toma de decisiones y en la contribución de terceros agentes. Los modelos de gobernanza señalados tienen una aplicación interesante sobre los convenios de colaboración, estos son, instrumentos de gestión pública entre diferentes niveles de gobierno. A partir del análisis realizado en el artículo, se observa que la gobernanza jerárquica tiene una funcionalidad especial para los convenios de colaboración de accesibilidad mientras que la gobernanza participativa es más efectiva cuando se aplica a otros sectores más dinámicos y creativos como el sector del turismo.

La gestión del turismo de acuerdo con un modelo de gobernanza participativa permite a las diferentes administraciones que toman parte en la gestión involucrarse, decidir y responsabilizarse de las medidas que se integren en el convenio. Así, al tratarse de un modelo de gestión horizontal, todas las partes están obligadas a realizar una contribución económica y a realizar el seguimiento de su utilización. La toma de decisiones se hace de manera conjunta y, generalmente, por unanimidad. Esta fórmula evita que una administración pueda imponer su postura a las demás. La unanimidad y el consenso refuerzan la efectividad de la colaboración, evitando particularismos y fomentando la búsqueda de soluciones eficientes. Asimismo, favorece la creatividad desde abajo, aprovechando el conocimiento de los agentes locales para buscar nuevas estrategias de explotación turística.

La gestión jerarquizada de la acción social, por su parte, favorece el control por parte de las administraciones superiores. La necesidad de control puede responder, en estas ocasiones, a la naturaleza estratégica de la política que se está gestionando. En el caso de la acción social, el centro quiere o debe garantizar ciertos servicios y, por tanto, decide mantener la toma de decisiones centralizada. Esta opción limita la adaptación de las políticas a las necesidades de cada lugar. Asimismo, puede reducir los incentivos de los gobiernos inferiores para involucrarse en el desarrollo de un servicio y en garantizar el funcionamiento óptimo del mismo. La contrapartida, sin embargo, es que la jerarquización de la responsabilidad permite al ciudadano identificar con mayor facilidad al responsable último de una competencia y reduce los costes de negociación entre las grandes organizaciones públicas y privadas que participan en la gestión.

Referencias

- Agranoff, R. (1993): Marcos para el análisis comparado de las relaciones intergubernamentales. *Papeles de trabajo Instituto Universitario Ortega y Gasset*.
- Aja, E. (2003): *El Estado Autonomico*. Madrid: Alianza Ensayo.
- Anderson, W. (1960): *Intergovernmental Relations in Review*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota.
- Bañón y Tamayo (1994): Comunidades Autónomas y cambio político-administrativo: papeles y legitimidad del nivel intermedio de gobierno en España. *Papeles de trabajo Instituto Universitario Ortega y Gasset*.
- Boletín Oficial del Estado (1996): Primer Protocolo para la Ejecución del Convenio de Colaboración entre el Instituto de Turismo de España, la Junta de Castilla y León y el Ayuntamiento de Cuellar, para la realización de un plan de desarrollo turístico en la Villa de Cuellar y su entorno. Entrada: 26 de marzo de 1997.
- Boletín Oficial del Estado (2002): Convenio de colaboración para la realización de un proyecto de obras de accesibilidad, entre el Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales (IMERSO), el Instituto Andaluz de Servicios Sociales, de la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía, la Fundación ONCE para la Cooperación e Integración Social de las Personas con Discapacidad, y el Excmo. Ayuntamiento de Almuñecar (Granada). Entrada: 29 de mayo de 2003.
- Colino, C. (2001): *La integración europea y el Estado autonómico: Europeización, estrategias y cambio en las relaciones intergubernamentales*, en Closa, Carlos: *La europeización del sistema político español*. Madrid: Istmo.
- Gallego, G. y Subirats (2003): *El Estado de Bienestar y Comunidades Autónomas*. Madrid: Tecnos.
- Grau, M. (2000): *Spain: incomplete federalism*. En Wachendorfer-Schmidt, Ute (2000): *Federalism and Political Performance*. London: Routledge.
- Hernández Lafuente, A. (1996): *Coordinación, colaboración y cooperación. El desarrollo del principio de cooperación*. Madrid: MAP.
- Hirst, P. (2000): *Democracy and Governance*. En Pierre, Jon and Peters, Guy (2000): *Governance, Politics and the State*, New York: St Martins Press.
- Kjaer, A. (2004): *Governance*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales (2001): Convenio-marco de Accesibilidad Global entre el IMERSO y Fundación ONCE. Madrid: Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales.
- Morales, M^a Jesús (1998): *Convenios de colaboración en los sistemas federales europeos*. Madrid: McGrawHill.
- Peters, G. y Wright, V. (1996): *Public Policy and Administration, Old and New*, en Goodin and Hans-Dieter Klingemann (eds), *A new Hand book of sPolitical*

Science, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rhodes (1996): *The New Governance: Governing without government*, in *Political Studies*.

Rose, R. (1984): *Understanding Big Government*. Londres: SAGE.

Rosenau, J. (1992): *Governance, Order, and Change in World Politics*, en Rosenau, James and Czempel, Ernst-Otto (eds), *Governance without Government: Order and Change in world Politics*, Cambridge University Press.

Secretaría General de Turismo (1992): *Plan Marco de competitividad del turismo español: 1992-1996*. Madrid. Ministerio de Industria, Comercio y Turismo.

Secretaría General de Turismo (1995): *Plan Marco de Competitividad del Turismo Español: 1996-1999*. Madrid. Ministerio de Comercio y Turismo.

Secretaría General de Turismo (2000): *Plan Integral de Calidad del Turismo (PICTE)*. Madrid. Ministerio de Economía y Hacienda, XLIV, 652-67.

Stepan, A. (2003): *Federalism, Multi-national States, and Democracy: a theoretical Framework, The Indian Model and a Tamil Case Study*. Ed. Shankar Bagpai.

Stone, D. y Wright, C. (2007): *The World Bank and Governance. A decade of reform and reaction*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Tsebelis, George (1999): Veto players and law production in Parliamentary Democracies: An Empirical Analysis. *The American Political Sciences Review*, Vol. 93, N°3. Pp 591-608.

World Bank (1992): *Governance and Development*. Washington DC: World Bank.

Wright, D. (1997): *Para entender las relaciones intergubernamentales*. México: Fondo de cultura económica.

Wright, D. (1983). *Managing the Intergovernmental Scene: The Changing Dramas of Federalism, Intergovernmental Relations and Intergovernmental Management* en Robert Agranoff (1993). Marcos para el análisis comparado de las relaciones intergubernamentales. *Papeles de la Ortega y Gasset*.

escenarios poco institucionalizados: Bolivia y Peru (1980-2009) fue galardonada por la mención especial al mejor trabajo en descentralización y estructura territorial por la Fundación Gimenez Abad. Actualmente es investigadora invitada en Georgetown University e investigadora asociada al Instituto Universitario Ortega y Gasset. *asset*.

Datos de contacto

Ana Haro González
Visiting Scholar
Georgetown University,
Department of Government,
Intercultural Center
Washington DC 20057, USA
e-mail: anaharogonzalez@gmail.com

Nota biográfica

■ Ana Haro González es doctora en Gobierno y Administración Pública por la Universidad Complutense de Madrid y el Instituto Universitario Ortega y Gasset. Su tesis titulada “La descentralización competitiva en

El Derecho al Turismo Cultural de las personas con discapacidad

Yolanda Lázaro Fernández y Aurora Madariaga Ortuzar

Instituto de Estudios de Ocio, Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanas,
Universidad de Deusto, Bilbao, España

Recibido: 20 Marzo 2014; Aceptado: 2 Abril 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Resumen

■ Al inicio de este siglo XXI hablar de la existencia del Derecho al Ocio no debiera ser algo sorprendente puesto que, este derecho, es una conquista social reconocida en numerosas e importantes declaraciones de organismos internacionales. En estos inicios del siglo XXI, el Ocio está siendo reconocido cada vez más como un elemento de la calidad de vida de las sociedades y de los individuos.

Se parte de la defensa y reivindicación del Derecho al Ocio ya que éste es un derecho reconocido dentro de la Tercera Generación de Derechos Humanos y como tales son atributos innatos al ser humano, es decir, que nacen con él y que son inseparables de su condición de persona. Partiendo de estas ideas, no sería necesario justificar el derecho al disfrute del turismo y del turismo cultural por parte de las personas con discapacidad, pero la realidad demuestra que esto no siempre es así, puesto que este derecho no siempre está garantizado para todos los ciudadanos.

Este artículo, que pretende ser una aproximación al concepto de Derecho al Ocio, hará un acercamiento al concepto de Derecho y su evolución, donde se incluye la aparición del Ocio como un derecho humano. Continúa acercándose a los organismos internacionales que han trabajado el Derecho al Ocio, desde sus diferentes ámbitos, centrándose fundamentalmente en la Cultura y el Turismo, para finalmente aproximarse a esta realidad en el contexto del Estado Español. Es decir, presentará un breve análisis de la normativa turística internacional y estatal desde la perspectiva de la persona con discapacidad, intentando mostrar en qué grado o medida la normativa internacional y estatal en el ámbito del turismo ha tenido en cuenta los condicionantes, demandas y necesidades del turista con cualquier tipo de discapacidad.

Palabras clave:

Ocio, Derecho, Discapacidad, Turismo, Cultura

Abstract

■ At the beginning of this century speak of the existence of the right to leisure should not be anything surprising since this law is a social achievement recognized in many important international declarations. As we begin the twenty-first century, Leisure is being increasingly recognized as an element of the quality of life of societies and individuals.

It is part of the defense and vindication of the right to leisure as it is enshrined within the Third Generation of Human Rights and as such are innate attributes of the human, that is, born with it and are inseparable from their condition of person. Based on these ideas, it would be necessary to justify the right to the tourism and cultural tourism by people with disabilities, but the reality is that this is not always so, since this right is not always guaranteed for all citizens.

This article, which intends to approach the concept of Right to Leisure, will approach the concept of law and its evolution, which includes the emergence of leisure as a human right. Continues to approach international agencies who have worked the right to leisure, from their different areas, focusing primarily on Culture and Tourism, to finally approach this reality in the context of the Spanish State. That is, present a brief analysis of international tourism and state regulations from the perspective of the disabled person, trying to show to what degree or extent international norms and state in the field of tourism has taken into account the constraints, demands and needs the tourist with all types of disabilities.

Key Words:

Leisure, Law, Disability, Tourism, Culture

Introducción

■ Los caminos que han ido surcando las personas con discapacidad no han sido fáciles a lo largo de la historia ni lo son aún en este siglo XXI. Este colectivo ha tenido que ir conquistando uno a uno los derechos civiles, políticos, económicos, sociales y culturales que otorga la Declaración de los Derechos Humanos y aún no han logrado todo aquello a lo que tienen derecho. Tal y como se apuntaba en una publicación sobre la materia “*las personas con discapacidad han sido un problema humano parcialmente desconocido por el Derecho*” (Álvarez y Castro, 1988) hasta no hace demasiado tiempo.

Afortunadamente, en las últimas décadas se está vi- viendo un cambio transcendental respecto a la forma de percibir y tratar a las personas con discapacidad. No podemos olvidar que este colectivo supone un porcentaje significativo de la población. Todo ello ha supuesto un impacto en el mundo del Derecho, siendo cada vez más extendida la utilización del término derechos humanos cuando se habla de discapacidad, puesto que la realidad muestra que este colectivo en demasiadas ocasiones no tiene acceso a determinados derechos que para otras personas son considerados básicos.

Aproximación al colectivo de personas con discapacidad

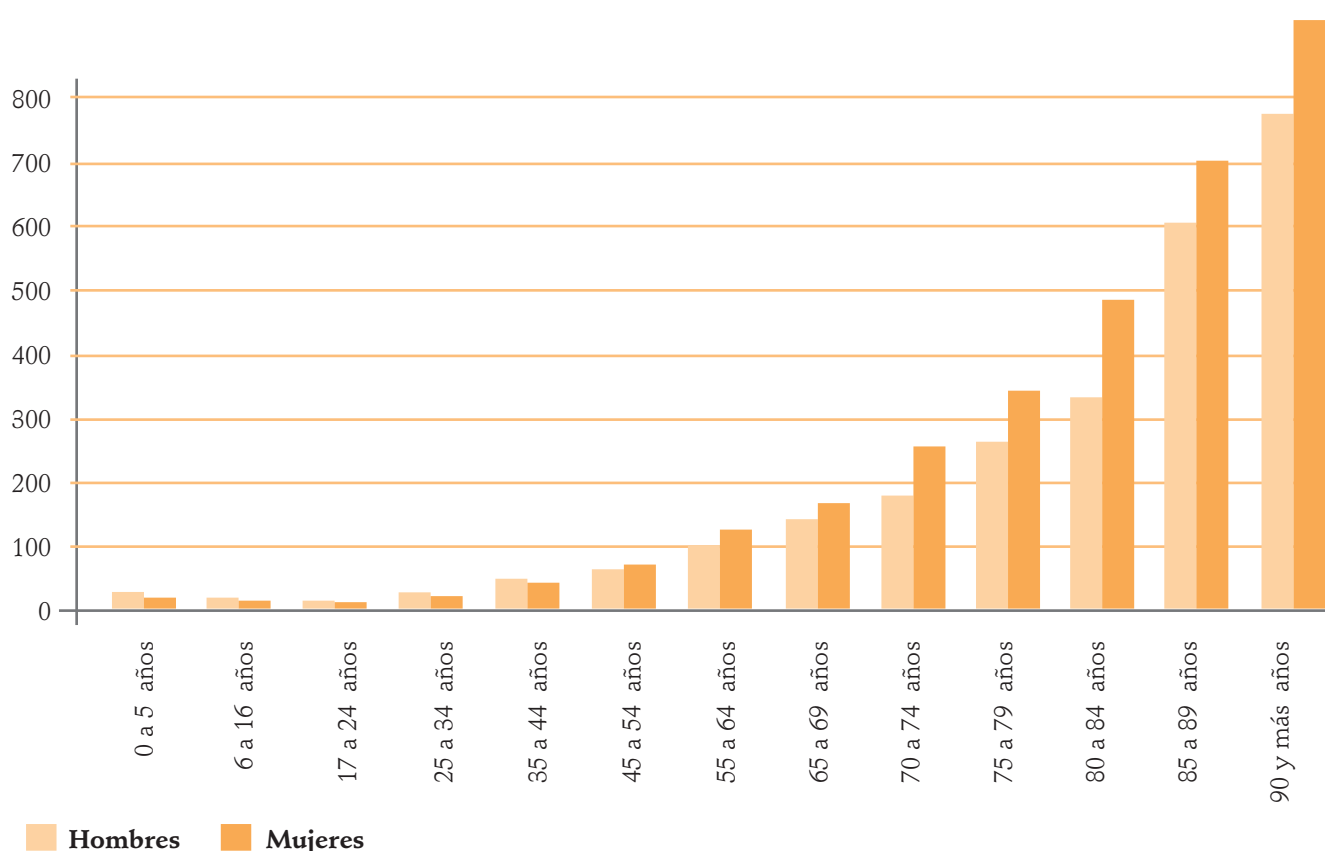
■ En primer lugar se presenta una breve reseña epidemiológica con el objetivo principal de ofrecer datos que permitan conocer y valorar la dimensión, en términos de individuos afectados, de la realidad sobre la que se reflexiona. A continuación se presenta una breve exposición de la evolución conceptual en torno al tratamiento de las personas con discapacidad.

Algunos datos epidemiológicos

■ El conocimiento de fuentes y datos estadísticos sobre discapacidad y su explotación puede dar resultados de cara a la formulación de políticas, elaboración de planes y programas de actuación. Por ello se comienza este trabajo mostrando algunos datos sobre las personas con discapacidad lo cual permite valorar la dimensión de la población sobre la que se reflexiona.

Según la *Encuesta de Discapacidad, Autonomía personal y situaciones de Dependencia (EDAD)* de 2008 realizada por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística, se entiende por

Tabla 1 Personas con discapacidad por edad y sexo (Tasas por 1000 habitantes)



Fuente: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (2008)



discapacidad, toda limitación importante para realizar las actividades de la vida diaria que haya durado o se prevea que vaya a durar más de un año y tenga su origen en una deficiencia. Se considera que una persona tiene una discapacidad aunque la tenga superada con el uso de ayudas técnicas externas o con la ayuda o supervisión de otra persona (exceptuando el caso de utilizar gafas o lentillas).

La realidad social de la discapacidad en el Estado Español es bien elocuente. Así el número total de personas residentes en hogares españoles que declaran tener alguna discapacidad asciende a 3.847.900, lo que supone un 8,5 % de la población siendo más de 2,30 millones mujeres, frente a 1,55 millones de hombres, como se muestra en la tabla 1. Todos estos datos vienen a decir que uno de cada cuatro españoles tiene una relación directa con la discapacidad. Así se puede afirmar que, en general, la discapacidad aparece a edades más tardías, aunque el período de exposición al riesgo de discapacidad ha aumentado como consecuencia del aumento de la esperanza de vida.

Cabra del Luna (2006) señala que desde la recuperación de la democracia la dimensión territorial ha ido cobrando cada vez más una importancia indiscutible, alcanzando mayores cotas de poder, de protagonismo político, institucional y de autodecisión. Las Comunidades Autónomas son hoy una realidad jurídico política insoslayable, que determina el día a día de los ciudadanos y sus actividades, entre ellos las personas con discapacidad.

Por comunidades autónomas, la incidencia de la discapacidad no es similar, tal y como recoge la tabla 2, las que presentan un mayor porcentaje de personas con discapacidad son Galicia (11,3%), Extremadura (11,0%) y Castilla y León (10,9%), así como las ciudades autónomas de Melilla (11,9%) y Ceuta (11,3%). Por el contrario, los menores porcentajes se dan en La Rioja (6,2%), Cantabria (7,0%) e Illes Balears (7,1%).

La Encuesta apuntada anteriormente también ha investigado las deficiencias que causan la discapacidad, entendiendo por deficiencia cualquier problema en alguna estructura o función corporal. Las deficiencias más frecuentes en las personas con discapacidad son las que afectan a los huesos y articulaciones (un 39,3%), las del oído (un 3,8%), las visuales (un 21,0%) y las mentales (un 19,0%).

Evolución conceptual

■ Si bien es importante conocer las cifras, no lo es menos conocer la evolución de los conceptos en torno a la discapacidad. Esta evolución ha sido paralelo al avance del movimiento asociativo en torno al colectivo, que son quienes a lo largo de la historia y en el momento actual, llevan una lucha más tenaz a favor de los derechos de las personas con discapacidad. DeJong (1979, 1981) y Puig de

Tabla 2 Personas de seis más años de edad con discapacidad por Comunidades Autónomas

	Nº de personas (miles)	Tasa por 100 habitantes
España	3.787,4	8,97
Andalucía	716,1	9,58
Aragón	111,6	9,19
Asturias (Principado de)	104,5	10,37
Balears (Illes)	68,8	7,10
Canarias	135,8	7,13
Cantabria	37,5	7,00
Castilla y León	255,9	10,86
Castilla-La Mancha	182,9	9,99
Cataluña	511,7	7,61
Comunitat Valenciana	452,8	9,92
Extremadura	111,0	10,99
Galicia	292,9	11,29
Madrid (Comunidad de)	434,8	7,59
Murcia (Región de)	127,5	9,80
Navarra (Comunidad Foral de)	41,6	7,42
País Vasco	169,4	8,45
La Rioja	17,9	6,16
Ceuta	7,4	11,32
Melilla	7,3	11,86

Fuente: Instituto Nacional de Estadística (2008)

la Bellacasa (1990) plantean un análisis histórico-crítico de las ideas, actitudes y concepciones sobre la discapacidad, diferenciando tres etapas en la segunda mitad del siglo XX: el modelo tradicional, el paradigma de la rehabilitación y finalmente el paradigma de la autonomía personal.

Por todo ello, es claro que los principios que han guiado las acciones de y a favor de las personas con discapacidad han ido evolucionando en las últimas décadas. Se ha pasado de apelar a la caridad, la compasión, la necesidad de aislamiento, la exclusión y la marginación a defender las ideas de normalización, integración, participación, equiparación de oportunidades e inclusión. Así la igualdad de oportunidades, entendida según la Comisión Europea (1996) es el proceso por el cual las diversas prestaciones sociales y del entorno, tales como servicios, actividades, información y documentación, se ponen a disposición de todos los ciudadanos en términos de igualdad y eficacia equitativa, y el principio de la igualdad efectiva de derechos que supone que las necesidades de todas y cada una de las personas son de igual importancia, que el respeto a la diversidad humana debe inspirar la construcción de las sociedades y que deben emplearse

todos los recursos disponibles para garantizar que todos los ciudadanos disponen de oportunidades iguales a la hora de participar en la vida social.

La inclusión es un proceso que se dirige a la sociedad y al medio, es un proceso de cambio de las circunstancias de la vida y adaptación a las necesidades de todas las personas y también hacia el cambio de las relaciones entre las personas, tengan o no discapacidad. En la evolución conceptual existente en estos años, se observa que la inclusión tiene por objeto reestructurar el sistema según las necesidades de todas las personas. Puede decirse que la inclusión es una manera distinta de entender la vida y la sociedad, es una filosofía y unos valores donde la fuerza radica en la aceptación de todas las personas, reconocidas en su singularidad, valoradas y con posibilidades de participar en la sociedad de la que son miembros de acuerdo con sus capacidades.

Ainscow (2003) ha encontrado cuatro elementos recurrentes para intentar entender este principio:

1. La inclusión es un proceso, lo que significa que en la práctica la labor no finaliza, pues no se trata de una cuestión de fijación y logro de objetivos simplemente. La inclusión es una búsqueda interminable de formas más adecuadas de responder a la diversidad. Es aprender a convivir con la diferencia y de aprender a aprender de la diferencia.
2. La inclusión se centra en la identificación y eliminación de barreras.
3. Inclusión es asistencia, participación y rendimiento. Asistencia en cuanto al lugar donde tienen lugar las acciones, participación hace referencia a la calidad de la experiencia y rendimiento se refiere a los resultados de la participación.
4. La inclusión pone una atención especial en aquellos grupos de personas en peligro de ser marginados o excluidos.

Lo fundamental del proceso de inclusión es la relación de principios que formula y los valores que defiende para que la persona con discapacidad sea un miembro más de su comunidad. Así el concepto de "ciudadanía inclusiva", en opinión de Añón (2000), implica reconocimiento de ciertos derechos y deberes, la pertenencia a una comunidad y la oportunidad de contribuir a la vida pública de esa comunidad a través de la participación.

El largo recorrido hacia la conquista del Derecho al Ocio por parte de las personas con discapacidad

■ El Derecho es un producto de los seres humanos en

el marco de circunstancias diversas, contextos históricos, ideologías, intereses y conflictos y así debe ser entendido. Es una realidad compleja que cambia al hilo de las transformaciones sociales y, a su vez, es un factor de cambio y transformación social. Según Segura Ortega (1998), una de sus dimensiones es la normativa que se caracteriza no por ser la expresión de lo que es o de lo que acontece, sino de lo que debe ser o acontecer. El Derecho establece un mínimo exigible públicamente, de ahí el que se apoya en la coerción de la pena.

En definitiva, el Derecho articula los derechos, deberes y obligaciones de los ciudadanos regulando toda conducta humana y toda actividad de los grupos y sociedades. Todas las sociedades han elaborado normas, e incluso el hombre ha sido capaz de elaborar leyes que trascienden su grupo y que son válidas para todos, como son los *Derechos Humanos*, cuyo principio fundamental es la idea de universalidad. Puede afirmarse que estos derechos son fundamentales para conseguir el objetivo último de la dignidad humana que es la esencia de toda persona, siendo los principios básicos de la teoría de los derechos humanos, el principio de la igualdad y la no discriminación de todos los seres humanos. No debe olvidarse que hablar de derechos humanos es aludir a una categoría jurídica de vital importancia, ese conjunto de derechos, de atributos innatos al ser humano, es decir, que nacen con él y que son inseparables de su condición de persona. Puede afirmarse que "*son cualidades cuyo origen no ha de buscarse en la ley humana, sino en la propia dignidad del individuo*" (De Ángel, 1993: 398).

En el caso de la Declaración Universal de los Derechos Humanos de Naciones Unidas (1948) como en los Convenios Internacionales sobre Derechos Humanos aprobados en su seno, se afirma que las personas con discapacidad deben poder ejercer sus derechos civiles, políticos, sociales y culturales en igualdad de condiciones con el resto de los ciudadanos.

Por ser tan necesarios para la persona se dice que estos derechos son:

- Universales: se deben reconocer a todos los seres humanos. Son unas exigencias mínimas que se deben garantizar en reconocimiento de su condición de humanos.
- Prioritarios: al entrar en conflicto con otros derechos, tienen que ser protegidos de una forma prioritaria.
- Innegociables: todos los miembros de cualquier sociedad, sea cual fuera ésta, deben tener protegidos estos derechos.

En conclusión, los Derechos Humanos son unos mínimos morales de justicia que deben ser satisfechos porque sin ellos no se puede construir una sociedad justa ni un mundo en paz y armonía.

En su recorrido histórico, los derechos humanos han transitado su camino en tres etapas. La *primera generación de derechos humanos* comprendía los derechos clásicos, es decir los derechos civiles y políticos, recogidos en las constituciones nacionales, que quieren garantizar, en palabras de Pérez Luño (1995) “*sobre todo la no injerencia, la no presencia del poder público en la esfera de las libertades*”. Esta generación de derechos tenía como sujeto titular al individuo, al ciudadano como individuo, a la persona individual, recogiendo, entre otros, el derecho a la vida, derecho a la intimidad, inviolabilidad personal, inviolabilidad del domicilio y de la correspondencia, la igualdad ante la ley, el derecho a la libertad, libertad de expresión, de opinión, de pensamiento, de reunión, libertad de circulación y residencia, etc. Son los más antiguos en su desarrollo normativo. Imponen al Estado el deber de respetarlos siempre.

La *segunda generación de derechos humanos* es la referida a los derechos sociales, derechos que para su cumplimiento es necesaria la actuación del Estado, es decir, un comportamiento positivo de los poderes públicos encaminado a hacer efectivo y real el disfrute de esos derechos. Según Pérez Luño (1995), se exige al poder público una actividad en términos de prestaciones y de servicios públicos. Dentro de esta segunda generación están el derecho al trabajo, a la asistencia social, la educación, vivienda, etc., y aparecen ya alusiones al ocio, aunque en la mayoría de las ocasiones se formula en contraposición al trabajo (descanso laboral, vacaciones remuneradas, etc.). Esta categoría de derechos sociales abarca también los derechos culturales, pero sin conexión con el concepto de ocio que se maneja en este artículo. La titularidad de estos derechos se amplía, se tiene en cuenta a la persona que desarrolla su existencia como ser social, extendiendo la titularidad a determinados tipos de agrupaciones humanas tales como sindicatos, partidos políticos, a grupos humanos como mujeres, infancia, tercera edad, personas con discapacidad, etc.

Por último, tal y como apunta Vasak (1974, 1979) se viene hablando de la *tercera generación de los derechos humanos*. Entre los derechos que incluye esta generación el más reconocido por la comunidad internacional ha sido el derecho al desarrollo y, en segundo lugar, el derecho a la paz. Pero también destacan el derecho a la comunicación, el derecho a ser diferente, el derecho al medio ambiente, el derecho a la autodeterminación de los pueblos, el derecho a la propiedad sobre el patrimonio común de la humanidad, el derecho a la calidad de vida, etc. Aunque específicamente los enunciados de los derechos de esta tercera generación no mencionan el ocio como tal, investigadores en ocio (véase Cuenca, 2000; San Salvador del Valle, 2000; Gorbeña y otros, 1997) entienden que bajo los epígrafes “derecho al desarrollo” y “derecho a la calidad de vida”, el ocio es un factor clave y, por lo tanto, entienden que el Derecho al Ocio está amparado bajo el paraguas de la tercera generación de derechos humanos. Esta nueva generación lo que ha hecho ha sido

ampliar la titularidad de estos derechos ya que afectan a todos los ciudadanos del mundo y tienen por tanto, una dimensión que no se circunscribe a grupos o sectores como ocurría en el caso de la generación anterior, sino que son derechos universales, donde no hay distinciones, si bien es cierto que aún queda por resolver el valor jurídico de las resoluciones de la Asamblea General de la ONU por las que se han efectuado el reconocimiento de estos nuevos derechos.

En resumen, puede decirse que cada una de las tres generaciones de derechos plantea las exigencias de la dignidad humana que se contienen en tres valores básicos como son la libertad, la igualdad y la solidaridad:

Derechos Humanos	Valor moral guía	Modelo de Estado
1ª Generación	Libertad	Estado de Derecho
2ª Generación	Igualdad	Estado Social de Derecho
3ª Generación	Solidaridad	Estados Solidarios entre sí

El camino hacia la igualdad para las personas con discapacidad ha sido y es un camino largo y no libre de obstáculos. Repasando la historia más reciente, tal y como apunta Madariaga (1997, 2011), se observa que en función del concepto de persona con discapacidad que estaba vigente se determinaba el tipo y características de los servicios creados para este colectivo. Así, sus necesidades se jerarquizaron produciéndose diferentes ritmos en la evolución de algunos ámbitos ya que se consideró, en un primer momento, dar respuesta a las áreas consideradas “más importantes”. Entre ellas estaban la educación, el empleo, la fiscalidad, la salud y la prevención; la protección y la previsión social, las personas con discapacidad más severamente afectadas y las familias de personas con discapacidad. Posteriormente se han ido introduciendo otras áreas como son la accesibilidad universal, el diseño para todos y la eliminación de barreras, las mujeres con discapacidad, las personas con discapacidad en el medio rural; la oportunidad digital y las distintas alternativas de ocio reivindicadas también por este colectivo.

Lo que sí puede afirmarse es que este incipiente siglo XXI presenta una nueva visión de la discapacidad, tal y como señalan Blanco Egido y Sánchez Salcedo (2006), donde hay una apuesta fuerte para asegurar la igualdad de las personas con discapacidad a través del reconocimiento de sus derechos y del ejercicio de los mismos en igualdad de condiciones que los demás integrantes de la sociedad.

Ahora bien, el objeto de interés de este artículo es

solamente una esfera concreta de la vida de las personas con discapacidad, el *ocio*. Históricamente ha sido definido, según San Salvador del Valle (2000) por tres variables fundamentales: el ocio como tiempo libre; el ocio como actividad y consumo; y el ocio como experiencia subjetiva; que son tres formas complementarias y no excluyentes de entender este importante fenómeno.

Este artículo defiende un concepto de ocio entendido como una experiencia humana integral y un derecho humano fundamental para todas las personas. Cuenca (2003) señala que la experiencia de ocio es una experiencia humana libre, satisfactoria y con un fin en sí misma, lo que significa ser voluntaria y separada de la necesidad, entendida como necesidad primaria.

Otro rasgo diferencial de la experiencia de ocio es la satisfacción personal que proporciona, es decir vivenciarla está relacionado con experiencias de carácter afectivo y emocional. Neulinger (1974) apunta que el ocio es un estado mental de carácter subjetivo señalando dos criterios básicos a la hora de definirlo: la libertad percibida (sensación de que lo que uno hace está bajo el control de uno mismo) y la motivación intrínseca (fuerza interna que dirige la conducta hacia un determinado objetivo) como razones para llevar a cabo la actividad.

Madariaga (2011) apunta que es fundamental entender el ocio como una vivencia gratificante y gratuita que permite alcanzar la autorrealización, desarrollar la personalidad y fomentar la integridad personal. Puede afirmarse que el ocio es un eje central de desarrollo individual, por su papel formativo y facilitador del crecimiento personal.

Pero el ocio también presenta una perspectiva social, donde éste es entendido como elemento de cohesión social, de vivencia en comunidad y factor de desarrollo económico.

Bregha (1985) afirma que el ocio es una de las formas de expresión de libertad más preciada, por lo que puede afirmarse que es una experiencia irrenunciable a la que tienen derecho todos los seres humanos, independientemente de su raza, estatus, género, religión, habilidades, etc.

Así en la definición de las sociedades modernas el ocio ocupa un lugar fundamental como elemento del bienestar y la calidad de vida de la ciudadanía, tal y como apunta Ruskin (2000). El ocio es una necesidad y un derecho y constituye una experiencia vital y un ámbito de desarrollo humano.

La historia ha mostrado como los derechos humanos nacen de la respuesta a situaciones anteriores, en las que determinadas necesidades humanas eran ignoradas, negadas o perseguidas. Así, tal y como señala Lázaro (2007) los nuevos derechos humanos lo que pretenden es dar respuesta a determinadas necesidades del mundo

actual en el que vivimos. Y el ocio, en este momento, ocupa un lugar importante en el desarrollo personal y comunitario lo que hace que sea actualmente objeto de interés desde múltiples perspectivas y disciplinas.

El tiempo de ocio juega un papel cada vez más importante en las vidas de las personas y, sobre todo, en la valoración que éstas le atribuyen, en opinión de Aristegui y Silvestre (2012) según los trabajos realizados a partir de la Encuesta Europea de Valores en sus aplicaciones a Europa, España y al País Vasco en 1999 y 2008. De hecho, el ocio parece ser un valor cada vez máspreciado en la sociedad actual, junto a cuestiones como la familia, el trabajo o las amistades.

El Derecho al Ocio de las personas con discapacidad ha sido dentro de los derechos por los que el colectivo ha tenido que luchar, uno de los últimos en reclamar su atención, como se ha apuntado en páginas anteriores, aunque debe señalarse que actualmente bajo el modelo social, como apuntan Lázaro y otros (2012), es cada vez más fuerte la reivindicación por hacer este derecho efectivo.

Cultura y Turismo: ámbitos del ocio

■ Las grandes manifestaciones del ocio en nuestra sociedad son: la cultura, el turismo, el deporte y la recreación. Los ámbitos del ocio constituyen espacios de significado social y de potencial personal para vivenciar experiencias de ocio y participar de rasgos de las diferentes dimensiones del mismo.

Cada ámbito de ocio se dota de contenido (San Salvador del Valle, 2000) en función de la práctica de actividades (p.ej. artes escénicas, viajes, deportes de equipo, o manualidades), según los espacios en los que se practica (teatros, hoteles, polideportivos, aire libre, o en el hogar), en función de los tiempos en los que se desarrolla (diario, fin de semana o vacacional), y según los participantes (por requisitos de la actividad, por segmentos de edad, para grupos de población concretos como es el colectivo de personas con discapacidad, etc.).

Este artículo se centra en dos de los ámbitos señalados, la cultura y el turismo y en la relación que se puede establecer entre ellos.

El antropólogo francés, Claude Lévi-Strauss, fue el principal divulgador de la noción de *cultura* como un concepto no jerárquico, que se encuentra desarrollado de manera diversa en todas las sociedades. Como parte de las acciones que realiza la UNESCO en el mundo, en el año de 1982, tuvo lugar en México la Conferencia Mundial sobre Políticas Culturales donde se afirmaba que

“... la cultura puede considerarse actualmente como el conjunto de los rasgos distintivos, espirituales y materiales, intelectuales y afectivos que caracterizan

a una sociedad o un grupo social. Ella engloba, además de las artes y las letras, los modos de vida, los derechos fundamentales al ser humano, los sistemas de valores, las tradiciones y las creencias....”.

Esta definición tiene dos ventajas fundamentales como apunta Hervé Carrier (1992). Por un lado, ha sido aceptada por un conjunto de gobiernos, miembros de la UNESCO y representantes de todas las tendencias ideológicas. Por otro, se basa en elementos normativos y éticos, está abierta tanto a los valores materiales como a los espirituales y señala explícitamente los derechos humanos, la libertad y la responsabilidad.

Atendiendo a la definición dada por UNESCO es posible interpretar la cultura como un todo que se descompone en dos grandes bloques:

1. La producción social y transmisión de identidades, significados, conocimientos, creencias, valores, aspiraciones, memorias, propósitos y actitudes.
2. La forma de vida de un grupo particular de seres humanos: costumbres, vestimenta, lenguaje, arte, cocina, ciencia, tecnología, religión, tradiciones e instituciones.

Por tanto, puede afirmarse que la cultura, en su rica diversidad, posee un valor intrínseco tanto para el desarrollo como para la cohesión social y la paz.

Actualmente, la reflexión sobre la cultura se ha convertido en uno de los objetos centrales de las ciencias humanas, su conocimiento resulta imprescindible para analizar, comprender o actuar sobre las realidades sociales. Es decir, ya sea para guiar los estudios o para orientar la acción. En este contexto, la relación entre la cultura y el derecho presentan problemas nuevos, que permiten estudiar la contribución normativa del Estado en el plano del derecho a la cultura recomendado por los distintos organismos internacionales.

Una aproximación global al fenómeno del *turismo* actual requiere una doble perspectiva de análisis, tal y como apunta González Velasco (2008). Por un lado, merece considerar el turismo como uno de los principales sectores económicos y una de las mayores fuentes de ingresos del Estado e incluso de la Unión Europea. Por otro lado, cabe destacar que el turismo se ha convertido en una de las actividades de ocio más extendidas en la sociedad post-industrial.

El turismo es una actividad multisectorial muy compleja que genera, directa e indirectamente, una serie de beneficios a los distintos niveles de la sociedad. Para ello, moviliza a diversos agentes y grupos sociales de manera ordenada y planificada. Dada sus múltiples implicaciones, el turismo es considerado un fenómeno propio de la sociedad actual. Por ejemplo, posee carácter social, dado que

está dirigido a satisfacer las necesidades de las personas. También tiene naturaleza económica, ya que es capaz de generar divisas al país receptor de los flujos turísticos; política, porque responde a los lineamientos y planes de desarrollo de los sistemas de gobierno; cultural, porque permite conocer la vida e idiosincrasia de personas de diferentes realidades geográficas y educativa, en tanto que puede ser un medio de formación personal e intelectual.

Por lo tanto, el turismo ha de considerarse como un fenómeno complejo e interdisciplinar, que no solamente tiene un gran peso económico sino también una importancia humanística fundamental que responde a la necesidad expresada en la Declaración de Manila de utilizar el tiempo de vacaciones de manera más enriquecedora y provechosa en los planos cultural, material, educativo y espiritual. Se observa, por tanto, que como todo fenómeno social, el turismo es un reflejo de la sociedad en la que se desarrolla.

Derecho al Turismo Cultural

■ Intentar dar una definición de lo que es el turismo cultural es complicado pues la literatura no refleja un consenso sobre los límites del concepto. Según Mallor, González-Gallarda y Fayos (2013:270), “el turismo cultural constituye una forma de turismo que obedece a necesidades y motivaciones propias de los consumidores por lo que su delimitación es altamente subjetiva”.

Es cierto, como se ha visto en los párrafos anteriores, que tanto la cultura como el turismo son conceptos complejos que dependen de la perspectiva de estudio o del tema de la investigación para poder definirlos. Así apunta Richards (2006) que el turismo cultural como reunión de ambos conceptos refleja esa complejidad.

Actualmente, el turismo cultural es un reto para muchos destinos dado su atractivo y poder diferenciador. En opinión de Richards y Munsters (2010) a través de actividades de turismo cultural los destinos pretenden mantener y conservar su patrimonio cultural, desarrollar nuevos recursos culturales y crear una imagen cultural.

Dada su naturaleza compleja y plural, el turismo cultural debe ser abordado como una actividad con múltiples dimensiones a considerar, como son la económica, social, cultural, científica, educativa, ética, entre otras.

La conjunción entre “Turismo” y “Cultura” conlleva crear espacios de interacción donde los turistas y las comunidades puedan dialogar sobre los significados y conceptos del mundo cultural al que se acercan y de las perspectivas que les diferencian.

La European Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) lo define como “el movimiento de

personas hacia las atracciones culturales fuera de su lugar de residencia habitual, con la intención de acumular nuevas informaciones y experiencias para satisfacer sus necesidades culturales".

España es líder en turismo, según palabras recogidas en la web de Turespaña. Así lo acreditan las cifras de turistas internacionales, de ingresos por turismo y la aportación de la actividad turística a la economía del país. Los datos apuntan que los turistas que visitaron el Estado Español en 2012, alcanzaron la cifra de 57 millones.

Ahora bien, si se tiene en cuenta el colectivo sobre el que trata este artículo, sólo en los últimos años, y no en todas las organizaciones internacionales, se detecta cierta sensibilidad, en la normativa de ocio, hacia las personas con discapacidad.

La esfera *cultural* es posiblemente la más insensible y también, la que más problemas plantea en cuanto a la accesibilidad a ciertos ámbitos, como es el patrimonio cultural para las personas con discapacidades físicas o el teatro y los medios de comunicación de masas para las personas con discapacidades sensoriales. Organizaciones como la UNESCO y el Consejo de Europa, a pesar de defender la democracia cultural, no han tenido entre sus prioridades a este colectivo.

Respecto al *turismo*, la Organización Mundial del Turismo (OMT) ha dado importantes pasos pero aún queda mucho por hacer. La acepción turismo social restringe la experiencia turística de las personas con discapacidad y la distingue innecesariamente de la del resto de los ciudadanos. La importante vertiente económica del turismo limita la intervención de los poderes públicos aunque no debiera mermar su autoridad para legislar exigiendo una plena accesibilidad a este sector.

La OMT reconoce al colectivo de personas con discapacidad como un segmento emergente de demanda turística caracterizada por ser creciente; multicliente, ya que cada persona con discapacidad suele viajar acompañada, potenciadora de la imagen del destino; no estacional; y capaz de generar ingresos por encima de la media del turismo convencional.

La OMT está convencida de que la facilitación de los viajes turísticos de las personas con discapacidad es un elemento esencial de cualquier política de desarrollo sostenible y responsable del turismo. Con esta idea, la Asamblea General de la Organización aprobó en 2005 la Resolución 492(XVI), titulada *Hacia un turismo accesible para todos* como actualización de la Resolución 284(IX) adoptada por Asamblea General en 1991, con el título de *Para un turismo accesible a los minusválidos en los años 90*.

La Resolución 492 (XVI) aportaba una serie de recomendaciones para el sector, poniendo de relieve la necesidad de proporcionar información clara sobre la

accesibilidad de las instalaciones turísticas, la disponibilidad de servicios de apoyo en los destinos para las personas con discapacidad, y la formación de los empleados en lo que respecta a las necesidades especiales de estas personas.

Cinco años después, en octubre de 2009, la OMT volvió a hacer hincapié en la importancia de la accesibilidad con su Declaración sobre la facilitación de los desplazamientos turísticos, aprobada por la Asamblea General en Astana (Kazajstán). Aunque es solo una recomendación, advierte que "es conveniente realizar grandes esfuerzos para integrar en las prácticas y políticas turísticas a las personas con discapacidad".

La Declaración de 2009 hace suyos los principios generales recogidos en el artículo 3 de la Convención sobre los derechos de las personas con discapacidad aprobada por la ONU en 2007 e invita a los Estados a cumplirlos. Dichos principios son promover, proteger y garantizar el disfrute pleno y por igual del conjunto de derechos humanos por las personas con discapacidad. Cubre una serie de ámbitos fundamentales tales como la accesibilidad, la libertad de movimiento, la salud, la educación, el empleo, la habilitación y rehabilitación, la participación en la vida política, y la igualdad y la no discriminación. La Convención marca un cambio en el concepto de discapacidad, pasando de una preocupación en materia de bienestar social a una cuestión de derechos humanos, que reconoce que las barreras y los prejuicios de la sociedad constituyen en sí mismos una discapacidad. Destaca también su artículo 30 que aborda la participación en la vida cultural, las actividades recreativas, el esparcimiento y el deporte.

Esta Declaración aprobada en Astana insta a los Estados a velar por la accesibilidad de los establecimientos turísticos, la disponibilidad de instalaciones especiales para personas con discapacidad sin costo adicional, la publicación de información detallada sobre la disponibilidad de estos servicios y la formación especial del personal turístico.

Igualmente la OMT define la calidad del turismo como "el resultado de un proceso que implica la satisfacción de todas las necesidades, exigencias y expectativas legítimas de los consumidores respecto a los productos y servicios, a un precio aceptable, de conformidad las condiciones contractuales mutuamente aceptadas y con los factores subyacentes que determinan la calidad tales como la seguridad, la higiene, la accesibilidad, la transparencia, la autenticidad y la armonía de una actividad turística preocupada por su entorno humano y natural".

Así la accesibilidad turística ha pasado a convertirse en un factor intrínseco a la calidad turística, ya no se puede concebir un turismo de calidad, cuando éste no está al alcance de todos, el turismo de calidad debe ser accesible a todos y nadie podrá quedar al margen de éste por ninguna razón o circunstancia.

En relación al Estado Español puede afirmarse que casi todas las CC.AA. del Estado Español, al hablar de accesibilidad recogen los equipamientos de ocio (locales de espectáculos, salas de conferencias, estadios deportivos, alojamientos turísticos y otros análogos) indicando la reserva de espacios y las medidas que garanticen la accesibilidad. Algunas CC.AA., avanzan más haciendo referencia a las medidas acústicas para las actividades culturales como es el caso de Canarias. Es reseñable Castilla y León, con un artículo dedicado exclusivamente a la cultura y el ocio, donde se apunta la existencia y el deber de contar con publicaciones en Braille, que tras acuerdos con el propio colectivo se consideren interesantes para ellos.

Una cuestión de especial relevancia en el tema del ocio para este colectivo es todo lo relacionado con los edificios históricos. Aparece un escenario donde estas normas, que pretenden garantizar la accesibilidad a la ciudadanía, restringen claramente el acceso de las personas con discapacidad a determinados equipamientos de ocio, específicamente los definidos como de *“valor histórico-artístico”*. La accesibilidad al patrimonio cultural parece seguir un ritmo más lento que por ejemplo la aplicada al medio natural en España. Así, el ámbito de la cultura, puede decirse, que queda seriamente limitado, incluso puede decirse que esta restricción queda protegida por las leyes, en todas las CC.AA. a excepción de la Comunidad Autónoma del País Vasco, donde la ley vasca de accesibilidad dice que *“se contemplará la paulatina adaptación del patrimonio histórico-artístico a los criterios de accesibilidad marcados”*, y la Comunidad Autónoma de Valencia que dice que los inmuebles o edificios declarados de interés cultural o de valor histórico-artístico *“se adecuarán en la medida que sea posible”*, para las personas con discapacidad. Lo que es evidente es que los recursos del patrimonio cultural con cada vez más variados.

En relación al turismo, las CC.AA. más turísticas, Baleares y Canarias, son las que más han especificado en sus leyes de accesibilidad aspectos relativos a este ámbito del ocio, recogiendo unos criterios de disposición de unidades de alojamiento accesibles. Aunque se observa en dichos criterios que la proporción de adaptación exigida se sitúa en un 2%, mientras que la población con discapacidad, tal y como ya se ha apuntado, se sitúa en el Estado español en torno al 9%. Respecto a la inclusión comunicativa y el turismo son dos CC.AA., Canarias y País Vasco quienes plantean acciones concretas para que ésta sea efectiva. En el caso canario se dice que *“en los edificios de nueva planta del equipamiento colectivo, o aquellos en remodelación, reforma o rehabilitación, al menos en las partes afectadas por las obras, se tomarán las medidas que ayuden a conseguir la eliminación de las barreras de comunicación, tanto para personas sin ningún resto auditivo, como para aquéllas con resto, portadoras o no de audífonos”* y en el caso vasco *“en los alojamientos turísticos se dispondrá, en una por cada diez*

plazas o fracción, de las ayudas técnicas necesarias para que personas con dificultades en la comunicación ocupen un alojamiento de forma autónoma”.

A pesar de la importancia que han adquirido en las últimas épocas los museos, no todas las CC.AA., tienen normativa al respecto. El propio concepto de lo que es un museo, ahonda en el concepto de justicia para todos los ciudadanos, pero una vez más no se encuentra referencia alguna al colectivo de personas con discapacidad a excepción de Cataluña y Madrid, que lo recogen en términos de acceso de las personas con discapacidad física al inmueble o infraestructura que alberga el museo, pero no de disfrute de su contenido.

En relación al Patrimonio, se observa que las CC.AA. lo entienden con un elemento de disfrute de todos los ciudadanos. Destaca que algunas CC.AA. hacen referencia al Patrimonio Histórico y otras al Cultural, aunque las CC.AA. que han articulado normativa al respecto, entienden el Patrimonio como un bien para toda la población, pero de nuevo sin hacer referencia a las personas con discapacidad, a excepción de la Ley de Extremadura que señala que deberá tenerse en cuenta la accesibilidad a los inmuebles declarados Bien de Interés Cultural de uso público para todas las personas, especialmente para las personas con movilidad reducida, discapacidad física o sensorial, por tanto es la única que recoge el principio de inclusión física.

Es significativo como existe una prevalencia de la importancia del patrimonio histórico-artístico sobre la accesibilidad, ya que en un amplio número de CC.AA., la normativa sobre Patrimonio parece prevalecer sobre las cuestiones que plantea la propia normativa sobre accesibilidad. Aún en las conceptualizaciones más avanzadas que unen el Patrimonio con las nuevas tecnologías, como es el caso de la Ley cántabra, siguen perdiendo la oportunidad de hacer referencia a la necesidad de tecnologías accesibles para las personas con discapacidad.

El Estado comienza las transferencias en materia de turismo a las CC.AA. a finales de los 70 y continúa a lo largo de la década de los 80, siendo fundamentalmente en los años 90 cuando se dictan las leyes relativas al turismo. Al abordar esta normativa se aprecian dos tipos de leyes. Las que se dictan en primer lugar son las que tienen que ver con el régimen disciplinario en el sector turístico y posteriormente se aprueban las relativas al turismo de carácter general.

Es significativo que las CC.AA. que han dictado normas sobre el régimen disciplinario turístico no han incluido expresamente ninguna referencia a cuestiones relativas al colectivo de personas con discapacidad ni a actuaciones concretas que permitan el disfrute de este importante ámbito del ocio, como es el turismo, por parte de estas personas. Fundamentalmente, su articulado se refiere

a la tipificación de infracciones y a los derechos de los usuarios turísticos donde se habla de la población en general.

Respecto a la normativa relativa al turismo de forma general, y los *principios rectores* que inspiran estas leyes destaca el intento de apuesta por el turismo como un factor de universalización de culturas, conocimiento y comprensión de los diversos pueblos, instrumento de desarrollo y enriquecimiento de la personalidad y recurso económico de gran importancia para cada una de las CC.AA. Destacan en este ámbito, los principios rectores que son totalmente diferentes a los que han aparecido en los otros ámbitos del ocio, apuntándose la importancia del intercambio entre los distintos pueblos.

Esta normativa tiene en consideración las *situaciones de no-discriminación* recogiendo estas cuestiones en su articulado. Así se dice, en todas las leyes, que en ningún caso el acceso a los establecimientos turísticos podrá ser restringido por razones de discapacidad, raza, lugar de procedencia, sexo, religión, opinión o cualquier otra circunstancia personal o social. En esta misma línea, se señala que entre los derechos de los usuarios turísticos enumerados a lo largo de las distintas normas, destaca el recibir información veraz, previa y completa sobre los bienes y servicios que se ofrecen, y tener garantizada, en el establecimiento, su seguridad, tranquilidad e intimidad personal.

Puede afirmarse que el turismo es el ámbito del ocio donde la presencia e importancia del sector privado es mayor, y eso es evidente a la vista de la importante dimensión económica de esta actividad en el Estado Español. Por esto es importante que se articule normativa respecto a los usuarios/clientes y ése es el motivo que ha permitido en ocasiones a las personas con discapacidad poder denunciar situaciones claramente discriminatorias.

Igualmente, entre el articulado que aborda la definición de *infracciones* están la incorrecta prestación de servicios por parte del personal encargado, así como la falta de respeto y consideración a la clientela o la prohibición del libre acceso y expulsión de los clientes cuando éstas sean injustificadas. Se apuntan todas estas cuestiones puesto que estas situaciones han sido denunciadas y experimentadas, desafortunadamente en más de una ocasión, por las personas con discapacidad.

En relación a los aspectos que favorecen la *inclusión* del colectivo de personas con discapacidad en estos equipamientos turísticos, las aportaciones se dirigen hacia aspectos relativos a la *inclusión física* aunque no todas las leyes lo explicitan a lo largo de sus textos. Destaca la ley andaluza que señala que todos los establecimientos turísticos deberán cumplir las normas vigentes sobre accesibilidad a los mismos de las personas que sufran discapacidades (art. 32). Lo mismo señalan las leyes de Castilla-la Mancha (art. 11), Castilla y León, Galicia (art.

16), y Madrid (art. 5). La C.A. de Baleares señala en su Plan de Modernización de la Oferta Turística Complementaria, que uno de los requisitos imprescindibles para que se vayan dando los distintos planes de modernización permanente es el cumplimiento de la *Ley balear 3/1993, de 4 de mayo de mejora de la accesibilidad y supresión de las barreras arquitectónicas*.

Parece que, poco a poco, las distintas CC.AA., aún quedando mucho por hacer, van integrando los diferentes documentos de rango internacional, en especial los de la Organización Mundial del Turismo que, a principios de los 90, hablaba y reconocía el "turismo accesible", aunque hay que destacar que la mayor parte de las acciones señaladas por las CC.AA. se dirigen hacia intervenciones de carácter físico.

Es evidente que las sociedades incluyentes deben garantizar el derecho a las prácticas turísticas de todos sus habitantes porque, como señala Max Neef (1994), cuando se opta por una concepción del desarrollo a escala humana se sobrepasa el contexto de lo económico o del mercado y se reivindica al turismo como alternativa necesaria de satisfacción de necesidades y aspiraciones individuales y sociales. Esto hace que se adopte una visión pluridimensional que define el turismo como: actividad que le confiere sentido a las acciones, los servicios y los equipamientos, así como la condición de oportunidad y modalidad de uso y goce del tiempo libre en ámbito diferente, de tiempo y espacio, de la actividad cotidiana.

Finalmente destaca una norma estatal como es la *Ley 51/2003, de 2 de diciembre, de igualdad de oportunidades, no discriminación y accesibilidad universal de las personas con discapacidad (LIONDAU)* que pretende marcar el rumbo para conseguir la equidad territorial entre las CC.AA. en la atención a la discapacidad. De hecho la LIONDAU obliga al Gobierno de la Nación a, sin perjuicio de las competencias atribuidas a las CC.AA. y a las Corporaciones Locales, regular unas condiciones básicas de accesibilidad y no discriminación que garanticen unos mínimos niveles de igualdad de oportunidades a todos los ciudadanos con discapacidad (art. 10), dando una serie de plazos para regular las mismas en los distintos sectores.

Conclusiones

■ El modelo de estado de bienestar en el que la sociedad del siglo XXI se encuentra se basa en una sociedad libre, justa y solidaria fundamentada en el principio de igualdad para todas las personas y en el respeto a un conjunto de derechos universales. Así puede afirmarse el *derecho* de la persona con discapacidad a la inclusión y el correlativo *deber* de la sociedad de asegurarla. Además se constata que el Ocio es un elemento cada vez más presente en toda la normativa. Sin embargo, ocurre que aún puede afirmarse que es un *Derecho Conculcado* para el colectivo

objeto de esta comunicación, pues aunque es un Derecho reconocido no se garantiza ni se hace efectivo como debiera.

Un conocimiento adecuado de la normativa es indispensable para poder decidir las acciones que serían adecuadas para conseguir la no discriminación y la total equiparación de oportunidades. Contribuir al conocimiento de la realidad existente relativa al colectivo de personas con discapacidad es ayudar a mejorarla. Y ésta es la finalidad de este artículo, conocer la realidad existente en torno a un ámbito como es el Derecho al Ocio de las personas con discapacidad. Es importante conocer el ordenamiento, las normas para el caso que convenga, y ello es decisivo en el camino hacia la igualdad y la convivencia plural. Además las personas con discapacidad “son cada vez más conscientes de que su derecho a la igualdad y a la no discriminación es algo por lo que deben luchar y no una concesión graciable y gratuita de la sociedad en la que viven”.

En definitiva, es deber de la sociedad conseguir que la justicia sea un elemento real y presente en ella y reforzar el concepto de ciudadanía para las personas con discapacidad. Coincidiendo con Blanco Egido (2004), “el ordenamiento jurídico es un instrumento útil para conseguir la participación de todos en la sociedad, restablecer el equilibrio allí donde se haya perdido y facilitar la inserción social en el respeto a la diferencia. Y puesto que es la sociedad la que crea el derecho, en nuestras manos está el poderlo llevar a cabo”.

Es evidente que las personas con discapacidad reclaman un diseño social que les permita ejercer sus derechos en todas las dimensiones de sus vidas, desde el trabajo hasta el ocio, reclaman medidas necesarias para vivir como ciudadanos, puesto que la ciudadanía es un derecho previo y la discapacidad “sólo” su circunstancia.

Por ello, si tras la lectura de este trabajo, tal y como apunta Adela Cortina (1989) “el lector está convencido de la igualdad humana cuando habla en serio sobre la justicia o cuando ejecuta actos de habla con sentido; haga pues, del respeto a la igualdad una forma de discurso normativo y de vida”.

Referencias

Ainscow, M. (2003). Desarrollo de sistemas educativos inclusivos. Ponencia presentada en el Congreso “Las respuestas a las necesidades educativas especiales en una escuela vasca inclusiva”. Donostia-San Sebastián. (<http://www.gipuztik.net/ge/Congreso/Castellano/IndexC.htm>).

Álvarez, M.B. y Castro, J.M. (1988). Los minusválidos: un problema parcialmente desconocido por el derecho.

Bogotá: Pontifica Universidad Javierana.

Añón Roig, M.J. (2000). El test de la inclusión: los derechos sociales. En *Trabajo, derechos sociales y globalización. Algunos retos para el siglo XXI*, coord. A. Antón, pp. 148-191. Madrid: Talasa.

Aristegui Fradua, I. y Silvestre Cabrera, M. (2012). El ocio como valor en la sociedad actual. *ARBOR. Ciencia, Pensamiento y Cultura*, vol. 188: 283-291.

Blanco Egido, E. (2004). La promoción y protección de los derechos y la dignidad de las personas con discapacidad. Respuestas Desde el ordenamiento jurídico. En *Los derechos de las personas con discapacidad: perspectivas sociales, políticas, jurídicas y filosóficas*, ed. I. Campoy Cervera, pp. 243-251. Madrid: Dykinson.

Blanco Egido, E. y Sánchez Salcedo, A.M^a. (2006). Enfoque de la discapacidad en los organismos internacionales. *Revista del Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales*, 66: 37-48.

Bregha, F.J. (1985). Leisure and freedom re-examined. En *Recreation and leisure: Issues in an era of change*, eds. Goodale, T.A. y Witt, P.A., pp. 35-43. State College, PA: Venture Publishing.

Cabra de Luna, M.A. (2006). Dimensiones y alcance de las políticas públicas sobre discapacidad en España: el reparto de papeles entre el Estado y las CC.AA. *Revista del Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales*, 66: 61-76.

Carrier, H. (1992). *Lexique de la culture pour l'analyse culturelle et l'inculturation*. Louvain la Neuve: Desclée.

Comisión Europea. (1996). Comunicación de la Comisión sobre la igualdad de oportunidades de las personas con minusvalía. Una nueva estrategia comunitaria en materia de minusvalía. Resumen y conclusiones políticas. Bruselas, COM (96) 406 final.

Cortina Orts, A. (1989). *Ética mínima*. Madrid: Tecnos.

Cuenca Cabeza, M. (2000). Ocio humanista. Documentos de Estudios de Ocio, 16. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.

Cuenca Cabeza, M. (2003). El ocio como experiencia de desarrollo humano, un reto para el siglo XXI. En *Los retos del ocio y la discapacidad en el siglo XXI*, Documentos de Estudios de Ocio, 26, ed. Cristina de la Cruz, pp. 33-66. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.

De Ángel, R. (1993). *Una teoría del derecho*. Madrid: Cívitas.

- De Jong, G. (1979). The movement for independent living: origins, ideology, and implications for disability research. Michigan: Michigan State University.
- De Jong, G. (1981). Environmental accesibility and independent living outcomes. Directions for disability policy and research. Michigan: Michigan State University.
- Trinidad Domínguez Vila, T.; Fraiz Brea, J.A. y Alén González, M^a E. (2011). Turismo y accesibilidad: una visión global sobre la situación de España. *Cuadernos de Turismo*, 28: 23-45.
- González Velasco, D.J. (coord.). 2008. El mercado potencial del turismo accesible para el sector turístico español. Madrid: Ministerio de Industria, Comercio y Turismo.
- Gorbeña, S.; González. V.J. y Lázaro, Y. (1997). El Derecho al Ocio de las personas con discapacidad. Análisis de la normativa internacional, estatal y autonómica del País Vasco. Documentos de Estudios de Ocio, 4. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística. (INE). (ed.). (2008). Encuesta de Discapacidad, Autonomía personal y situaciones de Dependencia (EDAD). Madrid.
- Lázaro Fernández, Y. 2007. Ocio y discapacidad en la normativa autonómica española. Documentos de Estudios de Ocio, 33. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- Lázaro, Y.; Madariaga, A.; Lazkano, I. y Doistua, J. (2012). El derecho al ocio: un derecho humano en ocasiones desconocido. *Revista Siglo Cero*, vol. 43(1), núm. 241.
- López Peláez, A. (2006). Democracia, discapacidad y dependencia: ¿qué papel juega la noción de ciudadanía en las declaraciones y recomendaciones internacionales? *Revista del Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales*, 65: 13-23.
- Madariaga Ortuzar, A. (1997). La oferta de ocio para la vida diaria de las asociaciones de y para personas con discapacidad de Bilbao. En *Legislación y política social sobre ocio y discapacidad. Actas de las II Jornadas de la Cátedra de Ocio y Minusvalías*. Documentos de Estudios de Ocio, 5, ed. Manuel Cuenca, pp. 115-129. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- Madariaga Ortuzar, A. (2011). Los servicios de Ocio de las Asociaciones de Discapacidad. Cuadernos de Estudios de Ocio, 13. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- Mallor, E.; González-Gallarza Granizo, M. y Fayos Gardó, T. (2013). ¿Qué es y cómo se mide el Turismo Cultural? Un estudio longitudinal con series temporales para el caso Español. *PASOS Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural* 11(2): 269-284.
- Max Neef, M. (1994). *Desarrollo a Escala Humana*. Barcelona: Icaria Editorial, S.A.
- Millán Escriche, M. 2010. Turismo accesible/ Turismo para todos, un derecho ante la discapacidad. *Gran Tour: Revista de Investigaciones Turísticas*, 2: 101-126.
- Neulinger, J. (1974). *The psychology of leisure*. Illinois: Charles C. Thomas.
- Organización Mundial de Turismo (OMT). (ed.). 1980. *Declaración de Manila*. Filipinas.
- Pérez Bueno, L.C. (2006). La discapacidad y las situaciones de dependencia en cifras: aproximación conceptual y estadística. Niveles actuales de protección y modelos europeos. *Revista del Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales*, 66: 25-36.
- Pérez Luño, A.E. (1995). Tercera generación de derechos humanos. En *Derechos humanos: una reflexión interdisciplinar (Seminario de investigación Francisco Suárez)*, ed. V. Theotonio Caceres y F. Prieto Martínez, pp. 106-132. Córdoba: ETEA. Córdoba.
- Puig de la Bellacasa, R. (1990). Concepciones, paradigmas y evolución sobre las mentalidades sobre la discapacidad. En *Discapacidad e información (2ª ed.)*, ed. D. Casado; B. Duncan; H. García; B. Kolucki; R. Puig y P. Del Río, pp. 63-96. Madrid: Real Patronato de Prevención y de Atención a Personas con Minusvalía.
- Richards, G (2006). Introduction: Global Trends in Cultural Tourism. En *Cultural Topurims: Global and Local Perspectives*, ed. Richards, G, pp. 1-24. Haworth Press Inc.
- Richards, G y Munsters, W. (2010). *Cultural Tourism Research Methods*. Cab. International.
- Ruskin, H. 2000. ¿Cómo puede la educación del ocio contribuir al desarrollo humano? En *Ocio y desarrollo humano. Propuestas para el 6º Congreso Mundial de Ocio*, ed. Cuenca, M. (coord.), pp. 121-125. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- San Salvador del Valle, R. (2000). Políticas de ocio. Documentos de Estudios de Ocio, 17. Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.
- Segura Ortega, M. (1998). *Manual de teoría del derecho*. Madrid: Centro de Estudio Ramón Areces.
- UNESCO. (1983). *Culturas, diálogo entre los pueblos del mundo*. París: UNESCO.
- Vasak, K. (1974). *Le droit international des droits de*

l'homme. En Collected courses of the Hague academy of international law. The Netherlands, A.W. Sijthoff, Leyde, IV, Tome 140: 335-415.

Vasak, K. (1979). For the Third Generation of Human Rights: some basic questions. *Inaugural Lecture to the Tenth Study Session of the International Institute of Human Rights*, 2-27.

Notas biográficas

■ Yolanda Lázaro Fernández es Doctora en Ocio y Potencial Humano, Licenciada en Psicología, y Máster en Gestión de Ocio, especialidad Gestión Cultural por la Universidad de Deusto. Actualmente es Directora de Formación Permanente de Estudios de Ocio, desarrollando su trabajo en torno al ocio, la educación y el colectivo de mayores. Es docente en el Grado de Turismo de la Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanas de la Universidad de Deusto, así como en distintos programas de Postgrado de dicha Facultad.

■ Aurora Madariaga Ortuzar es Doctora en Ocio y Potencial Humano por la Universidad de Deusto. Máster en Educación Especial. Experto en Pedagogía Terapéutica. Licenciada en Psicología Clínica. Dirige la Cátedra Ocio y Discapacidad de Estudios de Ocio, y es la subdirectora de la Cátedra Fundación Deusto-Vodafone para la inclusión social a través de las TIC. Es docente en el Grado de Turismo de la Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanas de la Universidad de Deusto, así como en distintos programas de Postgrado de dicha Facultad.

Datos de contacto

Yolanda Lázaro Fernández
Universidad de Deusto
Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanas
Instituto de Estudios de Ocio
Avda. de las Universidades, 24
48007 Bilbao
E-mail: yolanda.lazaro@deusto.es

Aurora Madariaga Ortuzar
Universidad de Deusto
Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanas
Instituto de Estudios de Ocio
Avda. de las Universidades, 24
48007 Bilbao
E-mail: aurora.madariaga@deusto.es

Management Competencies and Tourism Graduates: Future Leaders of Caribbean Tourism

Acolla Lewis-Cameron

Department of Management Studies
University of the West Indies,
St. Augustine, Trinidad

Submitted: 17th March 2014; Accepted: 28th March 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Abstract

■ The Caribbean is challenged to remain competitive in a dynamic global tourism arena. Tourism education plays a critical role in preparing individuals to effectively manage this industry in order to gain that competitive edge. The focus of this study is the determination of the essential management competencies of tourism graduates. The findings reveal that the focus of the tourism programme should be on producing graduates that are flexible, ethical and knowledgeable. The onus is on tourism educators to establish close collaboration among key stakeholders to ensure that there is understanding as to what is of critical importance in preparing future Caribbean leaders.

Key Words:

Tourism, Management, Competencies, Education, Curriculum

Resumen

■ El Caribe tiene el reto de seguir siendo competitivo en el escenario de un turismo mundial dinámico. La educación turística desempeña un papel fundamental en la preparación de las personas que pueda gestionar eficazmente esta industria, con el fin de obtener una ventaja competitiva. El objetivo de este estudio es la determinación de las competencias de gestión esenciales en los graduados de turismo. Los resultados revelan que el enfoque del programa de turismo debe producir graduados que sean flexibles, éticos y bien informados. Es responsabilidad de los educadores del turismo establecer una estrecha colaboración entre las principales partes interesadas, para asegurarse de que hay un entendimiento de lo que es de vital importancia en la preparación de los futuros líderes del Caribe.

Palabras clave:

Turismo, Gestión, Competencias, Educación, Currículo

Introduction

■ The international tourism landscape has changed dramatically over the last ten years with the industry welcoming *new* players, adapting to *new* tourists and responding to *new* crises. In the midst of this changing landscape, one constant over the last three decades has been the resiliency of the industry as a viable economic sector. For the majority of Small Island Developing States in the Caribbean tourism remains an economic panacea. The real challenge for Caribbean islands is how to become and remain competitive in this new environment. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), a critical supporting factor for a competitive destination is adequate facilitating resources i.e. well educated and well trained human resources. Therefore, the provision of high-quality education and training is germane to the future competitiveness of the region.

It is against this background that this paper firstly seeks to identify the core management competencies of tourism graduates of the University of the West Indies (UWI). With this in mind, the views of three main stakeholders were elicited including University Faculty, Industry Managers and Students of the Tourism programmes. Secondly, the paper further compares the views of the stakeholders on the different management competencies. Thirdly, emphasis will be placed on the extent to which this knowledge should be used in the development of the tourism curriculum at the UWI.

One of the challenges faced by Tourism academics is the determination of an appropriate balance in the tourism curriculum offering that satisfies the interests and or needs of the key stakeholders including industry, academia and the students. In the Caribbean context, there is the additional demand from regional governments and the local communities for tourism education to respond to specific issues that are integral to the development of tourism in the region. Given the importance of tourism to the economic survival of the Caribbean, it is imperative that tourism educators particularly at the tertiary level, carefully consider the core competencies required of graduates so that they can effectively contribute to building a sustainable regional tourism society. It is with this in mind that the discussion continues with an examination of the different approaches to tourism education, management competencies as a core component of tourism education and then an overview of tourism education at the UWI.

The Tourism Curriculum: a contested space

■ Tourism as an industry is enormously diverse in terms of the range of sectors it encompasses and the variety of organisations it incorporates. With the tourism industry cutting across many sectors, namely accommodation-

related activities, leisure and recreation services, and impinging upon a wide range of operations, educators are faced with a bewildering choice of markets at which their products should be pitched. It is against this background of fragmentation that tourism education has developed. As a result of this multi-faceted nature of the tourism industry, there is an ongoing debate as to the purpose or aim of tourism education. This debate revolves around the four strands of higher education – a student centred approach; a work-centred approach; a society-centred approach and a balanced approach.

Cooper and Shepherd (1997:35), adopting a student-centred approach noted that,

“...education for tourism focuses on the process which gives an individual a set of principles and the necessary skills to interpret evaluate and analyse, that is, it develops the critical capabilities of the student and encourages the understanding of conceptual issues in order to contribute to professional and intellectual development.”

Implicit in this view of tourism education is an emphasis on generic, life long learning skills that will be necessary for the student’s intellectual development as well as useful for any job now and in the future. In agreement with this view, Gamble (1992) argues that there needs to be a movement away from the traditional knowledge-based approach to education towards a focus on the student’s development of the right attitudes and insights necessary to perform effectively in his chosen occupation.

Other commentators have been more pointed in their interpretation of the aims of tourism education by suggesting that the principal aim of tourism education should be the preparation of graduates for employment in the tourism industry (work-centred approach) (Buchicchio, 1991; Koh, 1995; Mc Intosh, 1992). The rationale for this argument is that tourism education exists to meet the needs of the tourism industry. In his research on designing the four-year tourism curriculum in North America Koh (1995) substantiates this argument further by eliciting the views of representatives from the industry on their expectations of tourism education.

Go (1994:331) offers an alternative society-centred perspective to tourism education suggesting that,

“...the long-term aim of educational efforts should be to shape growth in host communities through sustainable tourism that not only raises the standard of living but also improves the quality of life for local residents in destination areas.”

Go’s underlying thesis is that the foundation for determining what knowledge and skills learners need is to understand and to contribute to the improvement of the wider society educators are preparing them for. This

implies wide social science knowledge and understanding of the meaning systems of tourism and tourism's context in order that the graduate can contribute usefully to forward planning, policy analysis and informed management. This society-centred approach to tourism education did not gain ground in the more developed nations of North America and the UK where the focus seems to be more on tourism education and its relationship with the industry. However, in research conducted on tourism education in developing countries, it is suggested that the needs of the destination be placed at the forefront of tourism curriculum planning (Theuns and Go, 1992; Echtner, 1995; Lewis, 2005).

Clearly, there are different agendas regarding tourism education. Here we see the opposition of tourism education with a focus on a critical understanding of tourism and the issues in the wider society and tourism education emphasising knowledge and skills for employment in the tourism industry. Pring (1995:134) challenged what he refers to as "the 'false dualisms' between a knowledge-centred approach and a work-centred approach, which fragment the educational system and impoverish the experience of everyone". He hastened to add though that there are important differences between these approaches that must be considered. What Pring (1995) suggests is a balancing of the approaches. Such a view would produce a more comprehensive perspective to tourism education such as that offered by Burke *et al* (1990:685) indicating that,

"...the goal of a tourism program should be to develop broadly educated students who are both knowledgeable about tourism and aware of its interrelated and interdependent nature..... In addition, the program should be conceptually based, yet balanced between theory, knowledge and practical skills."

They further add that what is needed to accomplish this goal is a conceptual framework composed of four elements: the dynamic element-the tourism phenomenon; the services element-the tourism system; the functional element-tourism management; and the impact element-goal optimisation.

What emerges from this discussion is the notion that the aims of tourism education can be placed on a continuum. On one end of the continuum are the purely work-centred aims and on the other reside the purely society-centred aims. Between the two extremes are combinations of both these aims. Tribe (2002) captures this idea in what he refers to as 'curriculum space'. He provides a useful framework within which the aims (and content) of the tourism curriculum can be classified and further analysed. In his words,

"...the curriculum can be filled with different knowledge, skills and attitudes. Students embarking on tourism courses take different educational jour-

neys according to the way in which their curriculum has been framed. Different framings mean that students will exit tourism courses with a variety of perspectives, attitudes and competencies" (Tribe, 2002:340)

The point about curriculum space is that there is a range of possible influences from different stakeholders with diverse interests that may seek to exercise their influence (to varying degrees) over curriculum content. The determination of the core competencies for a tourism programme depends to a large extent on the strength of the influence of relevant stakeholders.

Management Competency Research

■ Based on the above discussion, the challenge for tourism educators is filling curriculum space with the right balance of knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviours based on the context within which the tourism programme is situated. As such, competencies are a critical component of curriculum space. Competencies have been defined by Boyatzis (1982:21) as an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, or aspect of one's self-image or social role, or body of knowledge which he or she uses. Nordhaug and Gronhaug (1994: 89) further included work related knowledge, skills and abilities. The main thrust of competencies is to show the relationship between perceived performance, anticipated future performance and expected performance (Antonacopoulou & Fitzgerald, 1996). For the purpose of this paper, the focus will be on management competencies which refer to skills, knowledge and behaviours to be demonstrated at a specific level of proficiency by managers (Evers, Rush & Berdrow, 1998).

Several studies have examined management competencies in the various sectors of the tourism industry including the lodging industry, the restaurant industry, the private club industry or other service operations attempting to identify competencies that were important for managerial success (Bonn, 1986; Tas 1988; Kaufman *et al.*, 1996; Birdir & Pearson, 2000; Christou, 2000; Chung-Herrera *et al.*, 2003; Kay & Moncarz, 2004). The earliest study conducted on management competencies in the hotel sector by Tas (1988) identified 36 competencies for hotel general manager trainees. The results of the study identified six (6) 'soft skills' as essential competencies. These were classified as managing guest problems, professional and ethical standards, professional appearance and poise, effective communication, positive customer relations, and positive working relationships. Tas and Baum did a follow up study in the UK and Christou (2000) replicated this study in Greece. According to Christou (2000:1059), "even six years after the first two studies similar results to those by Tas and Baum resurface. This has to be taken seriously by hospitality educators in Greece and elsewhere".

Warner (1991) conducted a number of studies exploring the importance of managerial competencies for recreational food service managers. Results showed that recreational food service managers mainly valued specialized knowledge, followed by human resource skills, goal and action management skills and leadership skills. In a study conducted by Reynolds (2000:97), 17 executives from leading chain-restaurant organizations identified interpersonal skills, passion/enthusiasm for their job, honesty, organizational skills, leadership skills, an ability to handle stress, restaurant experience, a focus on the customer, job related self confidence, and creativity as essential competencies for food service managers. In the private club industry, Koenigsfeld (2007) noted that leadership, interpersonal, and accounting and finance competencies under the administrative domain, according to Sandwith (1993) competency domain model, were rated the most important by the sample of club managers surveyed in his study. Of the twenty-eight (28) essential competencies identified in the study, ten (10) came directly from the leadership domain.

Tourism Education at UWI

■ The UWI has been identified as the primary institution in the Caribbean region with the responsibility of contributing towards meeting the tourism human resource needs by preparing graduates to assume management roles in the industry. As a number of destinations began to approach the development stage in their life cycle in the 1970s there was an urgent need for the education and training of local managers for the regional hotel and tourism industry. In response to this need, the UWI Department of Management Studies established in Jamaica a Hotel Management degree programme in 1977. UWI's degree programme was designed to educate, train and generally prepare Caribbean students to assume future leadership roles in the region's hospitality and tourism industry. As the name suggests, the programme focused specifically on hotel management and thus there was limited or no attention given to the wider socio-economic and cultural issues arising from tourism development in the region. It was not until 1983 that a Bachelor's degree in Tourism Management was introduced to address some of these key issues.

To date, the three (3) campuses of the UWI offer both undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Tourism and Hospitality. At the undergraduate level, the focus of this paper, there is a combination of Four-Year Joint B.Sc. Degrees in Hospitality and Tourism Management and Three-Year B.Sc. degrees offered fully by the UWI. In terms of the former, the UWI has established five associations with tertiary institutions in Jamaica, Barbados, Bahamas, Antigua and Trinidad. These associations are commonly referred to as a 2+2 arrangement whereby students are required to complete two years at the partnering

institution after which they receive an Associate Degree in Hospitality and Tourism Management. The students then have the choice to complete the final two years at any one of the three UWI campuses. In general, both the 2+2 programme and the Three year degree programme are designed to meet the needs of the hospitality and tourism market and the aims of the programmes are noted as:

- Immediate functional competencies
- An entrepreneurial and innovative attitude to work
- A good overall knowledge of the business and competitive environments in the industry
- Strong people skills
- Language and cultural sophistication, awareness and appreciation
- A strong sense of social obligations and environmental responsibilities of the industry
- Strong self-learning orientation
- Respect for vocational work
- A self-conscious identification with the industry (problems and solutions) (Jayawardena and Cooke, 2002:53)

The focus of the programme clearly emphasises the business and technical skills needed for a career in the industry. Given the critical importance of tourism to Caribbean island economies, tourism educators are faced with the challenge of ensuring that the curriculum prepares students to plan, manage and develop tourism in the islands, as well as, responds to the key global and local issues that affect the wider society. In other words, attention must be placed on how the socio-cultural, political and economic issues can be reflected in the vocational and liberal agenda of the tourism curriculum. The consensus among a number of stakeholders that were interviewed in the region is that tourism knowledge in the curriculum for the Caribbean should embrace the whole field of tourism studies, both tourism business studies and non-tourism business studies. The rationale here is that this balance in knowledge enables students to better analyse the tourism phenomenon in the islands and places them in a better position to make informed decisions as potential leaders regarding the growth of tourism (Lewis, 2005).

Methodology

■ The Hospitality and Tourism Management programmes offered by the UWI are housed in the Department of Management Studies. As a consequence, students are

required to complete several core management courses. The challenge for tourism educators is finding the right balance (Pring, 1995) between the business and non-business components of the programmes. Therefore, the focus of this research is the determination of the essential management competencies of students graduating from the undergraduate hospitality and tourism programmes specifically at the St. Augustine, Trinidad campus. Only the St. Augustine campus was identified for this research as some difficulty was experienced in accessing graduates from the programmes in Jamaica and Barbados.

For the purposes of this paper, Sandwith's (1993) Competency Domain Model which encompasses five (5) domains of management competencies will be used. This model was chosen as it is the most comprehensive in terms of capturing the main dimensions of management. "A competency model is a descriptive tool that identifies the knowledge, skills, abilities and behavior needed to perform effectively in an organization" (Chung-Herrera, Enz & Lankau, 2003, 17). Sandwith's model provides a comprehensive overview of the various clusters of management competencies. The five domains include conceptual/creative, interpersonal, leadership, administrative, and technical. The conceptual/creative domain refers to cognitive skills associated with comprehending important elements of the job. The leadership domain is concerned with empowerment and being a role model and a mentor within an organization. The interpersonal domain focuses on interaction with others. The fourth domain is the administrative domain which includes people management skills, financial management, marketing, and complying and handling legal issues. The final domain is the technical domain which refers to the actual work that the organization does (Sandwith, 1993).

Quantitative research was chosen for this study as the majority of competency based research reviewed in hospitality and tourism are purely quantitative studies. Furthermore, a quantitative approach allows for the use of statistical methods to analyze the data and generalize the findings from a sample to a population. The participants for this study included University Faculty in the Department of Management Studies; hospitality and tourism leaders who are members of the Trinidad and Tobago Hotel, Restaurant and Tourism Association and; graduates from the B.Sc. Hospitality and Tourism programmes between 2006 and 2010. This period was selected as the Three Year degree was introduced in 2006.

An online survey was developed using a Five point Likert scale allowing participants to rate the level of importance of each variable in the (5) clusters of the competency domain model. The scale included 1= Not Important; 2= Somewhat Important; 3=Important; 4= Very Important; 5= Critically Important. According to Tas (1988) the competency responses can be categorized as essential, when the mean rating is over 4.50, of considerable

importance when it is between 3.50 and 4.49 and, moderately important when between 2.50 and 3.49.

Findings

■ Questionnaires were sent to the sixteen (16) Faculty members in the Department of Management Studies. Seven (7) questionnaires were returned. Twenty (20) hospitality and tourism leaders were contacted but only eight (8) managers responded. E-mails were sent to fifty (50) graduates of the B.Sc. Hospitality and Tourism programmes between 2006 and 2010 with thirty-seven (37) responses. The overall response rate for the study was 60% which was calculated by dividing the 52 returned questionnaires by the 86 surveys sent.

Using Tas (1988) categorization of competency responses, the industry leaders reported that 2 of the 28 competencies were essential, 21 were of considerable importance and 5 were moderately important. The University Faculty identified 4 competencies as essential, 20 as considerably important and 4 as moderately important. Unlike the other two groups, the students did not report any of the competencies as moderately important. Rather, they noted 2 competencies as essential and 26 of the 28 of considerable importance. Table 1 shows the means for each stakeholder group.

Both Industry Leaders and Faculty identified "Adapts creatively to changing circumstances" and "Considers ethical implications prior to taking actions" as the two essential management competencies for Tourism graduates. The other two essential competencies highlighted by Faculty were "Translates business strategies into clear objectives and tactics" and "Stays informed about industry practices and new developments". From the Students' perspective the two essential competencies noted were "Safeguards confidential information" and "Adheres to basic laws relating to general operations of the organization".

In terms of the management competencies that were considered moderately important, Industry Leaders pinpointed the following:

- Presents ideas in a convincing manner
- Expresses disagreement in a tactful and sensitive manner
- Prepares and presents effective oral and written presentations
- Delegates effectively to others
- Uses basic management approaches such as democratic and autocratic as appropriate for specific management situations

Table 1 Results of Management Competencies by Stakeholders

Competency	Students	Industry	Academia
Adapts creatively to changing circumstances	4.0556	4.8000	4.8333
Anticipates obstacles and develops contingency plans	4.3333	4.3000	4.0000
Identifies measurable action steps that support the organization's strategy and mission	4.1389	3.8000	4.1667
Translates business strategies into clear objectives and tactics	4.0278	4.0000	4.5000
Develops new ideas	4.2778	3.5000	3.5000
Comprehends and fosters the organization's culture, values, beliefs, vision and norms	4.1944	3.5000	3.3333
Seeks feedback from others and listens to people without interrupting	4.3235	3.8000	3.5000
Displays consistency between words and actions	4.0556	3.6000	3.6667
Presents ideas in a convincing manner	4.0278	3.3000	4.3333
Expresses disagreement in a tactful and sensitive manner	4.1714	3.3000	3.5000
Gives specific, timely and constructive feedback	4.3333	3.6000	3.5000
Writes in an effective manner	4.1389	3.5000	4.0000
Speaks clearly and articulately in a variety of situations	4.1944	3.6000	3.8333
Negotiates in an effective manner	3.9167	3.5000	3.5000
Prepares and presents effective oral and written presentations	4.1111	3.4000	3.6667
Manages time to ensure productivity	4.4444	4.1000	3.5000
Works constructively under stress and pressure	4.2222	4.0000	4.1667
Stays informed about industry practices and new developments	4.3143	3.9000	4.5000
Addresses and works through conflict	4.1389	3.6000	3.6667
Adjusts behavior in response to feedback and experience	4.0278	3.6000	3.8333
Delegates effectively to others	3.8889	3.2000	3.3333
Considers ethical implications prior to taking actions	4.1667	4.5000	4.6667
Inspires and helps motivate others	3.8333	3.5000	3.5000
Pursues continual learning and self development	4.1111	3.8000	4.1667
Employs a team approach to solve problems when appropriate	3.7222	3.7778	3.3333
Uses basic management approaches such as democratic and autocratic as appropriate for specific management situations	3.5278	3.2000	3.3333
Safeguards confidential information	4.7222	4.4000	4.3333
Adheres to basic laws relating to general operations of the organization	4.5278	4.1000	4.1667

Source: Obtained from this study

For the Faculty members surveyed, the management competencies considered moderately important included:

- *Uses basic management approaches such as democratic and autocratic as appropriate for specific management situations*
- *Delegates effectively to others*
- Employs a team approach to solve problems when appropriate
- Comprehends and fosters the organization's culture, values, beliefs, vision and norms

Discussion and Conclusion

■ As indicated at the outset of this discussion, the global tourism industry is constantly changing thus demanding tourism graduates that are flexible and able to function effectively in a dynamic environment. It is not surprising that both Industry Leaders and Faculty acknowledge how critical the ability to adapt to changing circumstances is in ensuring the future competitiveness of the tourism industry in the Caribbean. According to research conducted by (Jayawardena and Cooke, 2002) the tourism curriculum throughout the UWI focuses on business and technical know how. Clearly, this vocational emphasis in the curriculum is still supported by University Faculty as evidenced by two of the four essential competencies identified by Faculty. Based on the findings from this research, more attention must be given to encouraging students to think critically, engage in more problem solving exercises and to participate in more industry related projects.

The issue of ethical considerations in decision making has come to the fore in this study. This is a reflection of the importance placed on ethics in the different sectors within the tourism industry globally. Some of the causes of ethical concern in the industry include the encouragement of inappropriate social behaviour, e.g. child sex tourism; exploitative practices of businesses; poor conditions of employment. The latter is of particular concern in a Caribbean context. With the continued growth in tourism, its growing economic importance, and interaction with an increasing variety of cultural and physical environments it can be expected that tourism will raise more and more ethical questions in the future. For the tourism curriculum the issue is whether ethics should be embedded in all courses or be developed as a stand alone course. At the UWI, the course "Business Ethics" is a stand alone elective course offered to final year students. Based on the importance given to ethics in these findings, consideration should be given to ethics being embedded in all tourism management courses.

The findings revealed that the essential competencies delineated by the stakeholders are located within Sandwith's (1993) Creative and Leadership domains whereas the moderately important management competencies are found in the Interpersonal and Administrative domains. It is noteworthy that the 'softer skills' located in the Interpersonal domain were not ranked as highly as the competencies in the Creative or Leadership domains as was the case in research conducted by Tas (1988) and Christou (2000). Of the nine competencies in the Interpersonal domain, three were highlighted by Industry Leaders as moderately important. In the UWI curriculum, much emphasis is placed on these three identified areas so much so that the University has established a Writing Centre; 'English for Academic Purposes' is a compulsory course for all students and oral presentations are a compulsory part of the majority of management courses. The University has recognized the shortcomings among the students in these areas and has taken remedial as well as preventative action. One can assume from the findings that Industry Leaders are willing to harness these skills on the job.

The Faculty members surveyed considered a team approach to problem solving, delegating and the use of different management approaches as moderately important. At the UWI, teamwork is a critical component of the coursework in the majority of courses. The teaching of different approaches to management is also germane to the management courses. There seems to be a disconnect between what is taught and the views of the Faculty. Maybe there is the thinking that it is important to Industry and hence it is taught. However, the findings reveal that these variables do not rank highly on Industry Leaders' list of what is essential. The issue here is the extent to which teamwork should be encouraged in the coursework and the real value of the use of management approaches in the workplace.

In conclusion, based on Tribe's (2002) framework of curriculum space, the findings suggest that the tourism management curriculum at the UWI must be balanced with a mix of competencies primarily from the Creative, Leadership and Administrative domains. The essential competencies noted by the three stakeholder groups signal that the focus of the tourism programme at the UWI should be on producing graduates that are flexible, ethical and knowledgeable in their specific field of study. To this end, there must be a closer collaboration among these stakeholder groups to ensure that there is understanding as to what is of critical importance as the Caribbean seeks to gain a competitive edge in the global tourism industry.

In terms of future research, it would be useful to conduct a similar survey at the other two campuses to determine if these results will be applicable in those contexts. Furthermore, in developing the tourism curriculum across the UWI campuses, an examination should be done on

other core competencies, notably, technical, cultural to better prepare students to engage more effectively with the current tourism environment.

References

- Antonacopoulou, E., & FitzGerald, L. (1996). Reframing competency in management development. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6(4), 27-48.
- Birdir, K., & Pearson, T. E. (2000). Research chefs. competencies: A delphi approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 12(3), 205-209.
- Bonn, M. A. (1986). Job skills and specifications for resort and commercial recreation managers. *Hospitality Education and Research Journal*, 10(2), 36-46.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1982). *The competent manager: A model for effective performance*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Buchicchio, S.A. (1991). Colleges are not backing industry, *Caterer and Hotelkeeper*, September 5, 24.
- Burke, J.F., Hawkins, D.E. and Schulman, S.A. (1990). So you want to teach tourism? *Hospitality Research Journal*, 14(2), 685-687.
- Christou, E. (2000). Management competencies for graduate trainees. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 1058-1061.
- Cooper, C., Shepherd, R. (1997). The relationship between tourism education and the tourism industry: implications for tourism education, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 22(1), 34-47.
- Chung-Herrera, B. G., Enz, C. A., & Lankau, M. J. (2003). Grooming future hospitality leaders: A competencies model. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 44(3), 17-25.
- Echtner, C.M. (1995). Tourism Education in Developing Countries: A Three-Pronged Approach, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 20(2), 32-41.
- Evers, F. T., Rush, J. C., & Berdrow, I. (1998). *The bases of competence*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gamble, P.R. (1992). The educational challenge for hospitality and tourism studies, *Tourism Management*, 13(1), 6-10.
- Jayawardena, C. and Cooke, M.T. (2002). Challenges in Implementing Tourism and Hospitality Joint Degrees: The Case of the University of the West Indies and University of Technology, Jamaica in Jayawardena, C. (ed.). *Tourism and Hospitality Education and Training in the Caribbean*, Jamaica: University of the West Indies Press.
- Kaufman, T. J., Weaver, P. A., & Poynter, J. (1996). Success attributes of B&B operators. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 37(4), 29-33.
- Kay, C., & Moncarz, E. (2004). Knowledge, skills, and abilities for lodging management success. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 45(3), 285-298.
- Koenigsfeld, J. (2007). *Developing An Industry Specific Managerial Competency Model For Private Club Managers In The United States Based On Important And Frequently Used Management Competencies*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Auburn University, Alabama.
- Koh, K. (1995). Designing the four-year tourism management curriculum: a marketing approach, *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(1), 68-72.
- Lewis, A. (2005). Caribbean Tourism Education in Airey, D. and Tribe, J. (eds.). *An International Handbook of Tourism Education*, London: Elsevier Science
- Mc Intosh, R.W. (1992). Early Tourism Education in the U.S., *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 3(1), 2-7.
- Nordhaug, O., & Gronhaug, K. (1994). Competences as resources in firms. *International Journal of Human Resources*, 5(1), 89-103.
- Pring, R. (1995). *Closing the Gap: Liberal Education and Vocational Preparation*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Reynolds, D. (2000). An exploratory investigation into behaviorally based success characteristics of food-service managers. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 24(1), 92-103.
- Ritchie, JRB. (2003). *The Competitive Destination: A Sustainable Tourism Perspective*, London: CABI.
- Sandwith, P. (1993). A hierarchy of management training requirements: The competency domain model. *Public Personnel Management*, 22(1), 43-62.
- Tas, R. (1988). Teaching Future Managers. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 29(2): 41-43.
- Theuns, H.L. and Go, F. (1992). "Need Led" Priorities in Hospitality Education for the Third World, *World Travel and Tourism Review*, Vol. 2, 293-302.

Tribe, J. (2002). The Philosophic Practitioner, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338-357.

Warner, M. (1991). Competencies of a recreational food service manager. *FIU Hospitality Review*, 9(1), 39-50.

Biographical Note

■ Acolla Lewis-Cameron, PhD is currently Programme Coordinator and Lecturer in Tourism in the Department of Management Studies at the University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, Trinidad. Her educational achievements include a MSc. and PhD in Hospitality and Tourism Education. Her research interests include tourism education administration and curriculum development, tourism planning and policy and destination marketing in Island States.

Author's Details

Dr. Acolla Lewis-Cameron
Lecturer in Tourism
Department of Management Studies
University of the West Indies
St. Augustine, Trinidad
Phone: +1-868-789-7656
Phone: +1-868-662-1140
E-mail: acolla.lewis-meron@sta.uwi.edu

Culturally responsible curriculum development in hospitality, tourism and events management

Erwin Losekoot and Linda Wong

School of Hospitality & Tourism, Auckland University of Technology,
Auckland, New Zealand/Aotearoa

Submitted: 17th March 2014; Accepted: 28th March 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Abstract

■ This paper considers the importance of the Treaty of Waitangi (1840) to Higher Education in New Zealand and how this influences the educational experience of hospitality, tourism and event management students. The paper reviews the literature on cultural diversity, internationalization and curriculum development, the role of culture in educating domestic and international students, and how the acculturation Higher Education students experience as part of their studies might lead to a deeper understanding of culture and identity in the hospitality workplace. The gap in the literature concerns how a higher education curriculum can assist in the development of cultural awareness and an understanding of historical commitments. The paper therefore identifies a number of key principles which are regarded as essential to the identity of those living in New Zealand/Aotearoa. The paper then goes on to illustrate how these principles could be applied to Higher Education. It suggests that these principles enshrined in the Treaty of Waitangi are also worth considering when creating an inclusive curriculum which supports all hospitality, tourism and events management students, irrespective of ethnic background, culture or upbringing. Finally, this paper proposes a matrix of 'hooks' - tools which academics can use to ensure their lectures address the needs of all learners. This matrix is developed from a study of the educational goals of the Principles of the Treaty of Waitangi (ToW), the founding document of this country. This research adds value by creating an awareness of the diverse environment in which academics and students operate, thereby enabling students to develop a cultural sensitivity to the international hospitality industry they will be employed in on graduation.

Key Words:

Treaty of Waitangi; Curriculum development; hospitality, tourism and events management; education

Resumen

■ Este artículo analiza la importancia del Tratado de Waitangi (1840) para la Educación Superior en Nueva Zelanda, y cómo influye la experiencia educativa de los estudiantes de hospitalidad, turismo y organización de eventos. Este artículo examina los trabajos publicados sobre diversidad cultural, internacionalización y desarrollo curricular; el papel de la cultura en la educación de estudiantes locales e internacionales, y en qué forma la aculturación que experimentan los estudiantes de Educación Superior como parte de sus estudios puede dar lugar a una comprensión más profunda de cultura e identidad en el sitio de trabajo del ámbito de la hospitalidad. Existe una brecha en los trabajos publicados sobre este tema alrededor de en qué forma un plan de estudios de Educación Superior puede ayudar al desarrollo de una conciencia cultural y una comprensión de los compromisos históricos. El artículo identifica por lo tanto varios principios clave que se consideran imprescindibles para la identidad de aquellos que viven en Nueva Zelanda/Aotearoa. El artículo procede entonces a ilustrar cómo se pueden aplicar esos principios a la Educación Superior. Propone que vale la pena tener también en cuenta estos principios, consagrados en el Tratado de Waitangi, a la hora de diseñar un plan de estudios inclusivo que respalde a todos los estudiantes de hospitalidad, turismo y organización de eventos, sin importar su raza, cultura o educación. Por último, este artículo propone una matriz de 'guías' o herramientas que los académicos puedan utilizar para asegurar que sus clases satisfagan las necesidades de todos los estudiantes. Esta matriz ha sido desarrollada a partir de un estudio de los objetivos educativos de los Principios del Tratado de Waitangi (ToW), el texto fundacional de este país. Esta investigación resulta innovadora al crear una conciencia del ambiente diverso en el que operan estudiantes y académicos, permitiendo por lo tanto a los estudiantes desarrollar una sensibilidad cultural en relación a la industria internacional de la hospitalidad en la que se desempeñarán a partir de su graduación.

Palabras clave:

Tratado de Waitangi; desarrollo curricular; hospitalidad, turismo y organización de eventos; educación

Introduction

■ This paper reflects on the role that a national culture may have on the way in which tertiary education establishments select, organize and present information and course material to its student body. It aims to identify how in New Zealand the Treaty of Waitangi (Te Tiriti o Waitangi) –ToW- which was signed on 6 February 1840 by representatives of the British Crown (Captain William Hobson) and a number of Māori Chiefs is reflected in the classes/papers/modules that are taught. The paper gives a brief overview of the political developments which occurred between 1840 (when the Treaty was signed) and 1985 (when the Treaty of Waitangi Act formally brought the ToW into New Zealand law). This is necessary because the paper then proposes a conceptual model based on the Principles which inform secondary education provision in New Zealand. This model is illustrated with some examples from classes delivered at AUT's School of Hospitality and Tourism and suggestions are then made for further research. This paper does not set out to discuss issues of Māori access to or representation in higher education in New Zealand, which are important issues but outwith the scope of this paper.

While the Treaty gave the European settlers (known as *Pakeha*) rights to settle, it also gave the Māori people rights and guaranteed them protection. It was (for its time) arguably a very far-sighted partnership agreement, although it has more often been honoured in the breach than the observance. In the 170 years since the Treaty was signed there has been much debate about the exact meanings of the three 'Articles' which made up the Treaty, and in particular the translation and meaning of 'kawanatanga' or 'government' and 'rangaritanga' or 'self-management'. These have been interpreted in various ways by different political groups since the ToW was signed. In 1985 the 'Treaty of Waitangi Amendment Act' ensured that the ToW was brought into New Zealand law (Orange, 1987; Walker, 2004; Moon, 2006).

This historical background is important because it sets the scene for the kind of education which New Zealand is committed to delivering at both school and tertiary levels. The next section considers the impact of the ToW on New Zealand's education system.

Background to the study

New Zealand, Education and the Treaty of Waitangi

■ One may ask 'what has the Treaty of Waitangi got to do with Education' and the reply would be 'a considerable amount'. The Treaty gives certain rights and obligations to both parties, Māori and the Crown. It guarantees Māori people their *taonga* – 'treasures' such

as their native language *Te Reo Māori* and education. In this section the NZ pre-tertiary education system is summarized because that seems to have found a way to incorporate the Principles of the ToW into the daily operation of the school better than tertiary education providers have managed to do (MOE, 2010).

Education in New Zealand commences with some form of early childhood education for ages 0-5 offered by Playcentres, Kohanga Reo Centres (the Māori language is used as a teaching tool, immersing students in the language), licensed Early Childhood Centres (usually privately owned), Chartered Early Childhood Centres (state funded) and ages 3-5 Kindergartens.

The next stage of education follows the three-tier model which includes primary schools, followed by secondary schools and tertiary education. The years are numbered from 1 to 13 with Primary School up to year 6, intermediate school finishing at year 8 and secondary school is the remaining five years of schooling.

The third stage, third level, and post-secondary education is Tertiary education or Higher education (HE). Higher education is taken to include Undergraduate education leading to the award of a first degree. A Bachelor's degree is usually an academic degree awarded for an undergraduate course or major that generally lasts for four years, but can range from two to six years depending on the region of the world.

State-owned tertiary institutions consist of universities, colleges of education (teachers colleges), polytechnics (institutes of technology) and wananga (a type of publicly-owned tertiary institution that provides education in a Māori context). In addition there are numerous non-state-owned private training establishments. The tertiary institutions offer Undergraduate, PostGraduate and some provide programmes in specialized areas up to Doctoral level.

The School Charters states the school curriculum should provide for learning which: helps students to understand and be confident in their own culture, to be sensitive to the cultures of other people, and to appreciate the heritages of Aotearoa-New Zealand. New Zealand is very much made up of a multicultural society (although the ToW speaks specifically of a 'bi-cultural' nation) and as such, quality education needs to be delivered through a variety of National Common Curriculum Principles.

A number of these principles are detailed below together with an explanation of how they are operationalised:

- Accessibility – regardless of ethnicity, religion, or gender categories, curriculum shall be designed to be available to all students.
- Non-racist – The curriculum will honour the promises of the Treaty of Waitangi to the Māori People on

Māori Language and Culture. It will recognise and respond to the aspirations of all people belonging to the different cultures which make up New Zealand Society.

- Success – Students will be extended and challenged to strive to do their personal best, however, no students will be given learning tasks that are not achievable.
- Lifelong learning – providing a foundation of learning will help students prepare for learning that is to come. Learning how to learn is a continuing process.
- Quality practice – a high standard of teaching, programmes and materials is provided to equip the students.
- Quality planning – Organisation and everyday practices are consistent with the aims of the programme. Evaluation of learning should therefore be an integral part of curriculum planning.
- Co-operatively designed – representation of students, parents, *whanau* (extended family) and teachers in the development of the curriculum.
- Curriculum review – to ensure the curriculum is responding to the needs of communities and cultures, to the need of New Zealand society, to new understandings of how people learn.
- Inclusivity – students should feel part of a learning environment where it enables their active participation and be learner-friendly. The curriculum should take into account the needs and experiences of all students, including their background knowledge and existing ideas, as well as the diverse character of the community.
- Enablement/Empowerment – to empower students to take responsibility for their learning, setting their own goals (with teacher involvement), organising their own studies and activities as well as evaluating their own learning and achievements.

While these Principles are clearly embedded in the pre-tertiary sector, this paper suggests that tertiary education providers should consider if they could use help to provide evidence that they too are actively incorporating the ToW. Te Puni Kokiri has a range of publications and fact sheets (Te Puni Kokiri, 2010), but very few appear to specifically address the tertiary education sector. The one that does focuses on Māori graduates rather than on the institutions from which they graduate, and groups hospitality, tourism and events graduates together in ‘food, hospitality and personal services’ for the purpose of statistical reporting.

The next section considers some of the generic literature on education and diversity before reflecting briefly on the impact of culture and learning styles.

Literature review

Education and diversity

■ While this paper has so far considered the unique bi-cultural relationship which underpins the creation and identity of New Zealand and its peoples, as academics we have a responsibility to consider lessons and experiences which can strengthen our teaching and the way in which we develop our students into independent thinkers and good citizens who can then contribute to the development of a better society. Danowitz, Hanappi-Egger and Hofmann (2009:590) remind academics that the curriculum has the potential to be ‘a locus and transmitter of values’. Chan (1999:294) points out that ‘education in China is designed to foster the country’s cultural values as well as improve the skills of the Chinese people’. If the Chinese people use education to build up the cultural identity, then perhaps there is some merit in considering how education can help to remind the peoples of New Zealand of their responsibility to maintain and develop a people who are aware of their own and respect other cultures. This explicit goal of strengthening a country’s cultural identity through education is therefore an interesting one for us to consider in New Zealand. This section will therefore review some of the literature on internationalization of education and reflect on what this means for New Zealand and its stated position as a bi-cultural nation. If academic literature has identified examples of culturally-sensitive education practices (for example in dealing with large groups of overseas students), then perhaps there are lessons in there for New Zealand’s tertiary education sector.

Hing (1997) identifies education and curriculum development as one of the five critical themes in academic research in the Asia Pacific region. There is a considerable academic literature on higher education, cultural diversity and the challenges facing academics and institutions that are trying to support students with sometimes very different expectations. Charlesworth (2007) forecasts that there will be three million students studying outside their own country by 2010, rising to over five million by 2025. 20% of these will be looking to study some form of management at degree level. Prugsamatz, Pentecost and Ofstad (2006) suggest a figure of 7.2m with Asia (China and India) accounting for 70% of this. Biggs (2003) is very critical of those who suggest that teaching different cultures requires different approaches and particular ‘tricks’. Instead, he argues, academics too often use a student’s culture or nationality as an excuse for the failure of poor pedagogy. He suggests a three level process where level 1 is a ‘blame the student’ approach, level 2

is a recognition that students are all different and may benefit from accommodation of those differences, and level 3 moves away from a 'deficit model' altogether and welcomes different learning modes and models. This he refers to as 'teaching as educating'. Someone who uses a level 3 approach will allow students to record lectures, speak slowly, avoid colloquialisms and jokes, provide visual materials to support learning, and try to pair up students of different cultures. These approaches will, he argues, help all students, not just those of a different culture to the dominant one. He also points out that those same students who 'won't talk in class' then will not stop talking over coffee outside the classroom or in group work. Carr, McKay and Rugimbana (1999) and Parry and Wharton (2006) also point out that many of the students whom lecturers identify as having 'problems' came to the country where they are studying as academically strong students and go back to their own countries and cultures and hold challenging positions in business. They also suggest that students' behaviour in the classroom may have more to do with a lack of the family support they are used to, and an immersion in a system which often values 'risk-taking and self-direction' (Parry and Wharton, 2006:25). Race (1999) argues that many of these issues can be addressed or at least minimised with a good induction programme, availability of material for students to take away and reflect on, and recognition of the pressures of family and religious traditions on students. Race (1999) urges academics to celebrate successes in their lecture theatres and classrooms. All of these examples and suggestions could be used to improve the experience of students from different nationalities and cultures, and if such approaches are planned into curriculum development then the result may be a more inclusive curriculum which values diversity and cultural awareness. Much of the literature in this area focuses on the perceived differences in learning styles between different groups of students. While this paper specifically focuses on the bi-cultural structure of New Zealand, a better understanding of how students of different cultural groups are accommodated in a dominant culture (for example Chinese students in UK institutions), may help to identify constructive curriculum development opportunities in New Zealand.

Culture and learning styles

■ There is a considerable literature on the relationship between culture and learning styles, and what this means for educators (Sulkowski & Deakin, 2009). Charlesworth (2007) argues this has implications for hospitality management education as she found a link between a student's cultural background and their preferred learning style. However her research also showed that over the course of this longitudinal study these differences became less noticeable. Charlesworth (2007) argues that student learning style preferences research can be divided into a number of broad groups:

1. Education-centred based on Kolb's Experiential Learning Model focusing on the individual needs of students in the classroom
2. Personality-based studies using the Learning Styles Questionnaire leading to classification of students into activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist.

Others have warned that despite the popularity of these tools and their apparent usefulness, there is relatively limited empirical evidence that would enable the authors to claim generalisability of their ideas. Charlesworth (2007) discusses the challenges of teaching 'Confucian Heritage Culture' (CHC) students in an Australian context but also notes that research has found students who arrive with a 'reflector' preference changing to a more 'activist' learning style in order to achieve high grades. Lashley and Barron (2006) also study this region although they claim the cultural mix is not that dissimilar from the UK's Higher Education sector. They claim that hospitality and tourism management courses are particularly attractive to international students precisely because of the global nature of the industry which they are seeking to join. Chan (1999) provides a very useful and informative 'emic' insight into the Chinese learner. Other researchers have used Hofstede's cultural dimension model to suggest why different groups behave differently in class and in group work. A US study found an increasing number of students moving to a 'pragmatist' as they learned what their lecturers were looking for. Charlesworth's (2007) study found that even if groups of students stayed within their preferred learning styles, there was usually some evidence of 'convergence' across different national groups. Barron and Arcodia (2002:15) suggest that developing an accessible curriculum is a good thing but warn not to 'promote stereotypical views of the strengths and weaknesses of international students'.

Curriculum development and cultural diversity

■ Hearn, Devine and Baum (2007) discuss the impact that cultural diversity among both employees and customers can have. They suggest that educational institutions need to reflect this in their curriculum development due to the 'dynamic surge in pan European migration' (Hearn et al., 2007:350). They argue that it must be the responsibility of educators and management 'to assure that indigenous staff understand and respect the cultural differences of international workers' (Hearn et al., 2007:351). They also note that the USA and Australia have a 'more established tradition of managing cultural diversity' and that useful lessons could be learned by looking at their experiences. As well as teaching new entrants about the host culture, there is also a need for training programmes on cultural diversity for the 'host' community or the benefits of multicultural experiences may be lost. Lashley and Barron (2006) warn that a failure to explicitly address these cultural differences may lead

to an unsatisfactory experience both for the international students and for the domestic students whom they share a lecture theatre with. There is some debate as to whether it is better to embed such 'cultural diversity' awareness within each module or whether it is better to have a stand-alone module which addresses the topic. This is perhaps similar to the debate on the teaching of ethics to business students. Hearn et al. (2007) provide a useful framework showing where and how such issues could be incorporated within the curriculum.

Student expectations and culture

■ Sulkowski and Deakin (2010) warn that there is a paucity of research into the experience of international students. Prugsamatz et al. (2006) is one of the few studies into what creates the expectations against which international students measure their perceptions of education overseas. In the context of this paper that could include students learning in a culture different to the one they grew up in. They point out that students of a different culture to the host one achieve relatively fewer first class honours degrees. Using Hofstede's classifications they report that students who are,

'the opposite to the British culture, hence highly power-distant/collectivist compared to low power-distant/individualist, are most likely to face difficulties in relation to classroom interaction, interaction with lecturers and peers...' (Sulkowski & Deakin, 2010:111).

They warn that there is insufficient empirical evidence to create cultural profiles which educationalist can then develop support structures and mechanisms for. They also warn of the dangers of stereotyping, something the authorities in New Zealand would need to be very conscious of. Townsend and Lee (2004) and Barron and Arcodia (2002:17) warn of the 'problems associated with dislocation, culture shock and loneliness'. Holmes (2005) found that international students were more likely to form support networks with other international students than with the 'home' students. This also raises the interesting issue of whether it is the responsibility of the student or the institution to accommodate or work to reduce cultural differences. Lashley and Barron (2006) suggest that students learning in a culture other than their own do (over time) adapt to the dominant learning culture, suggesting that a satisfactory outcome is more to do with the student than the institution. The 'cross-cultural competence of staff members' (Sulkowski & Deakin, 2010:113) was also noted as very important for success, and that the critical points of conflict were often around the areas of supervision and assessment. Their solutions included a recommendation to explicitly address the differences in culture and expectations in induction programmes as this would then 'surface' the assumptions and norms which so often go on to cause difficulties at

assessment time. It is worth noting that they are explicit that the host institution should not necessarily sacrifice their national and cultural 'distinctiveness' in order to accommodate the expectations of international students. This certainly resonates with the attitude of some academics that these international students have come overseas precisely to experience a different culture to the one they would be a part of 'back home'. They urge that the best intentions of accommodating cultures might,

'...defeat the objective of promoting and celebrating diversity by treating each student as an individual and lead to segregation rather than an inclusive learning environment.' (Sulkowski & Deakin, 2010:114)

Barron and Arcodia (2002) sound a word of warning that Asian students adopting a more 'activist' style of learning might actually inhibit the reflective, deep-learning approach many lecturers are trying to develop in students who must become life-long learners to succeed in the 21st century. Lashley and Barron (2006) suggest that the use of models such as Kolb's and Honey and Mumford's models of learning help students to understand *how* they learn rather than merely focusing on *what* they learn. Barron (2002) suggests strategies academics can adopt when teaching Asian students in Australia, and concludes by saying that if academics ensure they are aware of any issues and challenges their students are facing then they will be in a better position to address them.

In this paper so far the authors have hopefully provided a fairly extensive review of the literature on education, internationalization and culture. However, the intention of this research was to look at the implications of trying to create a curriculum for hospitality, tourism and event management students within a specific culturally aware context. As has been shown so far, there is considerable literature on students studying in a culture other than their own, and the challenges that result for both students and education providers. The gap in the literature that this paper attempts to address is to do with how academics can create an educational environment which welcomes students of all cultures and ethnicities whilst at the same time respecting the host culture and norms.

This paper therefore now goes on to propose a model which attempts to map experiences of students in Higher Education in New Zealand onto the principles drawn from the Treaty of Waitangi which explicitly commits to the creation of a bi-cultural environment. The link into the preceding literature is therefore not so much to do with ensuring overseas students can access the curriculum and understand the assessment methods, but instead to ask how an educational culture can incorporate the cultural identity and societal norms of the host culture. This is particularly challenging in the context of New Zealand and the commitment to a bi-cultural approach is enshrined in the Treaty of Waitangi. What follows is a framework which should allow academics to reflect on

their teaching practice and curriculum development, and whether their practice upholds the Principles discussed earlier in the introduction to this paper. The examples are not necessarily ‘best practice’ but the authors feel they do demonstrate a commitment to the goals of the ToW. They should provide a tool to assist in demonstrating how staff are addressing the ToW in their teaching. A draft proposal of what such a model might perhaps look like is presented in Table 1. The ‘Principles’ are summaries of

the ones discussed at the start of this paper in the section on the ToW and New Zealand’s secondary education sector. The examples are provided from colleagues at AUT’s School of Hospitality and Tourism and taken from classes across hospitality, tourism, culinary arts and event management. They are not designed to be examples of ‘best practice’, but merely illustrations to encourage others to review and reflect on their own teaching within the context of the Treaty.

Table 1 The model and some examples

Principles	Examples within a tertiary education setting
Accessibility	Providing students with a Paper Study Guide outlining learning outcomes, class content, assessment requirements, deadlines and marking guidelines. Online course material and instructions on uploading assignments. Copies of lecture slides, tutorial material and self-directed learning workbooks.
Non-racist	Utilise international names in examples or assessments. Arrange group work to ensure a mix of ethnicities and backgrounds. Encourage non-native students to contribute examples from their cultures.
Success	Encourage students to ask questions in class. Emphasise the importance of work experience to a better understanding of the theoretical concepts discussed. Acknowledge good contributions in class or assignments.
Lifelong learning	Encourage students to reflect on diversity in the workplace and how this affects the product or service offering. Learning about others and their cultures enriches our own lives. Develop independent learners and reflective practitioners. Gain an understanding of different learning styles. Encourage students to be aware of and utilize any support services that are available (e.g. Māori liaison, Pasifika student support, the Chinese Centre, Te Tari Awhina).
Quality practices	Encourage the sharing of best practice, identify colleagues with particular skills (e.g. groupwork, peer assessment, ICT skills, industry liaison), mentoring, moderation, team teaching, building ‘communities of practice’ with similar interests (e.g. TRINET, an online community of hospitality and tourism academics).
Quality planning	Five-yearly reviews, collaboration with other lecturing staff, Student Evaluations of Papers (SEPs), reflective exercises with students.
Co-operatively designed	Ongoing monitoring and evaluation of programmes that includes input from students, moderators, monitors, external advisory panels, employers, professional bodies, <i>Iwi</i> and other interested groups.
Curriculum reviews	Semester reviews by teaching teams, Programme Leaders, Board of Study, Examination Boards, Heads of Department, Head of School and external bodies and individuals.
Inclusivity	Sharing personal experiences of diversity issues, being empathetic to a cultural issues that may arise in the lecture theatre, providing students with a non-threatening environment to discuss student backgrounds and perceptions of the management issues diversity affects.
Enabling and empowering	Empowering students to take responsibility for their own learning. Encouraging students to set their own goals and deadlines with support from academic staff. Include self-marking assessments to encourage self-reflection and evaluation of strengths and weaknesses. Supporting students in recording achievements.

Source: Obtained from this study



The question that arises from the examples shown in Table 1 is whether these are only relevant to the commitment New Zealand's educational institutions are expected to demonstrate to the goals and principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. This was the researchers' starting point. However, could it be argued that these are examples of good educational practice whatever the host culture one is teaching in? While these principles are drawn from the founding document of New Zealand/Aotearoa, would it not be possible to argue that all students, irrespective of their background, ethnicity or culture would benefit from academics who had considered the above principles in the creation of their courses and assessments? Is it therefore possible to argue that the ToW as envisaged by Captain William Hobson in 1840 was actually a very far-sighted (Utopian?) goal of what education could deliver for a people? While the way in which the Treaty has been (dis?)honoured since it was signed has given rise to hardship, bitterness and resentment on all sides, the authors of this paper would suggest that the principles above do more than merely comply with the requirements of the Treaty. All academics would, surely, like to receive student feedback that explicitly stated that they felt their lecturers delivered these aspects in their lectures? The development of such a culturally-sensitive approach might also be better in terms of producing culturally aware graduates for the workforce. With major events such as the Rugby World Cup arriving in New Zealand in 2011 and discussions for a national convention centre being raised, it is important that New Zealand's tertiary sector can produce graduates who demonstrate and awareness of, commitment to and passion for what it means to be a 'Kiwi'.

Conclusions and opportunities for further research

■ New Zealand is in an almost unique situation. While there are other developed countries where two languages are enshrined in legislation (Belgium, Canada, Finland), there are very few examples where two such different cultures are brought together. However, rather than seeing this as a hindrance and a straight-jacket, it has been argued that this experience (for all its failings and shortcomings) of delivering a bi-cultural education puts New Zealand in an enviable position in terms of being able to deliver a welcoming but challenging, relevant but academically rigorous curriculum for all its students. In particular, the researchers believe that international students who come to New Zealand in large numbers from China, India and other countries will also benefit from the principles which support New Zealand's tertiary education. The fact that the Treaty of Waitangi underpins the very identity and essence of what it means to be a citizen of New Zealand (a Kiwi) means that it also has an impact on the education of future generations. Educators therefore have a responsibility to instill a sense

of partnership and mutual respect between Māori and Pakeha. As Hearn et al. (2007:355) state, our goal as educators should be to ensure 'intercultural competence, or effectiveness'. There is some research (Wade, 1999) showing that students can be very powerful change agents if their lecturers expose students to these issues and concepts. However, Danowitz et al. (2009:601) point out that,

'Curriculum development is embedded in power structures where co-operation, competition, specific rules, norms and value systems play a critical role.'

It may therefore be difficult to make changes to one aspect without addressing wider issues. Despite this challenge, Charlesworth (2007:142) advises that even though it may seem difficult to fulfill these goals:

'As business education goes beyond the traditional training in technical skills to the acquisition of knowledge it will be necessary for employers to both understand how best to provide such learning situations and how best to allow the employee to succeed.'

Lashley and Barron (2006:565) remind the academic community that 'educators also need to plan teaching and learning activities in a way that recognizes student learning preferences and the educational practices that best aids student learning.'

By proposing this reflective educational framework on the basis of the Treaty of Waitangi's Principles, the authors hope that this will provide students in New Zealand with the opportunity to succeed on a global and culturally diverse stage. We would encourage colleagues lecturing in institutions across the world yet represented at this conference in New Zealand to suggest examples of where they address the goals we are working towards here in New Zealand. Using Kolb's Learning Cycle principles, we have an opportunity to gather examples, reflect on these, conceptualise what may be happening, and then go back into the lecture theatres and try and do things better.

Another opportunity for further research is for collaborative research with academics operating within a particular 'political' paradigm, whether that is set by government, by religious leaders or by any other dominant stakeholder groups. How do these impact on the content, delivery or assessment of teaching in your institution?

The researchers welcome your thoughts.

References

Barron, P., (2002). Issues surrounding Asian students' hospitality management in Australia. *Journal of Tea-*

ching in *Travel & Tourism*, 2(3/4), pp 23-45.

- Barron, P., Arcodia, C., (2002). Linking learning style preferences and ethnicity: international students studying hospitality and tourism management in Australia. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 1(2), pp 15-27.
- Biggs, J.B., (2003). *Teaching for quality learning at university*. Maidenhead, UK: McGraw-Hill.
- Carr, S., McKay, D., Rugimbana, R., (1999). Managing Australia's aid- and self-funded international students. *International Journal of Education Management*, 13(4), pp 167-172.
- Chan, S., (1999). The Chinese learner – a question of style. *Education + Training*, 41(6/7), pp 294-304.
- Charlesworth, Z., (2007). Educating international hospitality students and managers: the role of culture. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(2), pp 133-145. DOI: 10.1108/09596110710729247.
- Danowitz, M.A., Hanappi-Egger, E., Hofmann, R., (2009). The development and implementation of a diversity management curriculum. *International Journal of Education Management*, 23(7), pp590-603. DOI: 10.1108/09513540910990825.
- Hearn, N., Devine, F., Baum, T., (2007). The implications of contemporary cultural diversity for the hospitality curriculum. *Education + Training*, 49(5), pp350-363. DOI: 10.1108/00400910710762922.
- Hing, N., (1997). A review of hospitality research in the Asia Pacific region 1989-1996: a thematic perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 9(7), pp 241-253.
- Holmes, P., (2005). Ethnic Chinese students' communication with cultural others in a New Zealand University. *Communication Education*, 54(4), pp 289-311.
- Lashley, C., Barron, P., (2006). The learning style preferences of hospitality and tourism students: Observations from an international and cross-cultural study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 25, pp 552-569. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2005.03.006.
- MOE, (2010). Ministry of Education. Available from <http://www.minedu.govt.nz/theMinistry/AboutUs.aspx> (Accessed 21/10/2010).
- Moon, P., (2006). *Fatal frontiers: a new history of New Zealand in the Decade before the Treaty*. Albany, New Zealand: Penguin Books.
- Orange, C., (1987). *The Treaty of Waitangi*. Wellington, New Zealand: Bridget Williams Books.
- Parry, L.E., Wharton, R., (2006). Teaching and learning in international MBA programmes. *The Business Review (Cambridge)*, 5(1), September, pp 20-26.
- Prugsamatz, S., Pentecost, R., Ofstad, L., (2006). The influence of explicit and implicit service promises on Chinese students' expectations of overseas universities. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 18(2), pp 129-145. DOI: 10.1108/13555850610658273.
- Race, P., (1999). *2000 tips for lecturers*. London, UK: Kogan Page.
- Sulkowski, N.B., Deakin, M.K., (2009). Does understanding culture help enhance students' learning experience? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(2), pp 154-166. DOI: 10.1108/09596110910935651.
- Sulkowski, N., Deakin, M.K., (2010). Implications of internationalization on learning and teaching – listening to the winds of change? *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 9(1), pp110-116 DOI: 10.3794/johlste.91.260.
- Te Puni Kokiri (2010) Te Puni Kokiri publications. Available from: <http://www.tpk.govt.nz/en/in-print/our-publications/> (accessed 10/10/2010).
- Townsend, P., Lee, C., (2004). Cultural adaptation: a comparative analysis of tertiary students' international education experience. *Tourism Review International*, Vol. 8, pp 143-152.
- Wade, J.A., (1999). Students as environmental change agents. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11(5), pp 251-255.
- Walker, R., (2004). *Ka Whawhai Tonu Matou: struggle without end*. Albany, New Zealand: Penguin Books.

Biographical Notes

■ Erwin Losekoot is Senior Lecturer (Hospitality) at the School of Hospitality & Tourism in Auckland University of Technology. He focuses his research in Service operations, Consumer behavior and Customer satisfaction.

■ Linda Wong is Lecturer at the School of Hospitality & Tourism in Auckland University of Technology.

Author's Details

Erwin Losekoot
School of Hospitality & Tourism
Auckland University of Technology
Phone: +64 9 921 999 ext 6347
Email: erwin.losekoot@aut.ac.nz

Linda Wong
School of Hospitality & Tourism
Auckland University of Technology
Phone: +64 9 921 9999 ext 6571
Email: linda.wong@aut.ac.nz

Analysis for the Curricular Design of Tourism Studies in the Dominican Republic: Competences and Professional Profiles to Enable the Prospective Development of Tourism

David Peguero Manzanares, Gloria Sanmartín Antolín and Montserrat Iglesias Xamaní

School of Hospitality and Tourism Management CETT-UB, University of Barcelona
Barcelona, Spain

Submitted: 6th June 2014; Resubmitted: 17th June 2014; Accepted: 19th June 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Abstract

■ This paper presents a research project launched by the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology of the Dominican Republic in 2011 with the aim of drawing up a formal and methodological basis that is used as a guideline to redefine the Bachelor's Degree in Tourism.

The main strategic lines of action derived from two essential requirements: the need to cater for a wider range of professional profiles and the need for curricular touristification. On the one hand, the focus was on the development of the graduates' competences in all the cognitive areas involved in tourism to enable them to set up and manage tourist companies, products and destinations. This would generate innovative options of economic revitalization, decentralizing the current focus on the hospitality industry and incorporating new professional contexts with growth potential in the Dominican tourism sector.

On the other hand, tourism-related subjects were reinforced and close cooperation with professionals on active service was highly recommended. Given the heterogeneity of current and potential local tourist destinations, the idiosyncrasy of each regional educational setting was taken into account to encourage entrepreneurship by empowering future managers of small and medium sized companies to make the most of their resources.

Key Words:

Dominican Republic, tourism, education, competences, development

Resumen

■ La necesidad de repensar y redefinir los estudios universitarios de turismo en la República Dominicana, donde el sector turístico es clave para el desarrollo económico, provocó que el Ministerio de Educación Superior, Ciencia y Tecnología dominicano lanzara en 2011 un proyecto destinado a elaborar una base metodológica que sirva de guía para el rediseño de la Licenciatura en Turismo.

Las principales líneas estratégicas se han formulado partiendo de dos requisitos esenciales: la necesidad de cubrir una gama más amplia de perfiles profesionales y la necesidad de "turistificación" curricular.

Las competencias de los graduados en todos los ámbitos cognitivos del turismo deberían desarrollarse mediante una formación dirigida a la creación y gestión de empresas turísticas, productos y destinos. El objetivo es generar opciones innovadoras para la revitalización económica, la descentralización del enfoque actual en la hotelería y la incorporación de nuevos entornos profesionales con potencial de crecimiento en el sector turístico dominicano.

Dada la heterogeneidad de los destinos turísticos existentes y potenciales, la idiosincrasia de cada región se ha tenido en cuenta con el fin de contextualizar los planes de estudio y de fomentar el espíritu empresarial forjando los futuros directivos de pequeñas y medianas empresas, optimizando así sus recursos.

Palabras clave:

República dominicana, turismo, educación, competencias, desarrollo

Introduction

■ The Dominican Republic is one of the most important tourist destinations in the Caribbean. In recent years the current and also the preceding Dominican governments have opted for updating the local basic infrastructures and for attracting international investment. Environmentally-friendly conservationist policies have been implemented in the tourist areas, international promotional campaigns have been launched, and educational programs to train the local workforce have been devised. These factors have contributed to the economic growth and progress of this country.

Tourism studies provided by higher education institutions must nowadays cater to the needs of the fast-changing tourism industry. Thus, tourism students should master different competences to be able to face a number of challenges, such as the increased cultural diversity, a concern for sustainability, constant technological evolution and supply innovation (Sheldon, Fesenmaier & Tribe, 2011), as well as the ever-changing patterns of tourism behavior, which nowadays seem to be mainly related to experiential consumption (Morgan, Lugosi & Ritchie, 2010).

In order to prevent faculties from offering their graduates ephemeral knowledge and training rather than solid, long-lasting expertise to fit in today's professional world, educational systems require a paradigm shift in terms of form and content of curriculum design, organization and management (Wan & Gut, 2011). Educational approaches nowadays should try not to “address contemporary subjects (such as tourism) through outdated and ageing frameworks for scholarly activity and academic administration” (Coles, Hall & Duval, 2009, p.81).

A consistent educational approach, grounded on constructivist learning theories, should lead to the development of tourism students' competences and the fostering of lifelong learning to underpin their prospective careers.

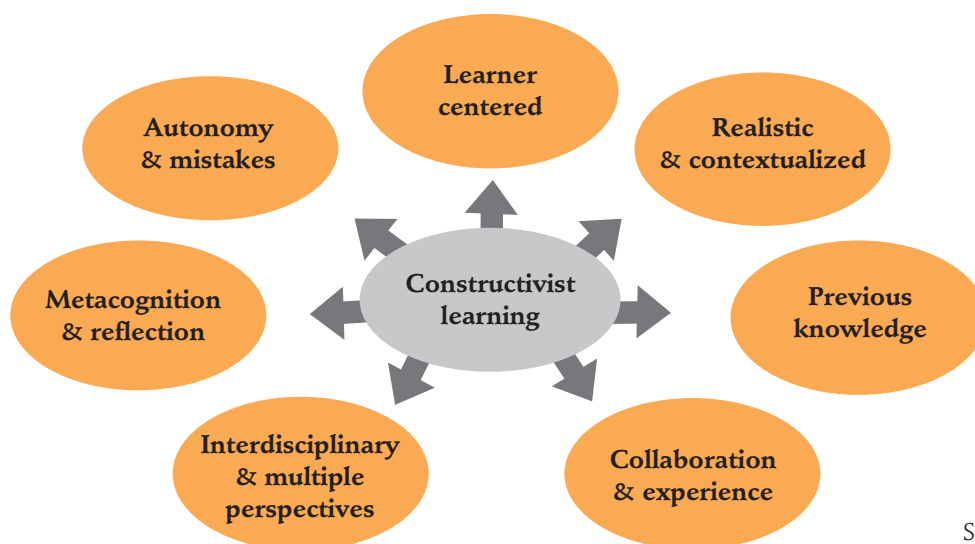
Background and Rationale

Competence-Based Education

■ Constructivist learning theory, represented by Dewey, Montessori and Kolb among others, and based on experiential learning, derives from constructivism as depicted by authors like Piaget and Vygotsky. Summing up some of the main aspects of constructivist learning and teaching according to Wilson and Cole (1991), Lebow (1993), Jonassen (1994), Ernest (1995) and Honebein (1996), learning situations, environments, skills, content and tasks are relevant, realistic and contextualized, and the learning process is learner centered, so educators rather play the role of facilitators of knowledge.

Knowledge construction sustained on the learner's previous knowledge, beliefs and attitudes takes place through social negotiation, collaboration and experience. Multiple perspectives and representations of content are presented and encouraged, and knowledge complexity is reflected in an emphasis on conceptual interrelatedness and interdisciplinarity. In addition, a wide range of activities, opportunities, tools and settings are provided to promote metacognition, reflection and awareness, sometimes through autonomous exploration and through errors, which are regarded as part of the process.

Figure 1 Constructivist learning



Source: Own study

At present, the focus on the development of the learners' competences is aimed at facilitating applicability in real-life professional environments, and preparing students for their future role in society in terms of employability and citizenship. In this sense, three outstanding projects set a valuable frame of reference: Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, Tuning Educational Structures in Europe and Tuning Latin America.

The proposal formulated in 2005 by the Commission of the European Communities on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning set out a Reference Framework including eight key competences. It is assumed that competences consist of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to a given context and that key competences in particular are the ones needed for personal fulfillment, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment. The key competences identified in this model are: communication in the mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, social and civic competences, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, and finally cultural awareness and expression. Many of these competences overlap, as essential features in one domain may support competence in another, and all of them have the same value. Obviously, they incorporate a number of cross aspects, such as critical thinking, creativity, initiative, problem-solving, risk assessment, decision-taking, and constructive management of feelings.

Tuning Educational Structures in Europe started as a project in 2000 to link the political objectives of the Bologna Process to the higher education sector. In 2004 it originated the Tuning Latin America project in order to identify and exchange information, and to improve collaboration between Latin American universities so as to enhance the quality, effectiveness and transparency of their educational systems. The main objective was to facilitate the mobility of students and professionals in Latin America and worldwide. According to Tuning Educational Structures in Europe (2005, p.1), "competences represent a dynamic combination of cognitive and meta-cognitive skills, knowledge and understanding, interpersonal, intellectual and practical skills, and ethical values". Therefore, competences involve different concepts: the production and transmission of knowledge, the relationship between education and society, the mission and values of the education system, teacher training and assessment practice, and student performance.

Different types of competences can be developed gradually from every learner's internal motivations: basic or fundamental, generic or common, specific or targeted, and career-oriented. More specifically, three kinds of generic competences can be distinguished: instrumental, interpersonal and systemic.

Competences (or competencies) are the foundation of

competence-based education (or competency-based education). As stated by Burns (1972), CBE concentrates on the specific skills and abilities that employers look for, with a special emphasis on the specification of the competences that can be acquired by the learners. Several definitions of CBE exist. Yet, all of them refer to the process that moves education from focusing on what students supposedly need to learn in an academic setting, to what they need to know and can do in various complex situations, for example in terms of knowledge transfer in a specific workplace.

Thus, the Tuning Latin America project indicates that the teaching model entailed in CBE seeks to connect academic, scientific and everyday knowledge. CBE offers comprehensive education, which encompasses the learner's cognitive capacity and know-how in life and for life, i.e. knowing how to be enterprising, how to live in the community and how to work in a team. Educational programs in CBE aim at promoting both generic competences and subject-area related competences, formed in several course units and assessed at different stages.

In a changing society, CBE provides many advantages from the Tuning Latin America project's perspective. To start with, this approach can be used as a guiding principle in identifying the professional and academic profiles of study programs. It can also foster the development of an educational paradigm which is primarily learner-oriented and geared towards knowledge management. Furthermore, CBE responds to the growing demand from society on lifelong learning, and allows for more flexibility in the organization of education. It contributes as well to the search for greater levels of employability and citizenship, while encouraging an agreed definition of a common language that should enable exchange and dialogue among all the stakeholders. Finally, a competence-based approach facilitates the construction and consolidation of the Latin America, Caribbean and European Union Area of Higher Education (UEALC/ALCUE).

Competency models have been used in a wide range of professional environments. Sandwith's Competency Domain Model is often used in the hospitality industry as a descriptive tool that makes it possible to identify and categorize competences for job performance. Such model classifies competences into five domains: conceptual/creative, leadership, interpersonal, administrative and technical (Sandwith, 1993).

The conceptual/creative domain refers to the cognitive skills required to be aware of an organization's strategies and policies, whereas the leadership domain is related to the competencies needed to empower employees and build an effective team. The interpersonal domain is concerned with relationship building within an organization, and includes oral, written and telephone communication skills, as well as conflict management

and negotiation skills. To finish with, the administrative domain involves knowing about an organization's rules and enforcing them, while the technical domain encompasses those skills which are essential in order to perform a specific job.

By following a constructivist, competence-based approach to tourism, education can be aligned with the reality of the tourism industry so that the transfer of knowledge from educational settings can benefit not only the people who are directly involved in the sector, but also the local society, by contributing to a nation's economic growth at both micro and macro levels. For many developing countries, tourism is one of the main sources of foreign income and the number one export category, creating much needed employment and opportunities for infrastructure development (UNWTO, 2011). Moreover, the social and environmental impacts of ethically-practiced tourism should have relevant consequences for regional and global progress.

The global forces driving tourism cannot be restrained, but tourism stakeholders have the opportunity to "fashion the future to their needs rather than simply to regard future events as beyond control" (Dwyer et al., 2008, p.55). Educators and administrators are thus required to assume active, responsible leadership roles in order to enable change through the power of education and the potential of tourism both as a transformational tool and as a means to a higher end. To that effect, tourism students should be trained to eventually become responsible leaders and stewards for the hospitality and tourism-related companies and organizations operating in their local destinations (Sheldon, Fesenmaier & Tribe, 2011).

This process is a particularly relevant issue in developing countries, since to become competitive they require coherent policies, effective and efficient institutions and a proactive private sector. A national tourism development strategy must address issues that affect the tourism industry and establish linkages with other sectors of the economy. Governments ought to be fully aware of the implications of different tourist developments and encourage growth models accordingly. Comprehensive tourism development ought to imply targeted support programs, investment in infrastructure and increased community involvement. In addition, stronger domestic markets should lead to benefits for the domestic economies, while at the same time integrating within global tourism networks (UNDP, 2011).

Tourism studies and the tourism industry in the Dominican Republic

■ Even though tourism is the second source of income for the Dominican Republic after the transfer of remittances from Dominican residents abroad, at present

it is regarded as the main revenue generator within the country, as well as one of the main producers of direct and indirect wealth, the largest employment provider and a top facilitator for socioeconomic interaction with other countries. The economic development of this emerging country nowadays relies on growing tourism receipts to offset the decline in the agricultural and manufacturing industries (Padilla & McElroy, 2011).

The construction of hotels on the island to host an international summit of heads of state in the mid 50's gave birth to tourism in a country immersed in a delicate political situation, further impetus for the Dominican Republic to show the world its best image. The Dominican hotel industry was gradually built up. In the 80's, a major boom took place with the arrival of Spanish and American entrepreneurs, mainly hoteliers. The Ministry of Tourism was created and the professional international promotion of this Caribbean destination began (Miolán, 1998).

The need for trained professionals was ignored until the 80's, when the international private companies operating in this country started to train the people working in the tourism industry to meet their needs for qualified top and middle management positions (Olivares, Lladó & Díaz, 1996).

In 1981 the Pontificia Universidad Católica Madre y Maestra (PUCMM) initiated the Hotel Administration educational program, supported first by Cornell University, and later by the University of Nevada. The Universidad Iberoamericana (UNIBE) also has many years' experience in training professionals in the field of hospitality and tourism. In 1990, the bachelor's degree was created to provide the human resources of the Dominican tourism industry with the knowledge, skills and values needed to boost the economic and social development of the various regions that have based their economies on hotel, restaurant and tourism services. Tourism studies have been offered at the Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (UASD) since 2005.

Market preferences currently focus on tourism which is compatible with the environment, and the local community and culture. Meanwhile, the Dominican tourism industry seeks to enhance the pattern of sustainable development across the nation by establishing rules and regulations, and strengthening social responsibility. It aims at involving the local communities in tourism activities, as well as creating social and institutional capital to foster human progress.

The Dominican economy is facing great challenges, and the country requires strong environmental preservation policies. Padilla & McElroy (2011) have identified external pressures to expand development into protected, fragile coastal areas, as well as increased pressures on already weak environmental and planning governmental structures. These authors highlight the explosive growth

of tourism in the south and east of the country, in contrast to a decline in the north. The result has been a subsequent rise in crime and pollution, followed by deep discounts that attract a lower class of tourists motivated by all-inclusive offers. Padilla & McElroy point out the heavy demands on infrastructure, but there is also a need for strong measures against to protect minors from exploitation and sexual abuse, and for institutional consolidation. Furthermore, the decentralization of the market from tour operators, increased income per tourist and hotel room, and improved labor supply are regarded as essential.

Concerning the education of human resources and the promotion of entrepreneurship in the hospitality and tourism industry, the existing academic programs do not serve the current needs. According to the Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness, this sector demands diversified, competence-based training at all levels, as the lack of appropriate skills affects not only the basic operational staff, but also the managers (Consorcio Dominicano de Competitividad Turística, 2011).

Given the increasing demand for competitiveness in the Dominican Republic, the labor market requires all levels of education and training in the areas of Tourism, Hospitality and Gastronomy, as well as the progressive specialization of professionals. Linking institutions of higher education with the production sector is a must so that today's students can have direct contact with the industry they will eventually be part of tomorrow, and curriculum design procedures need to take this into account.

Methodology

Needs analysis

■ The above-mentioned considerations and background have defined the conceptual framework underlying the redesign of the university studies of tourism in the Dominican Republic. In 2011 the Dominican Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology commissioned the School of Hospitality and Tourism Management CETT-UB (EUHT CETT-UB) from the University of Barcelona (Spain) to carry out this project with the aim of drawing up a formal and methodological basis for redefining the Bachelor's Degree in Tourism.

This project was grounded on the premise that higher education in the Dominican Republic must meet the internal needs of higher education institutions, the needs of the Dominican society, and the requirements of both national development and international integration. In this sense, the guidelines provided by the State Secretariat for Higher Education, Science and Technology (SEESCYT) must be followed.

In terms of academic needs, the Dominican universities should address the growing demand for technical and managerial expertise in tourism incorporating in the curriculum of the bachelor's degree the multi and interdisciplinary nature of this field of study with a constructivist, competence-based approach. Moreover, research and post degree studies ought to be developed to advance the science of tourism.

In order to identify the needs of the Dominican society in relation to the tourism industry, as well as the role of this sector in this country's development, a series of workshops and visits were conducted. These actions were carried out at Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo (UASD), the UASD being the pilot state institution that will serve as a model for other Dominican universities. The participants included a number of representatives from the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, the Ministry of Tourism, the Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences, the Association of Hotels and Tourism in the Dominican Republic (ASONAHORES) and a team of researchers from EUHT CETT-UB.

In these sessions the current situation of the Dominican tourism sector and the ministerial strategies were presented, as well as the main goals and trends within the private sector. In addition, an overview of the educational system was provided, with a special focus on higher education, the structure of the Management Schools from the Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences at UASD, and their curriculum of the Bachelor's Degree in Tourism and Hotel Management (referred to as Plan 14). Such presentations were complemented by a number of practical workshops aimed at identifying the professional profiles that tourism studies in the Dominican Republic should target. Moreover, the syllabuses of each subject included in Plan 14 were analyzed in detail. The initial needs analysis was supplemented by visits to the regional schools where Plan 14 is offered and interviews with several teachers and students.

The growth potential of the Dominican tourism industry was forecast and taken as a baseline for future educational needs, since Plan 14 was deemed unfit and in need of urgent redesigning. Rural tourism, for example, should be fostered by generating basic accommodation in inland areas, while the complementary offers of tourism services need strengthening in both coastal and inland areas. This will require setting up transport and logistics companies, consulting firms, institutions involved in tourism planning, development and marketing, leisure centers, tour guide companies, travel agencies and catering providers.

Furthermore, as mentioned above, sustainable planning and development is a priority, and a wide range of tourism subsectors should be promoted as an alternative to the traditional sun and beach option, particularly those related to culture, cruises, sports, adventure acti-

vities, health, congresses and events, nightlife and entertainment, second homes and ecotourism. Higher education programs should cater to the diversification that these new trends reflect. The specialization could be achieved by linking specific subjects to the local development of tourism in different geographic regions of the Dominican Republic.

The needs analysis also showed some education and training deficits that the new curriculum should address. The general lack of foreign language skills underscores the need to develop the communicative competence of university students of tourism in English and at least one other foreign language. Another weakness are the inadequate technical skills at a basic operational level in different areas of the hospitality industry. Moreover, there is a shortage of qualified professionals in the fields of marketing, congress and event organization, and cultural heritage management. Finally, entrepreneurs offering complementary services -such as tour guides, tourist information officers, tour operators and transport providers- are scarce. All these shortcomings must be dealt with

Designing the curriculum

■ The next stage of the methodological procedure consisted in another series of workshops in which further work on the foundations of the new curriculum was undertaken. A team of teachers from UASD travelled to Barcelona and took part in these sessions, along with a number of teachers from EUHT CETT-UB who teach a Degree in Tourism at this school. The work carried out in Spain by the National Agency for Quality Assessment and Accreditation (ANECA) to adapt the Spanish studies of tourism to the European Higher Education Area was taken as a foundation. The target professional profiles for the Dominican Republic were subsequently categorized keeping in mind the above-mentioned development needs of the Dominican tourism industry.

The target professional profiles related to each tourism subsector were classified into in transit profiles involved in basic operations, target profiles for tourism graduates, and complemented profiles that future graduates aiming at specialized top management positions may have eventually, provided they are specifically trained through postgraduate programs.

After taking into consideration the key competences for lifelong learning and Tuning competences, the transversal and specific competences associated to each professional profile were selected. More specifically, nine transversal competences were identified, which are connected to the five values that should be integrated in tourism education programs according to Sheldon, Fesenmaier and Tribe (2011). Assuming that mutuality is the basic principle that underlies a constructivist approach, tou-

rism students ought to develop their ability to work in a diverse, international context and to be ethically committed. They should also be able to engage actively in sustainable practices in order to achieve stewardship. In addition, knowledge as a principle is linked to managing information and to thinking critically in problem-solving and decision-making processes. Last but not least, professionalism is intertwined with several competences, such as proactivity, entrepreneurship, teamwork, customer service orientation and business vision.

Having established the transversal competences to be developed on a cross-curricular basis, thirteen specific competences were in turn related to different areas of tourism expertise. Taking into account the curriculum design of Plan 14, the various areas of expertise included in the new curriculum were defined and broken down into subjects (Table 1).

As a consequence, the main strategic lines of the redesign were validated. The first one highlighted the need to expand the target profiles of the university students aspiring to reach middle and top management positions in new areas of professional development apart from the traditional hotel and catering industry-related work contexts, such as public destination planning and management, mediation, transport and logistics, tourism products and activities, and training and research.

The second strategic line of the new curriculum design focused on the need for touristification, minimizing those basic subject matters which were not related to tourism, integrating tourism-oriented transversal subject matters and increasing the number of credits allocated to tourism-specific subjects (Figure 2).

Results and Discussion

The new Degree in Tourism

■ The redesign of the university studies of tourism was ultimately undertaken by the team of researchers at EUHT CETT-UB, who endeavored to configure a curriculum that would guarantee the homogeneous planning and development of the new Degree in Tourism. The curriculum must be consistent with global needs, and be based on standards of quality that should be manageable and achievable in any UASD Schools that offered such educational program.

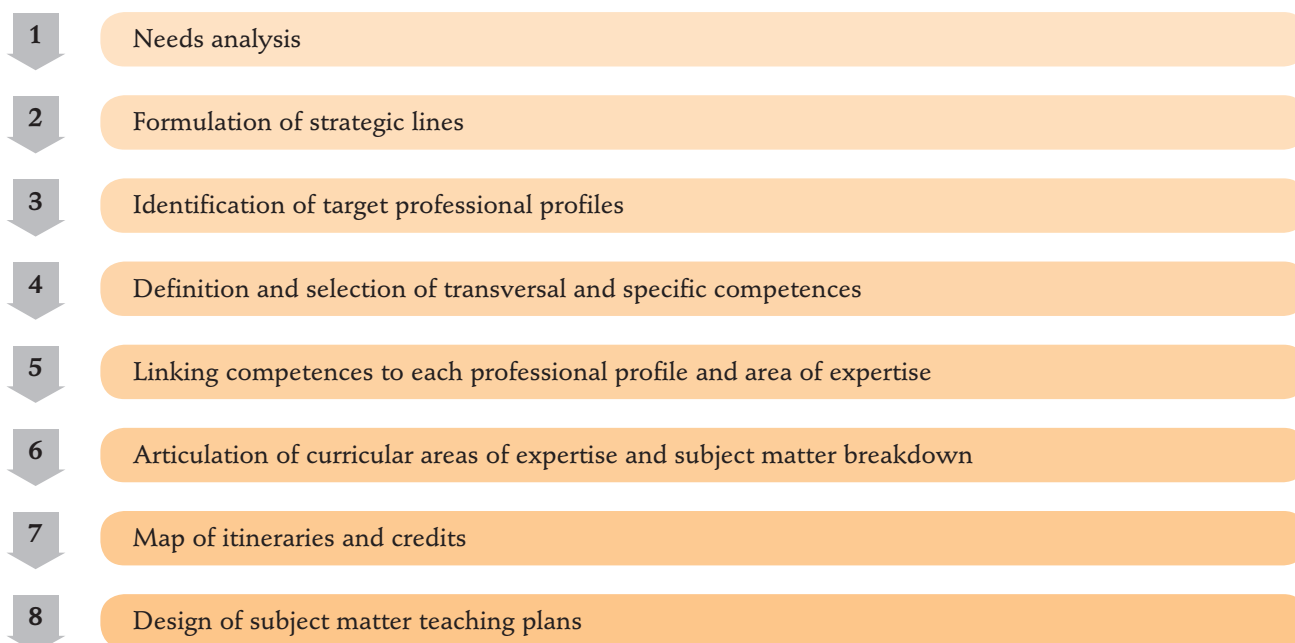
By working on the same objectives and contents and using similar, coherent methodologies and assessment procedures in the classrooms of each one of the schools, the accreditation value of the syllabuses across UASD was enhanced. The new curriculum incorporated new fields of tourism-related study and restructured the credits. It also allowed for a wide range of specialization options

Table 1 Specific competences

Political and economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowing the main political and administrative tourism structures • Understanding the legal framework
Research and development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Turning a problem into a research topic and elaborating conclusions • Evaluating tourism potential and the prospective analysis of exploiting it
Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding the main aspects of tourism: its environmental, social, cultural, legal, political, industrial and economic dimensions • Understanding how destinations, tourism structures and business sectors operate worldwide
Destination management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying and managing tourist locations and destinations • Appreciating cultural and natural heritage
Tourism organizations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management: Managing different types of tourism organizations • Human Resources: Planning and managing the HR of tourism organizations • Commercial: Defining objectives, strategies and commercial policies • Finance: Managing financial resources • Operations and processes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Knowing the operational procedure of the accommodation industry Knowing the operational procedure of the catering industry Knowing the operational procedure of intermediation companies Identifying technical planning needs of tourism infrastructures and facilities

Source: Own study

Figure 2 Curriculum design process



Source: Own study

in order to meet the professional needs of the students, and to capitalize on the potential of each region's tourism industry.

As a result of analyzing the professional profiles targeted

by the new Degree in Tourism and their associated competences, twelve areas of study were considered essential: nine global areas complemented by three specialization areas. Each one of the twelve areas of study encompassed different types of subjects.

Figure 3 Curricular areas of study



Source: Own study

A specific, detailed learner-centered teaching plan for each subject was drawn up in turn, including the following sections: 1) a description of the subject (its designation, teaching period and number of credits); 2) the competences related to it; 3) the expected learning outcomes; 4) the interconnected subjects; 5) the learning-teaching methodology; and 6) the procedures devised to assess competence development following a constructivist competence-based approach.

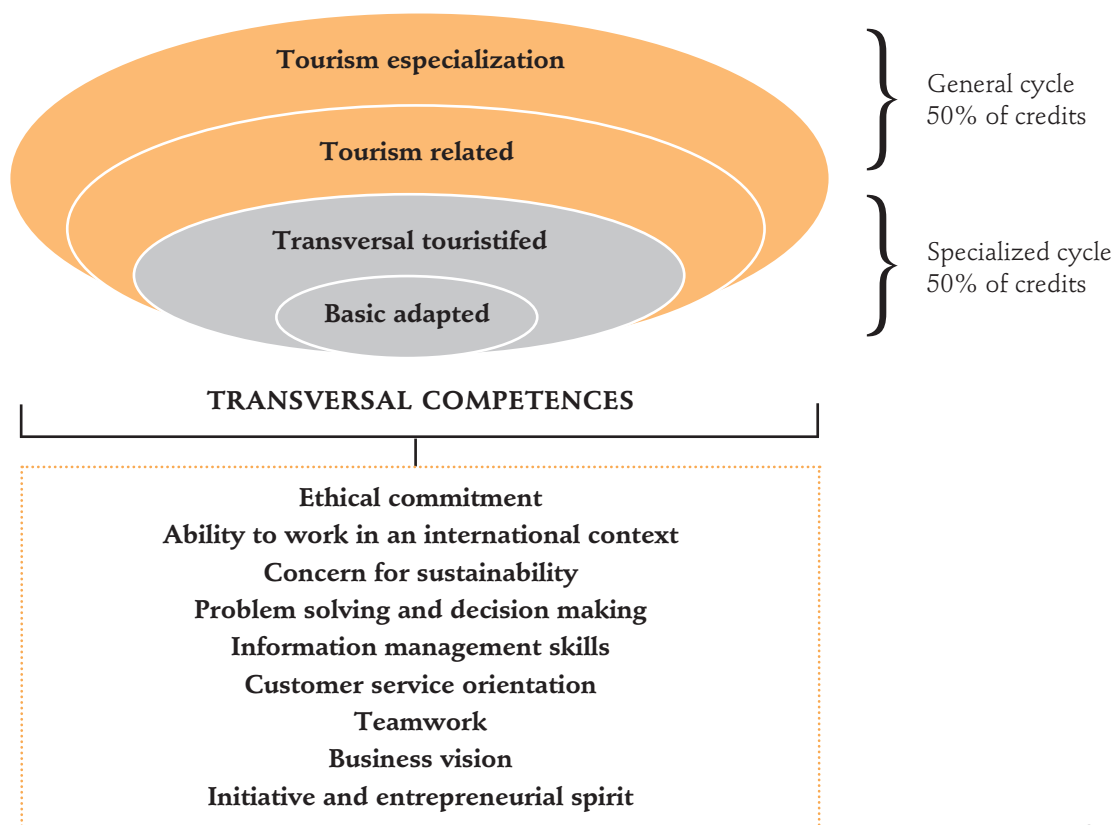
The development of the learners' key competences that may not be directly linked to tourism was enabled through basic subjects. Adapting general or transversal subjects to the reality of the tourism industry made it possible to develop transversal competences (Figure 4). Specialized education and training referring to different subsectors (depending on each school's location and the students' preferences) was provided by means of both compulsory tourism-based subjects and optional tourism specialization subjects dealing with specific competences. Two alternative itineraries were offered: on the one hand, hotel and catering management, focusing

on the administration of hotels, restaurants and other tourism service providers; on the other hand, tourism management, geared towards managing tourist products and destinations.

The new Degree in Tourism is meant to be a four-year program, and the total number of credits has a balanced distribution over such period of time. The interrelations between different subjects have been clearly identified and limited to allow for consistency interdisciplinarily. Even though some advanced subjects require prior knowledge acquired previously through other basic subjects, prerequisites have been kept to a minimum to make sure students can complete their degrees in four years of steady progress.

Given the importance of internships in the professional training of the students, practical placements in a real world setting are integrated in the curriculum as sources of extra-disciplinary knowledge and given specific credit value. Such internships are to be associated with the curricular specialization itinerary the students have

Figure 4 Subjects



Source: Own study

chosen. Two practical placements are included: the first period should enable the students to get in touch with the tourism industry in general, while the second period should provide the opportunity for them to gain experience in a specific area. A key issue involves standardization and consistent regulation of the intern-ship periods.

The Dominican tourism industry needs professionals who can communicate in foreign languages with tourists and customers, suppliers and other professionals, particularly in managerial positions. Being fully proficient in Spanish as a mother tongue, in English as a lingua franca, and in a second foreign language is a must. Therefore, the international scope of the new curriculum involves using three languages with different degrees of communicative competence: Spanish at a native level, English from a false beginner level and a second foreign language from an elementary level. The second foreign language could vary according to the geographical region where each school is located.

In order to improve the students' research skills, a number of credits can be fulfilled by conducting a research project which qualifies as a subject in its own right in the new curriculum. A project tutor should ensure the appropriate quality standards regarding the format and methodological approach of this work.

Recommendations

■ To optimize the new curriculum design, a number of recommendations were put forward by the team of researchers.

Higher education in tourism at UASD has been provided by Management Schools from the Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences. The creation of Schools of Tourism with their own identity, under the administration of the same Faculty, was highly recommended. Each school should be structured within departments based on the areas of study included in the curriculum of the new Degree in Tourism, and composed of qualified, specialized teachers, coordinated by department heads. One of the school's departments ought to be devoted exclusively to handling internships. The responsible individual for that department should be in charge of orienting the students, and should have a direct relationship with the Dominican tourism stakeholders.

In order to increase the students' professional competitiveness and employability, academic mobility must be encouraged. To support this, cooperation agreements that enable students to take part in domestic and international academic exchange programs should be considered.

Moreover, policies that raise the students' awareness of responsible behavior and environmentally-friendly practices in the educational context should be pursued. This line of action might have a positive impact on sustainability within the Dominican tourism industry and contribute to the building of a more balanced society.

The design and implementation of a consistent system to supervise academic quality standards would make it possible to assess the adequacy of the Degree in Tourism, the fulfillment of the curricular objectives and the effectiveness of the academic services. This in turn would allow for systematic review and improvement.

Some considerations must be formulated to finish with. The new Degree in Tourism intends to meet the educational needs of the Dominican tourism sector at a tactical level, providing future top and middle managers with the necessary competences to succeed. However, the employees who carry out basic operational tasks in the tourism industry also require some degree of training. Such training is not to be provided in a higher education environment, but rather at an earlier stage in the educational system. Consequently, offering technical studies in tourism, which might be followed by the new Degree in Tourism, should be seriously considered.

Furthermore, some professionals, after having obtained a Bachelor's Degree in Tourism, still require supplementary education and training that enable them to face high responsibilities at strategic levels. This fact suggests that Master's and postgraduate programs should be designed. These types of programs would facilitate the further specialization of graduates interested in pursuing careers in top management in various areas of the Dominican tourism industry. Designing a Master's degree with a special focus on research might give birth to a PhD program in tourism.

The future of the tourism sector depends heavily on initiatives derived from research projects, which therefore must be stimulated. The creation of a tourism observatory aligned with academic research should contribute to the scientification of tourism in the Dominican Republic. Resources should be devoted to research, development and innovation in the field of tourism to enable dialogue between academia and industry, so that the research skills of tourism graduates and postgraduates and the outcomes of their work have direct applicability in the sector.

Final considerations

■ To sum up, tourism is a strategic asset for the Dominican Republic and as such it must be taken care of consequently. Sufficient quality standards must be ensured so that tourism is long-lasting, it is not depleted by overexploitation, or becomes no longer efficient due

to lacking skilled workforce or management capacity. Tourism is a cross-cutting phenomenon which involves agents in several business sectors and areas of public administration. Training employees and providing them with an integrated tourism vision is the key to the success of the government policies that aim at turning tourism into a long-lasting, sustainable industry.

The above-mentioned reasons led the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology of the Dominican Republic to undertake the redesign of the tourism studies at the UASD that has been presented in this article, with the underlying implication that such studies should contribute noticeably to this country's tourism strategy. A very relevant aspect in this case is that the need to train the future professionals in the Dominican tourism has been addressed by a ministry not directly related to the tourism sector.

As we have seen, the Ministry for Higher Education, Science and Technology endorsed the training of the future managers in the tourism sector and the future administrators of the Dominican tourism services through a project based on some basic principles: the transversality of the tourism industry, the need to meet the requirements of each subsector, the diversity of the local tourist areas, the need to adapt the educational programs to the tourism activities carried out locally, the need to revise the professional competences of the future tourism professionals, and the correlation with the strategic plan of tourism for the Dominican Republic.

Two questions can be raised at this point. The project of redesigning the Bachelor's Degree in Tourism used the UASD as the pilot public institution that will be a model for other Dominican universities. Therefore, the process that has been described in this article should also be carried out in the context of private higher education institutions. Assuming that the new Bachelor's Degree in Tourism is to be eventually implemented across the Dominican Republic following the government guidelines, one possible limitation of this project was the specificity of the UASD. This is why tailoring the redesign process to the specific conditions of private universities should enhance their implication to guarantee the success of this new approach.

The second issue well worth pondering is the applicability of the methodology that has been employed in this project to other areas of knowledge or other countries with similar needs. Because of the universal validity of the conceptual framework that provides the ground for competence-based education and the particularity of the detailed perspective offered by the needs analysis, the different stages of the curriculum design could be replicated in other geographical regions and could be extrapolated to educational programs in any other field. The outcomes would obviously be varied and idiosyncratic, catering to the needs of today's world.

References

- Agencia Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad y Acreditación. (2004). *Libro Blanco. Título de Grado en Turismo*. Retrieved from http://www.aneca.es/var/media/359791/libroblanco_turismo_03.pdf
- Beneitone, P., Esquetini, C., González, J., Maletá, M.M., Siufi, G., & Wagenaar, R. (Coord.). (2007). *Reflexiones y perspectivas de la Educación Superior en América Latina. Informe Final Proyecto Tuning América Latina*. Bilbao: University of Deusto, University of Groningen. Retrieved from http://www.deusto-publicaciones.es/ud/openaccess/tuning/pdfs_tuning/tuning05.pdf
- Burns, R. (1972). Behavioral objectives for competency-based education. In R. W. Burns & J. L. Klingstedt (Eds.). *Competency-Based Education: An Introduction*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- Coles, T.E., Hall, C.M., & Duval, D.T. (2009). Post-disciplinary tourism. In J. Tribe (Ed.). *Philosophical Issues in Tourism*. Bristol: Channel View.
- Commission of the European Communities. (2005). *Proposal for a recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on key competences for lifelong learning*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/keyrec_en.pdf
- Consortio Dominicano de Competitividad Turística. (2011). *Mesa de Formación y sus Aportes*. Retrieved from <http://www.turismocdct.org/noticias-generales/438-mesa-de-formacion-y-sus-aportes-.html>
- Dwyer, L., Edwards, D., Mistilis, N., Scott, N., Cooper, C., & Roman, C. (2008). *Megatrends Underpinning Tourism to 2020: Analysis of Key Drivers for Change*. Gold Coast, Queensland: Cooperative Research Centre for Sustainable Tourism. Retrieved from http://www.crctourism.com.au/wms/upload/images/disc%20of%20images%20and%20pdfs/for%20bookshop/documents/80046%20Dwyer_TourismTrends2020%20WEB.pdf
- Ernest, P. (1995). The one and the many. In L.P. Steffe & J. Gale (Eds.), *Constructivism in education*. Hillsdage, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (Coord.). (2005). *Tuning Educational Structures in Europe II. Universities' contribution to the Bologna Process*. Bilbao: University of Deusto, University of Groningen. Retrieved from http://www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/images/stories/documents/General_Brochure_final_version.pdf
- Honebein, P.C. (1996). Seven Goals for the Design of Constructivist Learning Environments. In B.G. Wilson (Ed.), *Constructivist Learning Environments: Case Studies in Instructional Design*. New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.
- Jonassen, D.H. (1994). Thinking technology: Toward a constructivist design model. *Educational Technology*, 34(4), 34-37.
- Lebow, D. (1993). Constructivist Values for Instructional Systems Design: Five Principles Toward a New Mindset. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 41(3), 4-16.
- Miolán, A. (1998). *Datos para la historia del turismo de la República Dominicana*. Santo Domingo: Editora de Colores.
- Morgan, M., Lugosi, P., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (Eds.). (2010). *The Tourism and Leisure Experience: Consumer and Managerial Perspectives*. Bristol: Channel View.
- Olivares, M., Lladó, J., & Díaz, C. (1996). *Capacitación y entrenamiento en la microempresa dominicana*. Santo Domingo: Fondo para el Financiamiento de la Microempresa, Inc..
- Padilla, A., & McElroy, J.L. (2010). The Three Cs of Caribbean Tourism: Contexts, Characteristics, and Consequences. *Ara (Caribbean) Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(2), 78-90. Retrieved from <http://www.arajournal.net/article/veure/15>
- Sandwith, P. (1993). A hierarchy of management training requirements: The competency domain model. *Public Personnel Management*, 22(1), 43-62.
- Secretaría de Estado de Educación Superior, Ciencia y Tecnología de la República Dominicana. (2008). *Plan Decenal de Educación Superior 2008-2018*. Retrieved from <http://www.seescyt.gov.do/plandecenal/Paginas/Documentos.aspx>
- Sheldon, P.J., Fesenmaier D.R., & Tribe, J. (2011). The Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI): Activating Change in Tourism Education. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 11(1), 2-23. Retrieved from <http://www.tourismeducationfutures.org/sites/default/files/pauline-sheldon.pdf>
- United Nations Development Programme. (2011). *Tourism and Poverty Reduction Strategies in the Integrated Framework for Least Developed Countries*. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/files/48503/13045122901Tourism_Poverty_Reduction_LDCs_web.pdf/Tourism_Poverty_Reduction_LDCs_web.pdf

Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo. *Licenciatura en Administración de Empresas Turísticas y Hoteleras. Plan de estudios 14*. Retrieved from http://uasd.edu.do/desc_carreras/?periodoV=200920&programa=P-ADMT&plan=000014&valor=R&lugar=1

UNWTO. (2011). *Tourism Highlights 2011 Edition*. Retrieved from http://mkt.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/unwtohighlights11enlr_3.pdf

Wan, G., & Gut, D.M. (2011). Introduction. In G. Wan & D.M. Gut (Eds.), *Bringing Schools into the 21st Century*. London: Springer.

Wilson, B., & Cole. P. (1991). A review of cognitive teaching models. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 39(4), 47-64.

Phone: + 34 934 280 777
Email: gloria.sanmartin@cett.es

Montserrat Iglesias Xamaní
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
CETT-UB, University of Barcelona
Phone: + 34 934 280 777
Email: montserrat.iglesias@cett.es

Biographical Notes

■ David Peguero Manzanares is the CETT Consultors director and corporate development director at CETT group. His area of research is internationalization of higher education and tourism and economic development.

■ Gloria Sanmartín Antolín is a lecturer of Hospitality Management at the School of Hospitality and Tourism Management CETT-UB from University of Barcelona (Spain) and a Senior Consultant of Cett Consultancy Division. Her areas of expertise include all aspects of Hospitality Management, especially Operations Management, Revenue Management and Quality Systems.

■ Montserrat Iglesias Xamaní is a Senior Lecturer of English as a Foreign Language and the Head of Studies at CETT Language School (School of Hospitality and Tourism Management CETT-UB, University of Barcelona, Spain). Her research focuses on the development of oral communicative competence in English for specific purposes and on language tourism.

Author's Details

David Peguero Manzanares
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
CETT-UB, University of Barcelona
Phone: + 34 934 280 777
Email: david.peguero@cett.es

Gloria Sanmartín Antolín
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
CETT-UB, University of Barcelona

Work In Progress: The Role Of Higher Education In Post-Conflict Tourism Development, A Case Study From Rwanda

Kabera Callixte

Rwanda Tourism University (RTUC),
Kigali, Rwanda

Karel Werdler

Inholland University,
Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Submitted: 18th March 2014; Accepted: 1st April 2014. e-ISSN: 2014-4458

Abstract

■ Tourism and hospitality have been recognized as a major economic factor worldwide and competition between destinations for present and future tourist has only become fiercer. Within such established markets as the East African safari & beach market it will not be easy for new destinations to discern themselves and offer a complimentary or new product. Especially in the case of Rwanda, that was plagued by a violent recent history and still suffers from an unclear image, this objective might not be easy to realize. However with the support from international partners and the dedication and ambitions of the national government in collaboration with local stakeholders, Rwanda is moving forward. Although this case study is related to an African example there might be suggestions and lessons learned that could inspire other destinations to proceed along a similar track.

Key Words:

International cooperation, empowerment, Rwanda Tourism, capacity building, stakeholders' involvement

Resumen

■ El turismo y la hospitalidad han sido reconocidos como un factor económico importante en todo el mundo, y la competencia entre los destinos por el turista actual y futuro sólo ha vuelto más feroz. Dentro de estos mercados establecidos, como es el caso de los mercados de safari y playa de África del Este, no será fácil para los nuevos destinos diferenciarse y ofrecer un producto complementario o nuevo. Especialmente en el caso de Ruanda, plagado por una historia reciente de violencia y cuya imagen todavía se ve afectada, este objetivo no puede ser fácil de realizar. Sin embargo, con el apoyo de socios internacionales y la dedicación y ambiciones del gobierno nacional, en colaboración con los actores locales, Ruanda está avanzando. Aunque este caso de estudio se refiere a un ejemplo de África puede haber sugerencias y lecciones aprendidas que podrían inspirar a otros destinos a continuar por un camino similar.

Palabras clave:

Cooperación internacional, empoderamiento, turismo de Ruanda, fomento de la capacidad, participación de los interesados

Introduction

■ The position of tourism as an economic contribution to the financial and socio-economic welfare of destinations has been acknowledged by many governments worldwide, as it has by non-governmental institutions and last but not least by commercial organizations. According to the UNWTO tourism has become one of the largest economic sectors of the world and is not just providing income, but also jobs to a large percentage of the world's population. Furthermore it is expected by that same UNWTO that tourism continues to grow and that by the year 2020 more than 1.6 billion people will travel as tourists (UNWTO, 2010). Therefore it comes as no surprise that many governments see the development of their tourism sector as an important source to enlarge the GDP and even as a factor that can contribute to the distribution of wealth, reduce poverty, stimulate entrepreneurship, fortify the position of women and the re-evaluation of its culture. Sometimes tourism is also regarded as a means to present a destination positively on the world stage, eventually leading to a position where non-tourism related enterprises might consider the strengthening of market-ties or even the establishment of a business.

The overall share of the African continent in international tourism is around 5 % but the division of arrivals and receipts is not equally distributed over the region. Looking at Sub-Saharan Africa it becomes clear that South Africa receives the larger share of all arrivals and income and that the East African market is the second destination. Within this region Kenya and Tanzania are the top earners followed by Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi at a last position.

Rwanda's economic ambitions

■ Rwanda and Burundi are the two other countries that belong to this region, but their role as an international destination cannot be compared that easily with the other nations. Although the low level of tourism development is also due to the violence that occurred in the recent past, and the subsequent image of the destination, there are other reasons as well why Rwanda in particular did not become a top-of-mind destination in this part of the world for most of the last decade. However since 2002 the new government of the country realized that Rwanda's balance of trade is characterized by a persistent deficit of exports compared to imports and that this deficit can be explained by a number of factors including energy dependence, food dependence, the low level of industrialization, and the lack of significant export diversification. Rwanda's trade deficit can therefore be interpreted as the incapacity of the economy to produce what it needs, or as the lack of producing export receipts sufficient to cover imports needs. The level of Rwandan

export remains low, covering only 23 per cent of imports in 2008.

Despite this, Rwanda has recently experienced strong trade performance with exports growing at an average of 12.5 per cent a year since 2001. Besides private sector mobilization, an important driver of export growth has been the restructuring of front agencies such as RIEPA (Rwanda Investment and Export Promotion Agency) and subsequently the Rwanda Development Board (RDB). While performance is still short of desired targets, it provides evidence that Rwanda can reduce imbalances in the trade account when informed choices and timely actions are made on specific export industries. Furthermore, the Government of Rwanda has initiated a broad economic reform agenda from which ambitious targets have been set for growth and poverty reduction. The government, as part of its long-term strategy, has set the targets of reaching the status of a middle income country, growing to a per capita income of \$900 by 2020 from \$250 in 2002, based on a rapid transition from subsistence farming to higher value added agriculture and non-farming activities, that will require an annual growth rate of at least 7 per cent. Achieving this target will also require growth in a variety of sectors. In this context, it is expected that the sector of services should record an annual growth rate of at least 10 per cent from 2006 to 2020. In order to address the trade deficit as well as Rwanda's growth targets, a clear development strategy for the tourism sector is required, one of the service sectors with greatest potential for growth in Rwanda. The tourism sector has seen good performance during the past few years, with its contribution in the national economy growth increasing over time. In 2008, the number of foreign visitors to Rwanda reached just under one million from about 826,000 in 2007, an increase of 30 per cent. Estimates indicate that tourism revenues significantly increased between 2007 and 2011, from \$138 million to \$252 million. A well-focused tourism policy with expected arrivals of 1.199.000 in 2012 and up to 2.219.000 in 2020 could increase these figures even further, contributing greater public revenues, boosting the current account of the balance of payments and contributing to the economic growth of Rwanda. However, workforce shortages are considerable with a 96% gap at technician level and a 55% gap at professional/management level at present and a disproportionately large proportion of the workforce coming from neighboring countries such as Kenya (MIFOTRA, Audit report 2009). Based on this and on the expected number of tourists in the future, the Hospitality and Tourism sector would need a substantial increase in infrastructure and personnel in the coming years.

Vision 2020

■ In its Vision 2020 document the Rwanda government sees a significant role for the tourism industry to con-

tribute to increasing the service share of GDP and names specific aspirations that are directly linked to tourism, such as: the development of a culture of entrepreneurship, the development of a broad, dynamic and competitive private sector and last but not least the growth of investments driven by the private sector, together contributing to a sustainable reduction of poverty. The Rwanda Tourism Policy will also focus on integrating its tourism sector both regionally and internationally and on the creation of synergies between its tourism sector and other complementing industries. Job creation, strengthening professional competencies, local communities participation in the development of the sector, improved use of information and communication technology, rational use of existing physical infrastructures, strengthening public-private sector partnership, and development of agro-tourism amongst others are some of the objectives highlighted in the five years national export strategy plan (2012-2017) that should contribute to the attainment of vision 2020.

The Vision 2020 document was preceded by several other policy documents and the result of the efforts undertaken by the Tourism Working Group (TWG) that met for the first time in 2001. This TWG, which included public and private sector stakeholders, was created to begin the challenging process of rebuilding Rwanda's tourism sector. At that time the situation of Rwanda's tourism was not healthy, with international leisure arrivals estimated at less than 3,000 a year compared with nearly 40,000 in 1984. At that time the tourism industry was fragmented, lacking the resources and leadership needed to recover and to become both internationally competitive and a force for achieving the socio-economic development goals. The strategic vision for tourism in Rwanda that resulted from the Tourism Working Group's efforts was stated in the Rwanda Tourism Strategy 2002. The country faced the daunting task of rebuilding its tourism industry after a devastating war and a damaged reputation internationally as a tourist destination. Using the gorillas as its flagship product Rwanda tourism set out to promote its other primate products, cultural tourism products and to become the leading eco-tourism destination in East and Central Africa. The industry has achieved its goal of attracting a high-end leisure market. The numbers tracking the gorillas (Rwanda's iconic product) in 2008 reached near capacity. This has emphasized the need for the diversification of products as well as the increased participation of the private sector in investments and product development. In reviewing the succession of tourism policies and strategies it became evident that most, if not all, the central issues have been stated and restated. What was needed next was a more concise situational analysis, confirmation of the key issues and the setting of specific tourism development objectives and targets. This would then lead on to a comprehensive set of implementable action plans to achieve those stated aims in order to advance the tourism development agenda to where it could make a decisive difference to

the Rwandan economy. The Sustainable Tourism Development Master Plan addresses these issues. New objectives and strategies are required that are compatible with and reflect the direction outlined in the Master Plan. This policy document was drafted within the context of the Master Plan and concentrated on elaborating policy, objectives and strategies. The overall objective of the Tourism Policy is to increase tourism revenues, profits for reinvestment and jobs through developing new distinctive, market-led products clearly positioned and promoted in the marketplace, bringing spatial and social balance to the distribution of tourism benefits. More specific it aims to: implement planned and coordinated marketing and communications strategies; position and maintain tourism as a national priority; project a clear, distinctive, image of Rwanda as a wildlife, eco-tourism, cultural and conference destination that is attractive to a high-value market and sensitive to the natural, cultural and social environment; develop quality tourism products, services and supporting infrastructure capable of attracting and meeting the needs of international, regional and domestic visitors; raise the awareness and understanding of the benefits of tourism across all strands of Rwandan society and within the tourism industry itself; channel tourism development into the identified Destination Management Areas (DMAs) and linking corridors. These DMA's will be developed as tourism intensive zones, which will include visitor attractions, activities and services, accommodation, and supporting infrastructure. Finally it aims to: establish and maintain highly effective, streamlined and focused organizational structures with the necessary skills and resources, so as to implement good tourism governance and management and, through systematic high quality training create a skilled workforce in value jobs at every level of the tourism and hospitality industry.

International cooperation

■ To accomplish these last two goals cooperation was sought with several NGO's from the Netherlands, resulting in a fact-finding mission to Kigali by SNV, the Netherlands primary NGO focusing on development. Their initial report led to another contact, this time with Nuffic, an independent, non-profit organization based in The Hague, the Netherlands that supports international cooperation in higher education, research and professional education in the Netherlands and abroad and aims to improve access to higher education worldwide. Their most important contract partners are the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture & Science and the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs. They offer several different programs for capacity building such as StuNed (focusing on Indonesia), NFP (Fellowships for short courses), NPT (focused on institutional strengthening) and NICHE which supports capacity development in higher education in Dutch partner countries. The overall aim of

NICHE is to help alleviate qualitative and quantitative shortages in skilled manpower, and to do so within the framework of sustainable capacity-building directed towards reducing poverty in 23 developing countries. Support is provided in sectors which are supported by the Dutch bilateral cooperation program, in the higher education sector in general or in cross-cutting themes. In all cases, the relationship with the post-secondary education sector is taken into account. NICHE pays special attention to gender issues and to the link between capacity development and the needs of the labour market at all levels of the program.

Organizations from selected sectors in the NICHE countries are asked to apply for a project by submitting a project outline. The projects are expected to contribute to the realization of objectives formulated at the sector level, guaranteeing the embedding of projects in national priorities and the interrelationship between the contributions of the individual projects. A project has a maximum duration of four years.

Expertise of Dutch organizations, coupled with local or regional expertise, is used to assist the requesting organizations. Support can be given to a variety of organizations in NICHE countries, including institutions for post-secondary education, government ministries, national commissions, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Nuffic assesses the quality of the project outlines and is responsible for matching the demand with a suitable partner in the Netherlands. The process of matching the demand and supply depends on the size of the project budget. Projects above Euro 200.000 will require a public tender; projects with a budget below 50.000 euro receive a waiver and are exempted from this procedure.

RTUC and the Niche objectives

■ The next step was the mission in 2009 by representatives of Nuffic to Rwanda where they met with the Minister of Gender and Family Promotion, the Minister of Education, the Minister of State and representatives of Office Rwandais du Tourisme et des Parcs Nationaux (ORTPN), Rwanda Development Board (RDB), Kitabi College of Conservation and Environmental Management (KCCEM) and the Rwanda Tourism University College (RTUC). It was this last institute, the only higher educational institute in the country offering hospitality and tourism that was selected to become the prime partner within the forthcoming project.

Rwanda Tourism University College (RTUC) is a private higher education institution founded by a parents' association: Association des Parents RTI in May 2006, with Mrs Zulfat Mukarubega as the legal representative owning more than 70% shares. RTUC received its original

accreditation from the Ministry of Public Service and Labour (MIFOTRA) under the name of Rwanda Institute of Tourism (RTI). It operated as RTI until January 2008, only offering vocational training programs for the professional sector of Hospitality and Tourism.

Later on, RTI conducted a survey which revealed that the Hospitality and Tourism sector was a major driver of economic growth, job creation and poverty alleviation, and that there was a critical need to train managers for that sector. It is in this context that RTI decided to start its diploma and degree programs. By the end of 2007, RTI changed into RTUC after being granted a provisional operating licence. In April 2008, RTUC received its accreditation from the Ministry of Education which allows it to operate as an higher education institution after meeting the compliance conditions set by the national Higher Education Council (HEC) at the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC). RTUC offers the following programs: Diploma and Bachelor Degree levels in Hospitality and Tourism: Hotel and Restaurant Management; Travel and Tour Management; Business and Information Technology (in collaboration with *Mount Kenya University*); an international accredited air travel tariff program in collaboration with the *International Air Transport Association (IATA)*; and a cross-cutting language program. In addition, RTUC offers vocational training programs to the Hotel and Tourism industry.

After the selection of RTUC and further meetings with representatives of the government and the private sector the precise objective of the Niche project were formulated as: The strengthening of the capacity of RTUC to offer quality and relevant Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), research and services, and their contribution to an improvement of manpower within the Hospitality and Tourism sector in Rwanda.

More specific objectives were: Strengthening RTUC's organizational and management capacity; Strengthening the capacity of the academic staff to deliver quality teaching; Development of a Competence Based Curriculum and improvement of the quality and relevance of the study offer; Strengthening the research capacity and the delivery of quality services to the sector and society and finally, Establishing RTUC as a strong actor in the Hospitality and Tourism sector, through consolidated national and international partnerships.

Apart from these objectives there were two so-called cross-cutting themes to take into consideration. These were the mainstreaming of gender equality in management practices, study offers and delivery, research, consultancy and service provision, and access to the labour market and the establishment of close links between RTUC program delivery, research and services, and the needs of the labour market. Once the tender was made public several consortia sent their applications and proposals and in 2010 the project was awarded to a consortium

that consisted of MDF Training & Consultancy, CIS-VU University of Amsterdam, InHolland University of Applied Sciences, Sawadee Travel and Matchmakers Tanzania. This consortium combined educational and private (Tourism) sector expertise, North and South Experience and had a long-standing experience in international capacity development processes, including with Nuffic and its international partners. Their organizational and institutional development expertise would provide relevant and applicable support in strengthening the organizational and management capacity of RTUC. The strong international, academic and applied educational background and experience of InHolland and CIS-VU in Competency Based Learning and Curriculum Development would enable RTUC to access regional and international academic and more applied training and curriculum development. The presence of Sawadee and MMA in the consortium would add a labour-market relevant approach with active participation of private sector actors. Furthermore the consortium offered ample international research experience, applied as well as academic, which should help RTUC to strengthen its research capacity and delivery of quality research and consulting services to the tourism sector. All partners in the consortium have extended international networks amongst educational institutions, both academic and in applied sciences, and in the international private tourism sector, which would be beneficial for RTUC to establish itself as a strong actor in the hospitality & tourism sector through consolidated national & international partnerships. Furthermore all consortium members specifically mentioned that their efforts should have benefits not just for the staff of RTUC, but also for its students and the workforce in the tourism and hospitality sector in general.

Achievements after 2 years and prospects for the future

■ In 2012 the project in its 2nd year and there has been a very intense traffic of people and material between Rwanda and the Netherlands. After an initial visit of the RTUC management team to Holland late 2010 an action plan was made up and approved that included possible missions, combined with the requirements of RTUC and the objectives as described in the project. It was decided that 2 members of the management team would start working on their PhD at VU-University in Amsterdam and 1 in South Africa, that other staff members would do masters programs in India and South Africa. The first missions from the Netherlands to Rwanda were used partly as an inventory to specify the exact needs of the RTUC staff regarding the introduction of a new type of didactical approach and their ambitions regarding research. The first training during these missions were focusing on such subjects as project based learning (PBL) and competence-based learning (CBL) and where

possible linked to the demands of the Rwanda industry. During this mission it was also made clear that these didactical approaches included more than lecturing and in fact demanded a completely different attitude from both staff and students. In the future staff members would also play the roles of tutor, guarding the project process and progress, be consultants dealing with the contents of the project and deliver lectures when needed and in collaboration with their colleagues. Another subject of the early missions was the relation of RTUC with the industry. When offering vocational training and education the institute should be in close contact with the industry, not just for the content of the curriculum, but also for an important curriculum element as the traineeship period. Either parties, or rather all three of them should know from the start what to expect from the others. Together with the responsible staff members a new handbook for traineeship procedures was developed. Furthermore representatives of the industry were approached to participate in a new advisory body that would help RTUC to remain informed of the latest trends and developments in the tourism and hospitality industry. A more technical mission focused on the implementation of a management information system and the hard- and software of the institute. For the implementation of PBL and CBL two projects were developed in cooperation with representatives from both the Dutch and the Rwanda Tour Operating industries and it was decided that these two projects would be introduced with the start of the new academic year in July 2012. Developing and writing these project and the instructions for students and staff was the task of the RTUC staff supported by the expertise from InHolland. However it became obvious during the start of this element of the project that such a task could only be completed when RTUC staff members would have had the opportunity to take actively part in this type of education and collect first-hand experiences. It was the decided that 5 staff members would travel to Holland and while writing on the project handbooks would participate in this type of educational approach by attending lectures, consultancy and tutoring meetings and students presentations. This mission proved to be very successful and during a final meeting later that spring in Kigali both handbooks were produced and the preparations for the start of the introduction of the projects by July 2012 finalized. Another element of the capacity strengthening was the focus on possible research for the tourism and hospitality industry and within the East African academic world. To this end several combined VU-CIS and InHolland missions introduced RTUC staff to research questions and approaches and together with them selected possible candidates and options. By joining Atlas Africa in 2011 during their Kampala conference RTUC started positioning itself as an academic partner within the East African region for tourism and hospitality related studies and research and even went some steps further by offering to host the 2013 conference at their premises in Kigali. With this action RTUC not only expressed the ambition to become an active member of

the East African academic community but also offered its staff members a future platform to present their findings.

Lessons learned and implications for other destinations

■ During the recent midterm evaluation it was observed that the Niche project between Rwanda and the Netherlands may so far be regarded as a successful cooperation between several key stakeholders. Although there will always be room for improvement and communication between all parties involved requires continuous attention, the project as such has proceeded towards the final goals as set out by the original guidelines and resulted in such hands-on products as handbooks for two new curriculum projects, a handbook for traineeship procedures and the institutionalization of a professional workfield advisory board. Furthermore, all staff members have been trained in the subjects of Project Based - and Competence Based Learning and some of those that visited the Netherlands have become true ambassadors of this tutorial approach. Staff members have also become more ambitious regarding research and their own professional development and have been offered the opportunity to take on future challenges in these fields. During the project it became obvious that there are several factors that can contribute to possible success or failure. Apart from the possible funding it is of the highest importance that local governments recognize the importance of tourism and leisure as a contribution to the national and local economy and develop a vision and strategy to accomplish these goals. However, their cooperation with national and even international businesses, the facilitation of accessibility and possible revenue-related measures such as taxation also play an important role. Apart from this cooperation should be sought with the academic and educational institutions that will be responsible for delivering the workforce and management of the present and future tourism and hospitality industry and policy departments. On a different level it should be kept in mind that the key to success for implementing new elements in a curriculum cannot be undertaken in a top-down approach, but should always be the result of mutual respect and true cooperation between colleagues and that the empowerment of people can only be achieved when they have been allowed to see and taste the results of their (professional) progress. Rwanda is not any country, nor is there a direct relation with countries in the Spanish-speaking world or the Caribbean. However this case study from the African continent might inspire other nations to look into possibilities for their own development regarding tourism and hospitality and convince all possible stakeholders that the best recipe for success is to be found in collaboration and mutual respect and trust.

References

- Audit report 2009, MIFOTRA, Kigali.
- Discover Rwanda (2011). New World Publishers, Nijmegen (Holland).
- Investing in Rwanda – an overview (2011). Rwanda Development Board, Kigali.
- IRSP Results 2010-2011, a strategy to enhance Dutch FDI in Rwanda (2011), Clio, Groningen.
- National Export Strategy 2012, MIFOTRA, Kigali.
- Project proposal Niche RWA/007 consortium (2010). MDF/CIS-VU/Inholland, Ede.
- Rwanda Tourism Policy (2009). Ministry of Trade and Industry, Kigali.
- Training Program 2010 (2009). MDF Training & Consultancy, Ede (Holland).
- UNWTO World Tourism Barometer - <http://www.unwto.org/facts/eng/barometer.htm>.
- http://www.tourism.go.ke/ministry.nsf/pages/facts_figures
- <http://www.nuffic.nl/en/>

Biographical Notes

- Kabera Callixte is the rector of the Rwanda Tourism University in Kigali since 2007 and as such responsible for the implementation of the Niche project within the University. At present he is also a PhD student at the Vrije Universiteit in Amsterdam doing research on entrepreneurship in tourism.
- Karel Werdler is senior lecturer at Inholland University/ Amsterdam and project leader for the Niche project for this institute. He is currently working on his PhD in Humanities at London Southbank University.

Author's Details

Kabera Callixte
Rwanda Tourism University (RTUC),
Kigali, Rwanda
Phone: +250 788306692
Email: rector@rtuc.ac.rw

Karel Werdler
Inholland University,
Amsterdam, The Netherlands
Phone: +31 (0) 23 5223275
Email: karel.werdler@inholland.nl

INVITACIÓN PARA LA PRESENTACIÓN DE ARTÍCULOS

La revista *Ara* es una publicación destinada a la investigación académica y aplicada sobre turismo y temas relacionados que pretende divulgar la epistemología y la práctica profesional.

Como medio de comunicación científica, *Ara* divulga los conocimientos teóricos sobre el turismo y sus técnicas de aplicación en países situados en ambientes naturales especialmente vulnerables para, de este modo, contribuir a favorecer y apoyar el desarrollo sostenible, la conservación y el avance del bienestar de su población y sus recursos naturales.

Ara invita a los investigadores de todas las disciplinas académicas, como las ciencias sociales, económicas, de planificación urbana, costera y regional, ciencias marinas y costeras, medioambientales, de ocio y *hospitality management*, a contribuir a este fin con sus estudios y trabajos, especialmente mediante artículos de carácter multidisciplinario.

La zona geográfica de especial atención e interés para la revista *Ara* es la formada por el Caribe en su sentido más amplio, incluyendo las zonas costeras del continente latinoamericano colindante al Mar del Caribe. También serán bienvenidos aquellos artículos que se centren en otras zonas geográficas del mundo con situaciones similares o comparables a las del Caribe.

Los artículos podrán ser presentados en inglés o español y serán siempre publicados, después de haber pasado el proceso de evaluación de doble anonimato, en la lengua original del manuscrito. El resumen deberá ser remitido en ambas lenguas.

La revista *Ara* tiene una periodicidad semestral.

INVITATION FOR THE SUBMISSION OF ARTICLES

The *Ara* journal is a publication intended for academic and applied research into tourism and related topics which aims to provide a link between epistemology and professional practice.

As a scientific and peer reviewed organ *Ara* is designed to spread theoretical and practical knowledge of tourism in especially vulnerable environments in order to foment and support sustainable development, conservation and the well-being of the people, the environment and the natural resources.

The journal contains different points of view, analysis and opinions based on academic and innovative research of tourism. It deals with anthropological, economic, business and educational aspects, both academic and applied, as well as research into environment, geography, history, sociology, biology, geology and any other specialisations of academic and professional relevance for the tourism industry.

Ara invites researchers of all academic disciplines, such as social sciences, economics, urban, regional and coastal planning, marine, coastal and environmental sciences, and leisure, travel and hospitality management to contribute to the journal's objectives with their studies, in particular papers with a multidisciplinary character.

The geographic area of the journal's specific attention is the Caribbean Region in its widest sense, including the coastal zones of the Latin American continent bordering the Caribbean Sea. Tourism research articles on areas elsewhere in the world with similar or comparable situations are also welcome.

The journal accepts manuscripts in English and Spanish. Articles, having successfully passed the double blind review process, will be published in the language of the original manuscript. The Abstract should be provided in both languages.

Ara's frequency of publication is half-yearly.

■ NORMATIVA Y GUÍA DE ESTILO PARA LA CORRECTA REDACCIÓN Y REMISIÓN DE ARTÍCULOS ■

Política de aceptación de artículos para su publicación en la revista *Ara*:

- La revista sólo acepta trabajos originales inéditos, de carácter científico o experiencias directamente relacionadas con la línea editorial de *Ara*.
- El equipo científico y ejecutivo de *Ara* no se hace responsable de las opiniones expresadas por los autores.
- *Ara* es una publicación dirigida a un público preferentemente de perfil universitario (profesores y estudiantes) y del ámbito profesional del turismo y disciplinas afines.
- Se aceptarán únicamente los trabajos escritos en inglés o en español, no obstante, los resúmenes deberán ser presentados siempre en ambos idiomas.
- El texto deberá estar redactado en formato electrónico compatible con el procesador de textos Microsoft Word, a doble espacio y en formato DIN-A4 (o papel American letter-size), con amplios márgenes a ambos lados del texto.
- Los artículos deben ser enviados, por correo electrónico a: ara@cett.es
- Las fotografías, mapas, tablas y gráficos deben adjuntarse separados del archivo de texto, convenientemente numeradas, identificadas (fuente o procedencia) e indicando claramente en el documento del artículo la ubicación deseada mediante el epígrafe "Insertar Figura 1 en este punto" o similar, con su correspondiente título o pie de figura, en formato JPG o TIFF con una resolución mínima de 300 ppp. Solamente se aceptarán figuras y fotografías en blanco y negro. Tablas únicamente en documentos de texto (Word o Excel); no como imagen.

Los artículos que sean aceptados deberán cumplir con los siguientes requisitos de estilo:

En la portada o primera página deberán aparecer claramente:

- Título del artículo y, eventualmente, el subtítulo.
- Nombre/s del autor/es, incluyendo la institución académica a la que pertenecen u otra afiliación profesional, la dirección postal, el número de teléfono y fax y las respectivas direcciones de correo electrónico.
- Resumen/extracto (entre 100 y 200 palabras), redactado en inglés y español.
- Palabras clave (entre 4 y 6). Se recomienda utilizar siempre que sea posible, conceptos incluidos en el tesoro trilingüe en línea de la UNESCO, accesible en el siguiente web: <<http://www.ulcc.ac.uk/unesco>>.

En las siguientes páginas:

- La extensión máxima del artículo no deberá exceder las 8000 palabras.
- La estructura del mismo deberá contener, orientativamente, los siguientes apartados: Introducción / Artículo principal / Conclusiones / Listado de referencias consultadas/bibliográficas.

- Todas las páginas del artículo deberán ir numeradas, siendo la cubierta la página número 1.
- Se deberán evitar los pies de página, cuyo contenido deberá incluirse en el texto básico.
- Se citarán las referencias consultadas y/o bibliográficas en el texto, siguiendo la normativa APA (American Psychological Association, 5ª edición), por autor y fecha entre paréntesis. Ejemplos: (Mangion, 1999) o (Cohen, 1972, 1979, 1988; Urry, 1990) o (Richards y Wilson, 2006) o (Boswijk et al., 2005). Debe mencionarse el número de la página en caso de una citación directa, por ejemplo: (Prahald y Ramaswamy, 3003: 16).
- Al final del cuerpo principal del artículo se deberá incluir un listado de referencias, ordenadas alfabéticamente según el nombre del autor/es. Su contenido y formato, de acuerdo con la normativa estándar APA, deberán seguir los siguientes ejemplos:
 - Referencia de un libro: Hall, C.M. y Jenkins, J. (1995): *Tourism and Public Policy*, London: Reutledge.
 - Artículo en un volumen redactado: England, M. (2001): "The Tourist Place: Neoclassical Assumptions", en: Ferber, Marianne A. y Nelson, Julie A. (eds.): *Beyond Tourism Geography*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, pp. 37-53.
 - Artículo en revista: Andriotis, K. (2006): "Hosts, Guest and Politics. Coastal Resorts Morphological Change", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33, pp. 1080-1086
 - Artículo en revista en línea: Bethencourt, M. et al. (2005): "La medición de la calidad de los servicios prestados por los destinos turísticos: el caso de la isla de Palma", PASOS. *Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 3 (2) [en línea] <www.pasosonline.org/Publicados/3205/PS050205.pdf> [Consulta: 13 Marzo 2008].

- Nota biográfica: se publicará una breve nota biográfica al final del artículo. La nota deberá incluir el nombre/es del autor/es, su titulación, el nombre de la institución, departamento, etc., al que pertenece/pertenecen, la dirección postal y la dirección de correo electrónico. Constará de una máximo de 60 palabras por cada autor.

- Cada artículo entregado será evaluado por un mínimo de dos especialistas en distintas disciplinas mediante el método de anonimato doble (los evaluadores y autores no conocen las identidades de los demás).

Al entregar el artículo para su evaluación y posible publicación, el autor acepta y confirma expresamente que:

- Se trata de un escrito personal y original, no publicado previamente en ninguna otra revista u obra científica.
- Si en el artículo aparece cualquier material con derechos de autor que no sean propios, las referencias a dichos derechos se habrán especificado claramente en el texto.
- El autor acepta y asume que el artículo entregado y firmado no contiene material difamatorio, ilegal o que infrinja cualquier derecho de autor u otros.

Derechos de autor y Originalidad:

Todos los autores deben firmar el convenio de "Transferencia de Derechos de Autor" previamente a la publicación de sus trabajos. Este convenio permite a los Editores de la revista *Ara* proteger el material incluido en el convenio en beneficio de sus autores, pero no implica la renuncia a sus derechos de propiedad intelectual. El traspaso del derecho de autor comprende el derecho exclusivo a reproducir y a distribuir el trabajo, incluyendo nuevas reimpresiones, reproducciones fotográficas, microfilmación o cualquier otra reproducción de naturaleza similar y traducciones. Incluye también el derecho de adaptar el artículo para ser usado en sistemas y programas de ordenador, o para ser reproducido o publicado en sistemas de máquinas lectoras, o para ser incorporado a otros sistemas de reproducción.

Los autores deberán obtener del poseedor del derecho de autor su permiso para reproducir cualquier gráfico sobre el que existe este derecho.

Se Pueden enviar los artículos a:

Ara - (Caribbean) Journal of Tourism Research, supervisor de producción • Escola Universitària de Turisme i Hoteleria CETT-Universitat de Barcelona, Avinguda Can Marçet, 36-38 • E-08035 Barcelona (España/Spain) • E-mail: ara@cett.es

■ GUIDELINES AND MANUAL FOR THE CORRECT EDITING AND SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS ■

Policy for the acceptance of manuscripts to be published in the *Ara* Journal:

- The journal only accepts original manuscripts which have not been published before in other scientific journals; the articles should be of scientific character or of professional experience, always in line with *Ara's* editorial objectives.
- The *Ara* Journal's scientific, production and publishing team can not be made responsible for any of the opinions expressed by the authors.
- *Ara* is a publication primarily directed at the academic world (professors, students, and researchers) and the professional sector of tourism, travel and related branches.
- Articles presented for their publication must be written in English or Spanish; the abstract should always be presented in both languages.
- The text must be written in electronic format compatible with Microsoft Word text processors, double spaced and DIN-A4 size (or American letter-size) with ample margins at both sides of the text.
- The articles should be sent preferably by email to ara@cett.es
- Tables and Figures, consecutively numbered, with the indication of its source or origin, should be submitted separately, in JPG or TIFF format with a minimum resolution of 300 dpi. The autor should mark the preferred position of each table and figure in the text of the article with the consecutive number of each table and figure, and indicate this position with the words "insert here Figure 1" or similar. Tables only as a text document (in Word or Excel); not as an image.
- All pages should be numbered, starting with the cover page as page 1.
- Footnotes should be avoided and its information should be included in the text.
- References to consulted sources should be cited in the text following the APA (American Psychological Association, 5th edition) instructions; each consulted author and date within brackets; examples: (Mangion, 1999) or (Cohen, 1972, 1979, 1988; Urry, 1990) or (Richards y Wilson, 2006) or (Boswijk et al., 2005). A page number should be mentioned in case of a direct quotation, for example (Prahalyad y Ramaswamy, 2003:16).
- A reference list, in alphabetical order by author, should be included at the end of the manuscript. The content and format of each reference in this list should be in concordance with the APA standard and according the following examples:
 - Reference to a book: Hall, C.M. y Jenkins, J. (1995): *Tourism and Public Policy*, London: Reutledge.
 - Article in edited volume: England, M. (2001): "The Tourist Place: Neoclassical Assumptions", en: Ferber, Marianne A. y Nelson, Julie A. (eds.): *Beyond Tourism Geography*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, pp. 37-53.
 - Article in journal: Andriotis, K. (2006): "Hosts, Guest and Politics. Coastal Resorts Morphological Change", *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33, pp. 1080-1086
 - Article in online journal: Bethencourt, M. et al. (2005): "La medición de la calidad de los servicios prestados por los destinos turísticos: el caso de la isla de Palma", *PASOS. Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 3 (2) [en línea] <www.pasosonline.org/Publicados/3205/PS050205.pdf> [Consulta: 13 Marzo 2008].

Instructions for the editing of the article:

On the cover sheet should clearly appear:

- Name of the article and possible subtitles.
- Name(s) of the author(s) with the respective names of their academic institution or other professional affiliation, phone and fax numbers, post and email addresses.
- Abstract (may vary between 100 and 200 words) in both English and Spanish
- Key words (maximum total of six); if possible, applying concepts included in the trilingual thesaurus of UNESCO, to be consulted at: <www.ulcc.ac.uk/unesco>.

On the following pages:

- The article should be written in the third person singular.
- The article should not exceed a maximum of 8000 words.
- The article should preferably be of the following structure: Introduction / Main article / Conclusions / Reference list.

- Biographical note: a short biographical note of each author will be published at the end of the paper; this note should include: name of each author with respective titles, name of institution, department, etc. post address and email address. Each note should not exceed 60 words per author.
- Each submitted article shall be subjected to a double blind review process (authors and reviewers will not know each others names) by at least two specialists in different academic areas.

Please note that by submitting your paper for its evaluation and possible publication, you are stating that:

- It is your own original work that has never been published in any academic research journal or other scientific publication before.
- Any material, of which you do not own copyright, has been clearly acknowledged in the text.
- To the best of your knowledge the submitted article does not contain any material which is libelous, illegal or infringes anyone's copyright or other rights.

Copyright and Originality:

All authors must sign the "Transfer of Copyright" agreement before the article can be published. This transfer agreement enables the publisher to protect the copyrighted material for the authors, but does not relinquish the autor's proprietary rights. The copyright transfer covers the exclusive rights to reproduce and distribute the article, including reprints, photographic reproductions, microform or any other reproductions of similar nature and translations, as well as the right to adapt the article for use in conjunction with computer systems and programmes, and reproduction or publication in machine-readable form and incorporation in retrieval systems. Authors are responsible for obtaining from the copyright holder permission to reproduce any figures for which copyright exists.

Authors must obtain the copyright holder permission to reproduce any graph on which this right exists.

Submissions may be sent to:

The Production Supervisor, *Ara* - (Caribbean) Journal of Tourism Research • Escola Universitària de Turisme i Hoteleria CETT-Universitat de Barcelona, Avinguda Can Marçet, 36-38 • E-08035 Barcelona (España/Spain) • E-mail: ara@cett.es