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TOURISM PLANNING AND LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION: VERON –
PUNTA CANA MUNICIPAL DISTRICT, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

by

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A thesis submitted to the Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of Master of Science
Geography
Western Michigan University
April 2017

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TOURISM PLANNING AND LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION: VERON –
PUNTA CANA MUNICIPAL DISTRICT, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

Jose Ernesto Fernandez Lorenzo, M.S.

Western Michigan University, 2017

This thesis examines the attitudes and perceptions of local residents in regards to tourism development and local community participation, as well as their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. The data was obtained from a household survey questionnaire conducted in the municipal district of Verón - Punta Cana in the province of La Altagracia in the Dominican Republic. The sites selected for this study include Juanillo, Verón, and Friusa. Through several Chi-square (χ^2) analyses, this thesis is able to conclude that residents in Friusa and Verón share positive perceptions in regards to tourism development when compared to residents in Juanillo. Regarding residents' attitudes towards local community participation, participants are found to share positive responses regardless of the site or socio-economic variables. This thesis also reveals that local residents in Verón and Friusa are more willing to participate in tourism planning processes when compared to those in Juanillo. Finally, it is shown that participants with positive attitudes and perceptions of tourism development and local community participation are more likely to be willing to participate in tourism planning processes than participants with negative attitudes and perceptions. Although some differences exist between study areas, a more successful tourism planning approach can be achieved by understanding the reasons for such attitudes and perceptions and integrating them into future tourism planning policies and practices.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

For the memory of my grandmother

Ana Dilia Suazo

10-02-1914 to 11-04-2016

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background	1
Problem Statement	4
Research Purpose	6
Significance of the Study	7
Organization of the Thesis	8
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	10
Introduction	10
Tourism in the Developing World	10
Dependency Theory	12
Leakage	15
Tourism in the Caribbean	16
Sustainable Tourism Development	23
Tourism Planning	29
Local Community Participation	34
Local Community Perception of Tourism Development	41
Conclusion	46

Table of Contents—continued

III. RESEARCH METHODS	48
Introduction	48
Study Area	48
The Dominican Republic	48
The Province of La Altagracia	51
Study Sites	56
Data Collection	58
Development of the Survey Instrument	58
Sampling Techniques	61
Questionnaire Administration	62
Informal Discussions	64
Data Analyses	64
Summary	65
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	67
Results Overview	67
Demographics	68
Age and Gender	68
Level of Education	71
Length of Residency	71
Percentage of Tourism-Related Jobs	73
Perceptions of Tourism Development	74
Attitudes towards Local Community Participation	80
Current Local Community Involvement	86

Table of Contents—continued

Willingness to Participate	87
Relationship between Participants' Attitudes and Perceptions and Participants' Willingness to Participate	93
Summary and Discussions	96
Research Question 1	97
Research Question 2	99
Research Question 3	101
V. CONCLUSIONS	103
Limitations of the Study and Implications for Future Research	106
APPENDICES	
A. HSIRB Approval Letter	110
B. Survey Questionnaire	112
C. Informed Consent Letter	119
BIBLIOGRAPHY	122

LIST OF TABLES

1. Age Groups by Study Site	71
2. Participants' Level of Education	72
3. Length of Residency	73
4. Perceptions of Tourism Development by Community	75
5. Perceptions of Tourism Development by Gender	76
6. Perceptions of Tourism Development by Age Groups	77
7. Perceptions of Tourism Development by Education Level	78
8. Perceptions of Tourism Development by Length of Residence	78
9. Perceptions of Tourism Development by Tourism-Related Jobs	80
10. Attitudes towards Local Participation by Study Site	81
11. Attitudes towards Local Participation by Gender	82
12. Attitudes towards Local Participation by Age Groups	83
13. Attitudes towards Community Participation by Education Level	84
14. Attitudes towards Local Participation by Length of Residency	85
15. Attitudes towards Local Participation by Tourism-Related Jobs	86
16. Willingness to Participate by Study Site	88
17. Willingness to Participate by Gender	89
18. Willingness to Participate by Age Groups	90
19. Willingness to Participate by Education Level	91
20. Willingness to Participate by Length of Residency	92
21. Willingness to Participate by Tourism-Related Jobs	93

List of Tables—Continued

22. PTD and WTP - Spearman's Rho	94
23. ATLP and WTP - Spearman's Rho	95

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Leiper's Model	2
2. Tourism Stakeholder Map	33
3. Typologies of Community Participation	38
4. The Island of Hispaniola	49
5. 2010 Population Pyramid of the Dominican Republic	50
6. Yuma Region, Dominican Republic	52
7. Comparison between Foreign Visitors by Airport between January and March, 2016	55
8. Study Sites in the Province of La Altagracia	57
9. Gender of Participants by Study Area	69
10. Age of Participants	70
11. Percentage of Tourism-Dependent Jobs by Community	74
12. Perceived Local Community Participation across Study Site	87
13. Perception of Tourism Development and Willingness to Participate	94
14. Attitudes towards Local Participation and Willingness to Participate	96

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

People travel to different places for various reasons including temporary change of location, relaxation, recreation, getting acquainted with foreign traditions or spending leisure time all of which can be described as tourist activities (Egbali, et. al, 2011). As a whole, tourism has received numerous definitions in the past. For instance, the World Tourism Organization defines it as "the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside of their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes" (United Nations & WTO, 1994, p. 10). Such a definition, according to the same report, recognizes tourism as comprising a broad range of activities and goes beyond the common perception of tourism as being limited to holiday activity only. Even though this definition has proven useful in differentiating and mapping travels related to tourism, it represents a very limited approach to the tourism industry. According to Crang (2009), it fails to recognize the distinction between different types of tourists and does not capture the dynamics of the relationship between tourists, local residents, and the host communities.

Leiper (1979) identifies tourism as "the system involving the discretionary travel and temporary stay of persons away from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting tours made for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points en route" (p. 403-402). Such a system is composed of several elements including tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions and a tourist industry as

shown in Leiper's model (Figure 1). Since most of the significant and dramatic aspects of the tourism industry take place at the destination, tourism studies tend to focus more on these (Leiper, 1979).

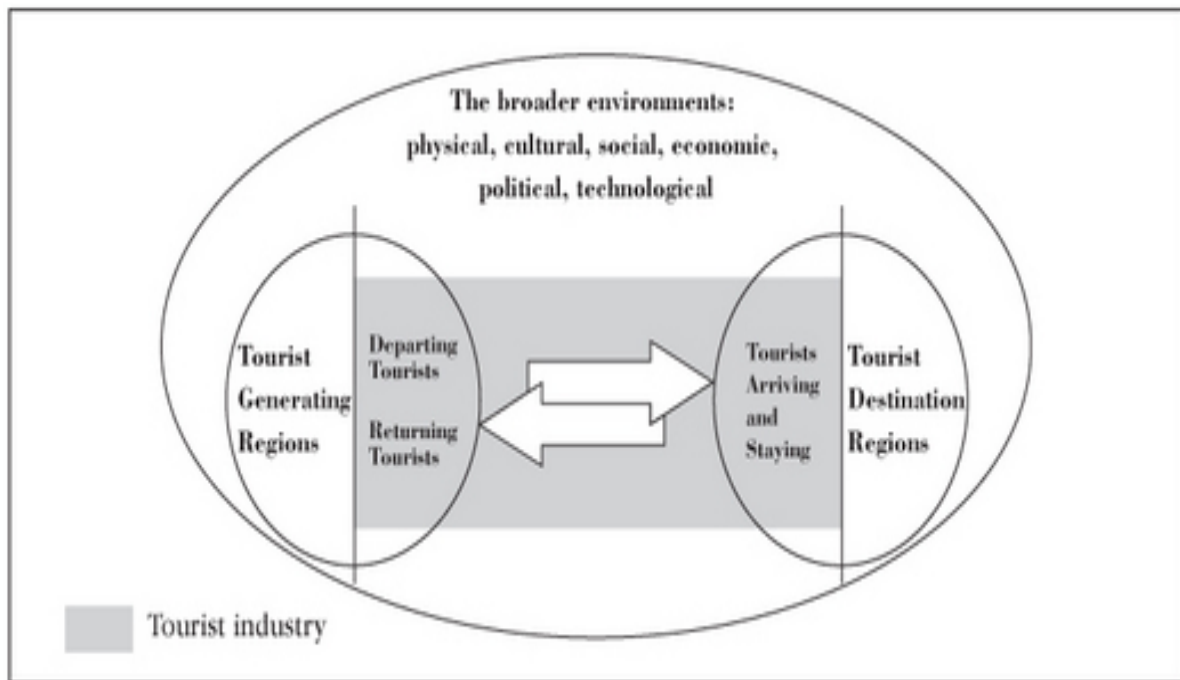


Figure 1: Leiper's Model
Source: Leiper, 1979

Tourism can also be defined as the science, art, and business of attracting and transporting visitors, accommodating them and graciously catering to their needs and wants (McIntosh, 1977: ix). It can also be viewed as an industry offering a product which comprises a combination of goods and services supplied by the tourism industry, as well as non-priced features that motivate tourism, such as natural, historic, and cultural sites ("Using APA," 2008). Yet, others define tourism not as a single industry, but as a collection of interrelated industries which sell products to tourists as well as to a

range of other service sectors including hotels, tour operators and travel agents, airlines, and others (Ardahaey, 2011).

The tourism literature also identifies tourism as one of the fastest growing sectors around the globe. This is due to the fact that it generates billions of dollars on an annual basis. Tourism also provides important contributions to the economy of the host nation through foreign exchange investment (Othman et al., 2012). It also contributes to a destination's sales, profit, jobs, tax revenues, and income. Additionally, most of the direct effects take place within main sectors in tourism such as lodging, restaurants, transportation, amusements, and retail trade (Stynes, 1997). For this reason, many developing countries also view tourism as a means to social and economic development. Many people believe that the industry is well placed as one of the primary means through which social and economic development of local communities can be achieved (Scheyvens, 2002; Beeton, 2006).

However, emphasis on the economic benefits of tourism often leads to unfavorable environmental and social consequences. As tourism development expands, so do the negative social impacts, human-induced harm, and disturbance to local communities and the natural environment (Jackson, 2006). Tourism development often leads to unconscious use and consumption of natural, historical, social and cultural resources, all of which are important factors that both the industry and the local communities rely upon. Tourism development also results in direct economic cost incurred by local businesses, government cost for infrastructure to better serve visitors, as well as congestion and other related socio-economic costs borne by the local population (Ardahaey, 2011).

Therefore, tourism development can provide positive outcomes in some instances while causing harm in others. According to the WTO (1998), the solution to mitigate these negative impacts lies in the planning process (p. 27). The WTO (1998) reports that "through careful planning, systematic implementation of that planning and continuous effective management of tourism, the benefits can be maximized and problems minimized" (p. 31). Carefully drafted plans, however, do not automatically lead to the maximization of benefits and minimization of problems. It is equally important to consider who is involved in the planning process. Taking these notions into account, this research seeks to examine the attitudes and perception of local communities regarding tourism development and local participation, as well as their own willingness to participate in tourism planning process.

Problem Statement

Tourism planning has been defined as "a process of involving all relevant and interested parties (local government officials, local citizens, architects, developers, business people, and planners) in such a way that decision-making is shared" (Haywood, 1988, p. 106). Nevertheless, it is still not always clear who the public is, or what criteria should be used for identifying both relevant and interested stakeholders. In this regard, Jackson (2006) specifies that relevant stakeholder should mean those that are affected by tourism development or possess a particular stake in the well-being of tourism. Regardless of the lack of explanation, the importance of tourism planning has been widely addressed in the tourism literature. For instance, Harrill (2004) points out that planning is needed for both new destinations visualizing their new development and existing destinations attempting to innovate and attract new visitors.

Similarly, public participation all through the planning process has been an essential component of the tourism planning literature which will be presented in the following chapter. In this context, the term public has been used to refer to "a wide range of groups, from loosely structured aggregates of individuals who share sets of similar economic, occupational, and social interests or similar concerns about a common geographic area, to highly structured organizations with specific issue positions and influence strategies" (Wilkinson, 1974, p.237). However, many decision-makers and investors remain hesitant to accept a participatory approach as their role of public representation may be questioned by the citizens themselves (Tosun & Timothy, 2001). As a result, governments and decision-makers find themselves caught in between current dynamics of power distributions while attempting to meet sustainable goals within the tourism sector.

Thus, the primary and most important purpose of a participatory process is that all groups of stakeholders, including local communities, influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which also affect them (Havel, 1996). Having a more participatory approach will also guarantee the overall sustainability of the tourism sector (Beeton, 2006). In other words, the collaborative efforts of all stakeholder groups and individuals will lead to policies that are more economically, environmentally and socially sustainable. This is because all stakeholders will have an opportunity to lobby on their own behalf during the policy making process (Jackson, 2006).

In addition, when a community is involved in the direction and goals of sustainable tourism planning and development it is more likely to become an active

partner and take a particular stake in specific projects and even present less resistance to new plans and ideas. For example, Stone (2012) argued that local communities can serve as key actors in the tourism policy and planning processes. They can influence the decision of which messages about their area should be included in advertisement material, identifying businesses for the conservation of cultural heritage and traditional values, as well as the provision of detailed local knowledge about the history, environment, culture, and economy of the destination.

Local community involvement in tourism planning and related activities not only leads to support for the tourism industry but also acts as a crucial component to achieving sustainable development of tourism (Cole, 2006). However, there is still insufficient evidence on the perception of local communities regarding tourism planning processes and their willingness to participate (Muganda, et. al, 2013). In addition, tourism development is viewed as a significant method for economic development for the Dominican Republic through foreign direct investment. However, further knowledge about local community involvement and participation in the tourism sector still remains unknown.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is to examine aspects of tourism planning in the municipal district of Verón - Punta Cana in the province of La Altagracia, Dominican Republic. More specifically, it seeks to identify local views on tourism development and local community participation. It also seeks to examine residents' willingness to participate in the tourism planning processes. Therefore, the objectives of this research can be summarized in the three following statements:

- To understand the perception of local residents towards tourism development in the region.
- To understand the perception of local residents towards local community participation during the tourism planning process.
- To analyze the willingness of local residents to participate in the tourism planning process.

The purpose of this study can also be depicted as the following research questions:

- How do local residents perceive tourism development? What factors influence such perceptions?
- What is the attitude of local residents towards participatory tourism planning? What factors influence such attitudes? What is the perceived extent of local community involvement in current tourism planning processes?
- Are local residents willing to participate during the tourism planning process? What factors influence their willingness? Are resident's attitudes and perceptions associated with their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process?

Significance of the Study

This study makes significant contributions to the tourism planning literature from a research and a practical perspective. Since there has been limited empirical tourism research as it relates to sustainable development (Easterling, 2005; Nicholas, 2007), this study will contribute as such, by conducting empirically based research in a country located in one of the most heavily tourism-dependent regions in the world, the Caribbean. Moreover, very few studies have explored the attitudes of local communities towards tourism planning, in particular.

Although research on residents' attitudes toward tourism development has been an important topic in the tourism literature for decades, currently there have been limited studies focused on residents' attitudes and willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. Therefore, more empirical research needs to be done regarding the former. As a result, this study provides a basis for understanding these

issues while contributing to the existing body of literature. It also presents both primary and secondary information that could assist scholars, researchers, and government officials interested in exploring and understanding the role of local community participation in the tourism planning process.

From a practical standpoint, this study has the potential to contribute to the general knowledge of existing local community participation. It could also provide further insights into the dynamics of tourism planning and local community involvement through the eyes of the local residents. These, are lessons to be learned not only by tourism managers, planners and other local destinations within the country but indeed, by all tourism destinations with similar characteristics such as the ones included in this research study.

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Each chapter explores and presents a different aspect of the research investigating tourism planning, local community participation, and the willingness of local residents to participate in the tourism planning process.

Chapter 1 – Introduction – provides a general overview of the thesis. It emphasizes the importance of participatory planning within a tourism context while establishing the objectives and research questions for the study. It also highlights both the theoretical and practical significance of the study.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review – provides a review of the literature to emphasize the impacts of tourism particularly in developing countries. It describes some of the effects of mass tourism in the Caribbean region. This chapter also describes the

concepts of sustainable tourism development, planning, participation, and the importance of understanding local community perceptions in relation to tourism development and participatory tourism planning.

Chapter 3 – Methodology – provides a general profile of the Dominican Republic and the study area. The environmental, political, social, and economic factors present in the region will form the backdrop for understanding the opportunities and constraints for tourism development. This chapter also reviews the tourism sector in particular including the factors underlying its structure and development. The second part of this chapter describes the research methodology and includes information on the research design, data collection procedure, and data analysis tools as well as the selection of respondents, and the format of the survey questionnaires.

Chapter 4 – Results and Discussions – presents and discusses the results of the assessments undertaken in the study area. The results of the analyses and their discussions are summarized according to four major categories including demographic characteristics, perceptions on tourism development, attitudes towards local community participation, and willingness to participate in the tourism planning process.

Finally, Chapter 5 – Conclusions – provides a summary of the study by presenting the final conclusions drawn from the research as well as the limitations of the study. Also, recommendations for future similar research are discussed based on the weaknesses identified throughout the course of the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

As seen in Chapter I, the purpose of this study is to address a number of questions related to the involvement and participation of local communities in tourism planning in the municipal district of Verón - Punta Cana. More specifically, it seeks to understand the attitudes and perceptions of local residents regarding tourism planning and local community participation. It also seeks to determine residents' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. To serve as a foundation, this chapter provides a conceptual framework throughout the examination of relevant topics emerging from various studies, reports and other sources of information. It examines the various issues tourism development brings to developing countries including the Caribbean region, as well as discussions on local community participation in tourism planning. This chapter is divided into a number of sections including the impacts of tourism in developing countries, the impacts of tourism development in the Caribbean, sustainable tourism development, tourism planning, local community participation, and community perceptions on tourism development and participatory tourism planning.

Tourism in the Developing World

The role and impacts of tourism development within the context of developing countries has been widely documented by various scholars of the tourism literature (De Kadt, 1979; Jenkins & Henry, 1982; Cater, 1987; Oppermann, 1993; Scheyvens, 2002). Many of these studies indicate that tourism, as an industry, has been widely embraced

by developing countries as an economic opportunity to alleviate most of the socio-economic problems they face (De Kadt, 1979; Grandoit, 2005; Cater, 1987; Wahab, 1997). These countries endorse tourism as a means of generating foreign exchange, increasing employment opportunities, attracting development capital, and enhancing economic independence. Clancy (2007) states that when developing countries promote the provision of tourism-related goods and services to foreign visitors, they are also embracing greater integration into the world economy. However, according to Britton (1982), the structural characteristics of developing countries can prevent many of these nations from reaching their desired economic goals. Such characteristics, as he mentions, are the results of various forms of past colonialism and imperialist domination by metropolitan powers.

In spite of the specific level of development, tourism constitutes one of the most important sources of wealth for many nations. For many developing countries, particularly the least developed countries (LDCs), and small economies and island states, tourism is probably the only economic sector which provides concrete trading economic development ("Using APA," 2011). While the tourism industry offers economic development in areas that have otherwise limited development activities, it is not a traditional sector and is best understood as a response to a particular consumer demand (Carter, 1987). The tourism sector also creates a wide range of products and services purchased by visitors and tourism companies. This includes a wide range of products supplied by industrial sectors including agriculture, building suppliers, crafts and soft furnishings (Muhanna, 2007).

Despite its potential for foreign exchange earnings and investments, employment opportunities and economic diversification, tourism development can also result in several negative impacts for the host country. Such negative impacts can be categorized as economic impacts (Britton, 1982; De Kadt, 1979; Wilkinson, 1989); environmental impacts (Baker, 1997; Obua & Harding, 1997; Wilkinson, 1989); and socio-cultural impacts (De Kadt, 1979; Wilkinson, 1989). Britton (1982), in particular, states that "it is important to investigate why it is that tourism, while bringing undoubted benefits to many Third World countries, frequently also perpetuates class and regional inequalities, economic problems and social tensions" (p. 332).

Dependency Theory

The arguments promoting mass tourism in developing countries emphasize that any money spent by tourists in the host community is benefiting the economy and providing some wealth to the locals. However, according to Cleverdon and Kalisch (2000), there is evidence that people in poor, landless, rural societies are getting poorer, while the more fortunate societal groups such as the ruling elites, landowners, government officials, and owners of private businesses are getting richer. The expulsion and displacement of local residents for the construction of tourism resorts, rising land, food and fuel prices, and the commoditization of cultural assets are just some examples of the previous. As result, they concluded that far from bringing economic prosperity to the developing world, tourism has great potential to reinforce social and economic inequality and economic dependency.

Cleverdon and Kalisch (2000) define such analogy as dependency theory which stipulates that poor societies generally conform to core countries as a result of negative consequences associated with colonialism and other ties to advanced Western societies.

According to Clancy (2007), dependency theorists are often influenced by outside theories such as imperialism, colonialism, and Marxism. He points out that dependency theorists generally view development in more holistic terms instead of as a linear process, where wealth and poverty are intimately connected on a global scale. He further argues that underdevelopment in the South and development in the North constitute "two sides of the same coin." Development in the metropolis, in other words, comes at the expense of the periphery. As such, greater economic integration would only lead to greater poverty and misery for these countries (Clancy, 2007).

Britton's (1982) approach to dependency theory maintains that to understand the existing dynamics of the tourism industry, it is crucial to analyze the structure of the peripheral or host economy which results from historical forces executed by the core countries. He states that third world countries are characterized by forms of "dependent development." Such development is based on the idea that the tourism industry is dominated by companies, institutions, and governments in the core countries which control the tourist demand, transportation and accommodations in the host countries. He further states that such companies and institutions alongside privileged commercial and political groups in the periphery or host countries are in a position where they are able to coordinate, construct, operate, and profit from tourism development (Britton, 1982).

Therefore, the development of tourism in peripheral countries is influenced by various mechanism found in the peripheral countries such as events in the core countries including the flow of mass tourists from central to peripheral countries and the running of hotels and resorts (Britton, 1989). Tour operators from the core countries can also exert a very strong impact on the occupancy rate of hotels and the spatial distribution of tourist flows in host countries due to their vast financial resources and industrial

leverage (Shaw and Williams, 1994). Additionally, many of the hotels including those of an international class, are owned and managed by transnational corporations.

In spite of the prevalence of dominant forces executed by the core countries, not all international standard accommodation chains in the periphery belong to developed countries and hence are not controlled by external forces. There are other instances where locally-owned hotels can be found in certain tourism destinations (Britton, 1989; Harrison, 1995). However, these relationships may conceive the notion of underdevelopment of developing countries because of the exploitation executed by the developed countries. Therefore, according to dependency theory, tourism is an industry like any other which is used by the developed countries to perpetuate the dependency of the developing countries. Instead of reducing the existing socio-economic regional disparities within the developing countries, tourism reinforces them through its exploiting structure and its orientation along traditional core-periphery, economic and political structures (Oppermann, 1993).

The technical, economic, and commercial characteristics of many mass-tourism sectors also tend to favor the development of large-scale, integrated, multinational enterprises. Britton (1980) argues that if provisions are not made to increase local economic participation, the likelihood of the domination of tourism sectors in developing countries by transnational capitals from the metropolitan core will greatly increase. Foreign domination and external dependency often seriously reduce tourism's potential for generating community-based growth, as well as the net financial advantages that the industry brings to developing economies. The three most profitable components of tourism in the developing world (i.e., marketing and the procurement of customers, international transportation, and food and lodging) are normally handled by

vertically integrated global networks, with airlines and other transnational occupying the central positions (Erisman 1983).

Brohman (1996) argues that foreign domination of the tourism industry in developing countries has caused the loss of control over local resources, which may adversely affect the social, economic, and ecological well-being of the host communities. He states that local people often find themselves entangled in a globally integrated system of resource use over which they cannot exercise control. Local communities as well as the resources upon which they depend become the targets of top-down decision-making by elitist bodies exogenous to the community. Decisions governing their lives, even those that address local matters, are normally made elsewhere according to the narrow interests of those controlling the tourism industry. He further states that such struggle for the control over local resources is an element of tourism that normally is not properly recognized by local governments.

Leakage

Foreign domination of the tourism industry often also contributes to the overseas leakage of a substantial earnings portions which can be identified as leakage (Brohman, 1996). Pérez-Ducy de Cuello (2001), defines leakage as the process whereby part of the foreign exchange earnings generated by tourism, rather than being retained by tourist-receiving countries, is either retained by tourist-generating countries or repatriated to them in form of profits, income and royalty remittances, repayment of foreign loans, and imports of equipment, materials, capital and consumer goods to cater for the needs of international tourism and overseas promotional expenditures. According to WTO, "the average leakage for most developing countries today is between 40 and 50 percent of gross tourism earnings for small economies and between 10 and 20 percent for most

advanced and diversified developing countries" (p. 55). Also, Muhanna (2007) points out that in the case of high-income luxury tourism, there is a demand for very high quality and high priced goods which then results in increased leakage despite the higher incomes it may generate.

Tourism in the Caribbean

Jayawardena (2002) describes the Caribbean as "a fascinating and unique region. An archipelago of sunny, tropical islands naturally decorated with exotic flora and fauna, surrounded by blue sea water and gentle breezes, is the general impression of the region in the minds of most visitors" (p. 138). The Caribbean, according to Mings (1969), has three genuine tourist attractions which serve as valuable raw materials for the tourism industry including climate, physical and cultural diversity. Jayawardena (2002) argues that these characteristics are the main reasons the Caribbean has been perceived as a paradise for over 50 years and continues to enjoy such image, in spite of the increasing competition from other similar tourist regions around the world. The tourism sector in the Caribbean has also assumed prominence as a result of consistent stagnation in the traditional economic sectors. As such, the region is often referred to as the most tourism-dependent region in the world (Jayawardena, 2002). According to Grandoit (2005), the Caribbean region possesses no real viable alternatives for economic development besides tourism.

As Jayawardena (2002) states, the term Caribbean is used to describe 34 destinations under the umbrella of the Caribbean Tourism Organization (CTO) with a total population of more than 60.4 million with the five largest jurisdictions including Venezuela, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Puerto Rico, all of which account for

86% of the total population in the region. While Haiti is a French-speaking country, the remaining four are Spanish-speaking countries. The English-speaking West Indies encompass a small portion of the Caribbean region (Jayawardena, 2002).

Duval (2004) states that mass tourism in the Caribbean started in the middle of the twentieth century and has been developed primarily according to two dominant beach-oriented paradigms including all-inclusive resort packages and cruise tourism. Both of these, correspond to the broader category of sun, sand, and sea tourism or "3s tourism." Nowadays, modern tourism is one of the primarily economic sectors in the Caribbean accounting for over 15 percent of the region's employment and almost 6 percent of its total Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Duval, 2004; Duval and Wilkinson, 2004). A number of other factors have also influenced the growth of mass tourism in the Caribbean including the increase in available leisure time after World War II (Duval 2004), and the introduction of jet airplanes (Duval and Wilkinson, 2004). Similarly, Mings (1969) acknowledged that modern jet plane service alongside further fare reductions and the continued increase in leisure time and disposable income of visitors were important factors in the increase of tourists traveling to the Caribbean.

In addition, Carey (2011) argues that international tourism helped turn the Caribbean into a commodity after the mid-nineteenth century. Several forces can be used to explain how Caribbean tourism rose to prominence between approximately 1850 and 1950. Steamship travel, for example, facilitated access to this region. Tourists also ventured beyond their own countries because of growing interest in exotic destinations, new romantic notions of the tropical picturesque. The growing interest to escape the crowded and unhealthy industrialized cities that increasingly dominate developed countries, and the growing desire to be outdoors also played an important

role in the growing popularity of the Caribbean region (Carey, 2011). Carey (2011) further argues that such image also lures foreigners who seek not only relaxation but also power over much poorer resident populations.

Some of the "potential" benefits of the tourism industry in the Caribbean region were first highlighted by Mings (1969). He argues that the labor requirements of the tourism industry are especially suited to the conditions found in the Caribbean. The labor-intense demands of the tourist trade could help reduce high unemployment rates often found within the region. According to Mings, tourism provides direct jobs for unskilled or semiskilled locals within large luxury hotels, or indirect jobs such as those in the construction sector and in tourism-supported activities such as transportation, entertainment, handicrafts, and agriculture. Other benefits highlighted include the acquisition of foreign exchange, and cultural implications (i.e. restoration and preservation of historic monuments); aesthetic (i.e. preservation and safeguarding of the landscape); social (i.e. provision of recreational facilities for health and welfare of the people); and political (i.e. improvement of international understanding).

McDavid and Ramajeessingh (2003) also emphasize the importance of the tourism industry in the Caribbean. They stated that "the industry has, for many years, been a major foreign exchange earner in the region" (p. 180). They further state that the industry promotes a wide range of enterprises that are allied to the industry which usually represents an important source of indirect job creation. They also add that tourism generates spin-offs in various other areas within the economy. However, due to the enormous influence of tourism in the Caribbean, it has also become one of the most resource-driven industries throughout the region negatively affecting both marine and terrestrial ecosystems (Godwin, 2008). Despite many of the benefits from the tourism

industry, several critics have pointed out that such benefits have been outweighed by the negative impacts of the industry in the Caribbean (King, et al., 2000). In other words, many of the environments found in the region have been made to conform to the picturesque beach, sea, and sun view of the island, while other environmental and human resources have been pushed to the background to accommodate this view and the related services that tourists often demand (Grandoit, 2012).

Grandoit (2012) argues that the "well-being of the environment" has been overlooked for the sake of short-term economic profits. The greater number of tourists, she argues, the more pressure is exerted on the natural resources of these Caribbean nations. In addition, environmental destruction in the Caribbean directly attributed to the growth of land-based tourism includes the erosion of beaches, the breakdown of coral reefs, marine and coastal pollution, the dumping of waste and non-treatment of sewage, sand-mining and the destruction of wetlands and salt ponds all of which affect the well-being of the host destination (Goodwin, 2008; Dobson, 2000).

In a similar way, Dobson (2000), states that mass tourism, although previously seen as a clean industry in the Caribbean, has been shown to have the ability to destroy entire ecosystems and cultural patterns permanently if careful planning is not implemented. This is due to the fact that, like most industries, tourism relies upon nonrenewable resources in order to function. For instance, coastal clearance of mangroves for mass tourist resorts usually occur along white sand beaches, on ancient and ground coral, and predominantly on the west coasts of the Caribbean islands. Therefore, the increase of mass tourism has led to the creation of supportive infrastructure including large concrete hotels that are often sited close to the coastlines, the erection of groins and piers, the construction of marinas for yachts, and of deep

water harbors to support cruise ships. According to Dobson (2000), such extreme modifications to the environment represent a form of ecology disruption made in exchange for short-term economic development.

To make matters worse, many of the negative environmental effects in the Caribbean resulting from the tourism industry are absorbed by the local population. According to Godwin (2008), the rapid expansion of tourism sites increases the stress on municipal infrastructures, such as drinking water supply and waste management. Few Caribbean municipalities, he adds, have the necessary revenues to meet the growing demand for services. Therefore, the interests of local populations are often sacrificed, while tourists become the main priority for the provision of such services (Harrison, et al., 2003). A good example can be found in places like the Dominican Republic, where municipal governments are not able to satisfy local demands for public services including sewage and waste disposal in rapidly growing urban areas (Lynch 2006).

Besides many of the negative environmental consequences, tourism has also resulted in negative economic impacts for the region (i.e. leakage). For example, many goods consumed by international tourists, including food, are often imported from outside of the Caribbean. As a result, the revenue generated from the consumption of these goods is exported, limiting economic benefits for the local population. If more local products were consumed by tourists, money spent in the Caribbean would ultimately remain there, rather than flowing out of the region to foreign economies (Godwin, 2008). This is also the case of all-inclusive resorts where the participation of local residents in tourism development and investment activities, as well as accessibility to the product, is often limited (Harrison, 2003). Similarly, Wilkinson (1989) and

Jayawardena (2002) argues that all-inclusive resorts result in minimal economic benefits for the host country because of their dependence on international charter operations, expatriate employees (except for jobs at the bottom of the pay scale), and imported food and other equipment. In addition, since most of these inclusive destinations are controlled by outside investors, achieving sustainability is further complicated due to the fact that their interests differ significantly from those of the local communities (Harrison, 2003).

Harrison (2003) also argues that because of the inclusive nature of these tourism destinations, tourists spending and the number of persons who benefit from the industry is very restrained. The overall result is an extremely high leakage rate. Another negative effect of these types of developments is that since tourists don't have the necessity to venture beyond the beach resorts and explore other types of landscapes, they often leave with the same perceptions about the Caribbean as they held on their arrival (Nelson, 2011). Similarly, Poulin (2012) argues that the all-inclusive resort model not only can exclude the experience of the local people and local culture but also displaces them in their own country.

The Caribbean has also experienced many negative social-cultural consequences originating from the tourism industry. The most noticeable form of social disruption is, perhaps, possible conflicts between the local population and the tourists (Wilkinson, 1989). This tension could result from the fact that many Caribbean communities are characterized by high levels of poverty, unemployment, malnourishment, and exploding population growth while coexisting alongside "playgrounds for the wealthy," according to Duval and Wilkinson (2004). In the Dominican Republic, for instance, GDP per capita was approximately \$9,200 in 2007, with 42.2 percent of households living below

the poverty line and 15.5 percent of the workforce unemployed (Godwin, 2008). The tourism industry, according to Godwin (2008), "stands in stark contrast with the living conditions of the local population" (p. 9).

According to Knox (1982), it is crucial to understand the complex factors that affect the relationships between tourists and local residents. Some of these include the scale of tourism, types of tourism, physical isolation of tourists, length of stay, novelty of tourists, tourist transience, language and communications, social norms of friendliness to strangers, perceived economic importance of resident friendliness, resident access to various tourism occupations, tourists as agents of desired change, and national pride and the resident as teacher. He further specifies that conflicts between both groups can also be the result of overcrowding, xenophobia, invasion of privacy, competition for resources, tourist contempt or disrespect for residents, sexual conflicts, resident attitudes toward service and servility, poor working conditions and different life philosophies, and stereotypes often all brought about by a lack of contact.

Godwin (2008) also argues that tourism can cause divisions within the local population that did not exist before the development of tourism. Such division becomes clear when some locals benefit from the industry by obtaining relatively higher paying jobs, while others are being marginalized such as those that must relocate due to high rental rates near tourists locations ((Duval and Wilkinson 2004). In some instances, such divisions "might run along preexisting Caribbean societal cleavages such as racial lines" (Godwin, 2008). Most of the best jobs, for example, often go to the local residents with the lightest skin color (Gmelch 2003).

Many of the problems caused by the tourism industry in the Caribbean can be solved with careful planning and policy implementation through sustainable tourism development strategies. While sustainability is often addressed from an environmental perspective, it should also refer to the social, cultural and economic concerns of the local population. In other words, the preservation of the environment alone is not sufficient for the sustainability of the tourism industry, if at the same time the other dimensions mentioned above are being ignored. Therefore, in achieving sustainability, the needs and hopes of local communities should be considered and integrated into the industry (Jayawardena, 2002). For instance, Godwin (2008) proposes two types of solutions including increasing the participation of the local Caribbean population in development decisions and changing tourist behavior and consumption patterns which can be difficult to achieve. Wilkinson (1989) also states that if carefully planned and integrated into the local economy and society, the impacts of the industry can be easily mitigated. He also emphasizes the importance of government intervention through policy-making in order to mitigate the environmental, social, cultural and economic impacts of the tourism industry.

Sustainable Tourism Development

During the past couple of decades, the concept of sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development has gained popularity amongst both tourism academics and practitioners alike due to the negative environmental and socio-cultural impacts resulting from the tourism industry. Even though the concept has been highly welcomed as a desirable tourism development tool, there is still a dispute amongst scholars surrounding the meaning of the term. For instance, Garrod and Fyall (1998) argue that "defining sustainable development in the context of tourism has become something of a

cottage industry in the academic literature of late" (p. 199). They also argue that the sustainable tourism debate needs to move on, from defining the concept to a more thorough consideration of how it may best be implemented in practice. Therefore, they conclude that the next step in going about the task of implementing sustainable tourism must surely be to identify the conditions for its achievement.

In order to understand the meaning of sustainable tourism development, one needs to take a look at its parental paradigm - sustainable development (AbbasiDorcheh and Mohamed, 2013). Perhaps, the most popular definition of sustainable development is that given by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in 1987 as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability for future generations to meet their own needs" (p. 43). Following the popularization of the sustainable development paradigm in the late 1980s, a growing portion of the tourism literature has focused on the principles and practices of sustainable tourism development (Hunter, 1997). However, Butowski (2012) argues that early notions of sustainable tourism can be traced to the formulation of the concept of *responsible tourism* put forward by W. Hetzer in 1965 which was considered to be very close to the principles of sustainable tourism development. Consequently, Butowski (2012) states that "the moment which began the discussion on new ways of developing tourism was when the conception of the so-called *alternative tourism* arose" as opposed to mass tourism most notable in the works of J. Krippendorfer (1986), who she argues was the author of its definition (p.4).

Still, a universally accepted definition of sustainable tourism development remains to be developed. However, sustainable tourism, in particular, can generally be defined as "tourism that meets the needs of the tourists and hosts regions while

protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future" (World Tourism Organization, 1993). In a similar way, AbbasiDorcheh and Mohamed (2013) affirms that the environmental, economic, and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development are the most important dimensions to be considered and that an acceptable balance between these three conditions is essential to guarantee long-term sustainability of tourism activities.

On the other hand, Hunter (1997) argues that such principles are essentially narrow and tourism-oriented and that sustainable tourism research has been isolated from the continuing debate on the meaning and implications of sustainable development. He also argues that sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development has focused primarily on the sustainability of the industry itself and does not necessarily contribute to sustainable development in general. He further recommends that the sustainable tourism research would benefit from a closer look at the much broader sustainable development literature which frequently demonstrates greater flexibility in charting potential development pathways. In contrast, Ritchie and Crouch (2003), argue that "sustainable tourism does not attempt simply to control development, but also seeks to encourage the development and promotion of appropriate forms of tourism, many of which can actually enhance the environmental, social and cultural well-being of a destination to increasing its economic prosperity" (p. 34).

In general, scholars have summarized the concept of sustainable tourism development to encompass three related, yet disparate components – economic, environmental, social (Swarbrooke, 1999). Others such as Ritchie and Crouch (2003), identify four primary pillars of sustainable tourism, with political sustainability being

added as the fourth one. The ecological or natural environment, for instance, is often a major attraction for many destinations and represents the core of a destination's tourism product. Therefore, any decline in their value will have an adverse effect on the destination. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) argue that even though residents of such destinations have the most stake in protection and preservation of their natural resources, the tourism industry also plays a very important role not just in terms of ensuring that any tourism development minimizes environmental harm, but also providing an economic incentive that encourages the preservation and protection of such natural features. In addition, Swarbrooke (1999) argues that the scope of the environment transcends the mere natural environment (mountains, beaches, caves) to incorporate wildlife (flora, birds, mammals and reptiles); the built environment (villages, buildings, townscapes, dams); natural resources (water, climate, air) and the farmed environment (agricultural landscapes, man-made forests).

While the wider literature of sustainability tends to concentrate mainly on the use of natural resources, it can also be argued that human-made and socio-cultural and economic resources are just as important in the context of tourism, if not more so (Garrod & Fyall, 1998). For instance, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) state that a healthy economy is as critical as to a healthy ecology. They argue that the tourism industry must help support a viable economic base which will enable a country, region or city to pursue initiatives designed to enhance the quality of life of its residents. They also specify that for any tourism strategy to meet the economic needs of local communities over the long term, the following points must be taken into consideration:

- *Of benefit to many, not just a few.* Costs and benefits should be reasonable and evenly spread over the relevant population.

- *Utilization of local labor.* Residents are more supportive of tourism development and may be prepared to tolerate minor adverse consequences if tourism is an important source of local employment.
- *Job security.* Since tourism demand can be highly seasonal, efforts to enhance job security such as establishing a multi-skilled, flexible workforce will improve economic sustainability.
- *Wages, salaries, and benefits.* An economically sustainable tourism strategy will seek to generate a broad range of employment opportunities including higher income jobs and opportunities for both low-skilled employees and higher income jobs alike.

Ritchie and Crouch (2003) also argue that the quality of life in a destination depends on more than just the economic well-being. Therefore, to be sustainable, a tourism development strategy for a destination must also address socio-cultural impacts (Craik, 1995). They further argue that solutions that minimize adverse social and cultural impacts (including crime, prostitution, alienation of some community groups, trivialization of culture and disintegration of a certain way of life), while promoting an interest and pride in those things that define a culture or society without placing it in a time warp, represent sustainable choices.

Moreover, one of the reasons why the social component of sustainable tourism development has been afforded less attention in the sustainable tourism debate than the environmental dimension is due to the notion that socio-cultural impacts are for the most part intangible and tend to occur at a slower pace and in a rather subtle manner. Social sustainability primarily involves impacts on the socio-cultural fabric of the community – the host community (Swarbrooke, 1999). Swarbrooke also condenses the social component of sustainable tourism development in the following four E's:

- *Equity.* Ensuring that all stakeholders in tourism are treated in a fair manner.
- *Equal opportunities.* Ensuring that employees in tourism and local visitors are afforded with opportunities.
- *Ethics.* The tourism industry should operate with integrity and be honest and ethical when dealing with tourists, suppliers, local residents and travel intermediaries.

- *Equal partners.* Tourists treating persons who serve them as equal partners rather than as inferior.

The public sector and people responsible for the decision-making process also play a huge role in administering sustainable practices within the tourism industry. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) acknowledge that political sustainability is rarely identified within the sustainable formula. Yet, it is crucial in the acceptability of any ecologically, economically and socio-culturally sustainable strategy of any given destination. For instance, in the case of coastal and marine resources, governments assume the largest responsibility in determining how to manage these resources. Governments can promote dialogues about tourism, make careful assessments of its costs and benefits, and pursue deliberate policy and management choices.

In addition, the local population should assume the responsibility of determining the management of its resources. The key ingredient in promoting sustainable tourism options involves combining the power in the government with the knowledge of local people in a participatory planning, monitoring and implementation process to create income generating alternatives that preserve the culture and the environment (Dobson, 2000). In addition, Hunter (1997) proposes another conceptualization, targeting the consideration and understanding of destination managers and policy makers. He states that the paradigm of sustainable tourism development is founded on the following principles:

- Meeting the needs of the local host community in terms of improved living conditions and quality of life.
- Satisfying tourist demands and that of the tourism industry, while continuing to attract tourists in order to meet the first objective.
- Safeguarding the environmental resource base for tourism, encompassing natural, built and cultural components, in order to achieve both of the preceding aims.

Lastly, education is also an essential component in achieving sustainable tourism development. According to Zenelaj (2013), achieving a balance between the three elements of sustainability (social, economic, and natural resources) can be difficult. In order for sustainable development to occur, there must be radical changes in human behaviors in regards to natural resources and the economy. She argues that if a community is not aware of the consequences of their actions, achieving sustainability in any form can be further complicated. Because of this, she suggests that when talking about changing behaviors and habits, a few things need to be pointed out including our current manners and lifestyles in regards to consumerism. However, people usually do not prefer to change their behaviors or lifestyles. They want to construct and live their own way of life, and being sustainable often requires sacrificing these ingrained lifestyles (Zenelaj 2013).

Tourism Planning

According to Gunn (1988), tourism planning can be defined as a tool for destination area development, and for assessing the needs of a tourist receiving destination. Eccles (1996) argues that since many countries use tourism as a source of regional development while seeking to obtain the economic and social benefits of the industry, the carefully planning of local resources and infrastructure is required which will help to extent and harness life cycles of the infrastructure themselves. He states that developing countries, in particular, need to consider this issue incorporating sustainability as a means of ensuring long-term success. Inskeep (1988) argues that tourism requires systematic planning so that it is developed properly, responsive to market demands, and integrated into the total development pattern of an area. He also states that tourism planners must understand the various types of socio-economic

impacts and principles that can reinforce the positive impacts on the area and mitigate the negative ones. At the same time, he emphasizes that properly planned and controlled tourism can also help achieve environmental conservation but, on the other hand, tourism by itself can cause environmental deterioration. Because of this, he emphasizes that planners need to be aware of two related environmental concerns: the conservation of important environmental features and the maintenance of the overall quality of the area.

Similarly, Padin (2012) argues that in order to ensure long-term success, planners need to find the right balance between the three principles of sustainability: environmental, economic, and social. In other words, the main goal of comprehensive tourism planning is to achieve economic growth and efficiency, ensuring social equity by solving the basic needs of the population while maintaining stable and continuous environmental systems. She also emphasized the need for an integrated model to bring together the various dimensions to achieve sustainable tourism planning in both environmental and socio-economic dimensions that could be useful in the management of tourist destinations, due to the lack of coordination among these three different dimensions in the literature.

In comparison to town planning, tourism planning is a relatively new field. And while both fields may share similar origins, they have followed distinct directions. Town planning has, in most cases, evolved with support from mature planning schools and paradigms, while tourism planning has often progressed in reaction to particular situations and been directed according to the rapid expansion of travel and tourism markets (Costa, 2001). Costa (2001) explains that tourism planning emerged as a specialization of town planning. He argues that during the Classical Planning Phase

(1850-1950) and parts of the Rational Phase (1950-1970), tourism planning remained hidden under the umbrella of town planning. In other words, issues in tourism planning were often viewed through the eyes of town planning. However, it was not until after the 1920s that the emergence of an identifiable and personalized field of tourism planning could be observed. As an independent field, tourism planning is still looking for its own approach, the body of knowledge and relationship with other better-established disciplines (Costa, 2001).

In addition, some scholars argue that prior to the 1970s, perspectives towards tourism planning were largely in favor of creating and managing development, while little or no attention at all was paid to the social, economic and environmental consequences of such developments (Murphy, 1983; CoItman, 1989; Gee, 1989). This market-driven approach of the tourism industry was highly criticized (Jafari, 1982), and according to Burns (1999), it was not until the 1970s when there was a recognition of the role of professional planners and the need for community involvement, and until the 1980s when the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism development started to be studied and recognized. By the 1990s, the impacts of tourism development were more explicit and understood. As result, total destination management was suggested as a way to successfully implement tourism plans and strategies across municipalities (Dredge, 1999).

During the evolution of practice in tourism planning, theoretical approaches were also developed and/or borrowed from other disciplines. Some of the approaches include sustainable tourism planning, community-based planning, incremental planning, comprehensive planning, and collaborative planning (Timothy, 1998; Helmy, 2004). Since the late 1980s, for instance, the terms collaboration and cooperation have been

widely used as approaches in the tourism planning literature (Jamal & Getz 1995).

Jamal and Getz (1995) argue that little effort is made to distinguish between these two concepts. The term "cooperation" was then defined as working together to some end but does not accurately reflect the complex interpretations and the necessary conditions covered by the term collaboration (Fowler and Fowler, 1964).

Collaboration, on the other hand, can be used to resolve conflict or advance shared visions, where stakeholders recognize the potential advantages of working together. Collaboration, therefore, is defined as “a process of joint decision-making among autonomous, key stakeholders to resolve planning problems and/or to manage issues related to the planning and development (of tourism)” (Gray, 1989). The stakeholders, in this context, correspond to any organized or unorganized group of individuals that share similar tourism interests. For instance, this may apply to environmental groups, and also those with heterogeneous interests, which often occurs with the community living in the destination (Sautter & Leisen, 1999).

Freeman (1984) argues that in order to implement stakeholder management, tourism planners need to have a full appreciation of all the persons or groups who have an interest in the planning process, delivery, and/or outcomes of the tourism service. Similarly, Sautter and Leisen (1999) state that tourism planners need to consider the interest or perspectives of the different stakeholder groups as defined by the roles which they serve to the particular development initiative. Thus, tourism planners also need to be concerned about the perspectives of such diverse groups, while recognizing that their interest may not be exclusively touristic. This provides a great level of complexity to the task of stakeholder management. By using Freeman's stakeholder theory (1984), they also adopted a tourism planning map that represents some of the different stakeholder

groups planners need to take into consideration throughout the planning process as seen in Figure 2.

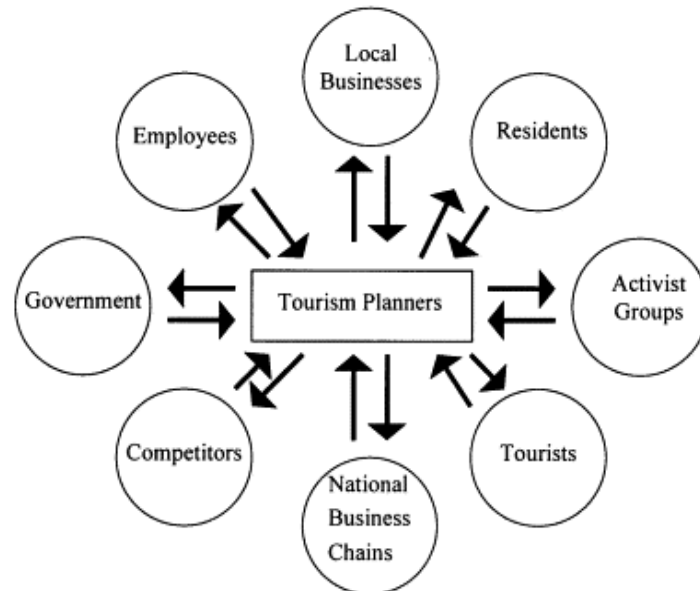


Figure 2. Tourism Stakeholder Map.
Source: Sautter & Leisen (1999).

Much of the collaborative tourism planning research, however, relies on rather weak theories of power relations within community settings (Reed, 1998). In this context, power is defined as the "ability to impose one's will or advance one's own interest" (West, 1994). Reed (1998) acknowledges that even though collaboration seeks to overcome power imbalances by involving all stakeholders in a process that meets their needs, power relationships can alter the outcome of the collaborative efforts or even prevent effective collaborative action. Because of this, he argues that it is necessary to consider how power relations can help to explain the processes and outcome of collaboration. He also states that power can be managed and balance during the planning process. Healey (1997) also emphasizes the inhibitive influence of systematic constraints such as power differences on collaborative processes. Bramwell

and Sharman (1999) also note that the lack of resources and capacity might be an impediment to successful collaboration.

However, and according to Jamal and Getz (1995), it is possible to address this issue by involving all legitimate stakeholders and identifying a suitable convener at an early stage in the collaborative planning process. In situations where power is not balanced, they suggest that a local authority such as local government act as the arbiter when the issues revolve around directing the community's future growth and development, or resolving a land-use development problem (Jamal and Getz, 1995). It is also important to consider who determines whether an individual or groups is/are affected by a development and who has sufficient capacity to participate. Particularly, in emergent tourism settings, the lack of institutions supporting tourism may allow conventional power holders in the community to retain their influence in these key decisions (Reed, 1998). By focusing on how power relations operate within community settings, perhaps the explanations of collaborative tourism planning can be advanced.

Local Community Participation

Throughout the literature, the involvement of local communities is considered to be the foundation of sustainable tourism planning and development. According to Loukissas (1983), most participation literature suggests that community input helps develop better plans which are more responsive to local needs and have a better chance of community acceptance. He argues that such input is of particular importance in tourism planning where public and private participation is essential during the implementation phase. Additionally, before engaging in any discussion on local community participation, it is important to clarify the meaning of the term community. Joppe (1996) defines "community" as a group of individuals "that it is based on a sense

of shared purpose and common goals" (p. 475). A community, she stated, is not always synonymous with the municipality. While a community may be geographical in nature, it can also be based on interest, built on heritage and cultural values shared among community members.

Within the tourism literature, various scholars highlight the importance of community participation as an essential component in order to achieve true sustainability within the industry (Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1994; Inskip, 1991; Harvel, 1996). Within this context, the term "participation" is defined as the process in which stakeholders, among them, local communities, influence and share control over the development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them (Harvel, 1996). According to Wolfensohn (1996), such participation seeks collaboration or partnerships and the commitment necessary to ensure sustainability of tourism development initiatives. In fact, most development initiatives nowadays require the participation of all concerned stakeholders (Nicholas, 2007), especially the local community members (Getz, 1995; Harvel, 1996).

Furthermore, it is argued that since local communities bear most of the socioeconomic and environmental consequences of the industry, they should also be able to exert control over the tourism planning process to incorporate development deemed appropriate by the local residents. It is also expected that involvement of those affected in the formulation of tourism plans will help build support for the plans and trust and confidence among planners, the general public, and the tourism industry (Tosun, 2000). As result, such involvement will lead to better understanding of the tourism development impacts and the need for participatory planning (Loukissas,1983).

Community participation can also be seen from multiple perspectives. For instance, after reviewing previous work, Niekerk (2014) concluded that community participation can be viewed from at least three schools of thoughts. The first school of thought considers that most people tend to avoid community participation under the best conditions (Riedel, 1972; Niekerk, 2014). The second recognizes that community participation is a voluntary process in which the community will only engage when doing so is likely to benefit them (Bramwell and Lane, 2009; Bronkhorst et al., 2010; and Jamal and Getz, 1995; Niekerk, 2014). Finally, the third school of thought argues that communities often want to participate but are rarely provided the opportunity to do so effectively. Because of this, it is important that local residents need to be empowered with both knowledge and confidence in order for them to exercise control over tourism development in their community. Also, the need for appropriate structures such as village development committees to represent community interests in tourism has also been suggested (Scheyvens, 2002).

Therefore, one way to ensure that the communities involved have plenty of opportunities to participate is by legislating for community participation within the destination management process (Zhao & Ritchie, 2008). Niekerk (2014) argues that localities must develop an integrated development plan (IDP) that promotes an integrated, participatory style, where communities must be legally consulted. The purpose of consultation, she adds, provides the community with a process through which they have an opportunity to represent the interest and needs of their constituencies, and to provide a structure for discussion, negotiation, and joint decision-making.

Much of the literature suggests the idea that in order for local communities to benefit from the tourism industry, they must participate in the decision-making process. In fact, community participation in the decision-making process is critical to guarantee benefits for the local communities (Li, 2005; Tosun, 2000). Li (2005) also adds that integration of local communities into the decision-making process is “not a final goal itself” but only one of the many ways through which community participation can be achieved (p.133). Moreover, Tosun (2000) acknowledges that another way for the local communities to participate in the tourism industry is through employment opportunities. In many developing countries, for instance, community participation through employment as workers in the industry or through encouraging them to operate small scale business, “has been recognized to help local communities get more economic benefits rather than creating opportunities for them to have a say in decision-making process of tourism development” (p. 626).

In addition, numerous models have been developed in order to conceptualize the different types of community participation. For instance, after reviewing previous studies on community participation, Tosun (1999) developed a model which portrays community participation within the tourism industry. His model, as shown in Figure 3, suggests three different forms or typologies of community participation including spontaneous community participation, induced community participation, and coercive community participation. These typologies, as he described, "contextualizes community participation as a categorical term that allows participation of people, citizens or a host community in their affairs at different levels (local, regional or national) and various forms (manipulative, coercive, induced, passive, spontaneous, etc.) under specific conditions" (p. 494).

7. Self-mobilization	8. Citizen control	Degrees of Citizen Power	Spontaneous Participation Bottom-up; active par.; direct participation; par. in decision making; authentic participation; self planning;
6. Interactive participation	7. Delegated power	Degrees of Citizen Tokenism	Induced Participation Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; degree of tokenism; manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
5. Functional participation	6. Partnership		
4. Participation for material incentives	5. Placation	Non-participation	Coercive Participation Top-down, passive; mostly indirect, formal; participation in implementation, but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; paternalism, non-participation, high degree of tokenism and manipulation.
3. Participation by consultation	4. Consultation		
2. Passive participation	3. Informing	Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation	Tosun's (1999a) typology of community participation
1. Manipulative participation	2. Therapy		
	1. Manipulation	Petty's (1995) typology of community participation	

Keys: Corresponding categories in each typology

Figure 3. Typologies of Community Participation.
Source: Tosun (2006)

Each of the three subheadings in Tosun's (1999) model correspond to two or more categories in Petty's (1995) and Arnstein's (1971) models. According to Tosun (2006), spontaneous community participation represents an ideal model of community

participation which provides full managerial responsibility and authority to the host communities. In induced community participation, on the other hand, the host community is allowed to hear and be heard. In other words, they have a voice in the tourism development process but do not possess the power to ensure that their views will be taken into consideration. This typology, he affirms, is the most common in developing countries where communities can only endorse decisions made for them rather than by them. In other words, they may participate in implementation and sharing of benefits of tourism, but not in the decision making process. Finally, coercive community participation represents the lowest level of participation. The main objective, according to Tosun (2006), is to enable power holders to turn away potential and actual threats to future tourism development.

Despite the growing interest in local participation, the reality is that local communities are seldom involved and are usually without a voice in the tourism planning and development process (Harvel, 1996; Fahmy, 2009). This is particularly true in the case of developing countries where most of the concerns of the local communities are often excluded while more emphasis is placed on tourists' desires and behaviors (Murphy, 1985). This is contrary to the principles of sustainable tourism development, which emphasizes the active participation of all stakeholder groups as shown in the works of sustainable tourism scholars.

It is also important to note that community participation in tourism planning and development has emerged and been developed in the context of developed countries (Tosun, 2000). Because of this, there is a clear disconnection between western planning theories and the reality in most developing countries (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Timothy (1999), also states that there is little emphasis on tourism planning as it relates to

developing countries. He argues that cooperation in planning between different groups of stakeholders including the local communities and the public and private sector is a western perspective and it is mostly based on the experiences of developed nations. In North America, for example, local communities have the political power to resist development, whether it is from local governments or outside investors (Murphy, 1985). On the other hand, local communities in developing countries do not possess such alternative.

Brohman (1996) argues that in most developing countries, increased popular participation in tourism requires institutional reform to provide possibilities for various groups to organize, represent themselves, and exercise their influence over the decision-making process. He further argues that hierarchical institutional structures and elite imposed development projects should be replaced by more democratic, two-way planning process that empowers people to design policies in their own interests and build on their own resources to overcome the problems that they will inevitably confront. In addition, it is also important to understand which members of the community are being involved. This is because political powers often ally themselves with those interest groups that are supportive of development in order to claim "community support" or "community consultation." As result, no effort is made to bring the marginalized into the community participation process. Instead, "community" is conveniently defined as business interests and mainstream historical, cultural and environmental groups. The involvement of these groups alone does not necessarily mean community participation (Joppe, 1996).

To prevent situations such as that described above, the institutional design of tourism planning should facilitate the participation of various social groups that

represent the diverse interests of the broader community. This would not only discourage undemocratic, top-down decision making, but also provide opportunities for communities to use their own resources and popular creativity to find locally appropriate methods of tourism development (Brohman, 1996). Unless responsive institutions and the legal and policy framework that facilitate and support local participation are in place, the efforts to guarantee a room for community participation are less likely to succeed (Havel, 1996; Tosun, 2000).

Local Community Perception of Tourism Development

According to Simão and Mósso (2013), the term perception "consists in the meaning assigned to an object, resulting from the individual selection, decoding, and interpretation of external information; it is a representation of reality" (p.144). Within the tourism field, residents' attitudes or perceptions are psychological trends which express, either favor or disfavor against the evaluation of tourism development, suggesting what is perceived by the population (Lindberg and Johnson, 1997; Simão & Mósso, 2013). This information, according to Simão and Mósso (2013), allows for the understanding of the support or rejection that the local community may exhibit throughout the tourism development process. They further acknowledge that monitoring the perception of the host communities is a crucial part of tourism planning given that:

- the majority of the impacts are imposed on the residents, and that they have the legitimacy to identify those which should be accepted and those that are problematic;
- without the support of residents it will be difficult, sooner or later, to develop an activity that uses local resources; and
- it is the only way to monitor changes in residents' attitudes over time.

Local community participation in the tourism planning process should be a crucial part in effective tourism development and planning. However, the way local

communities perceive tourism development will almost always affect their decision of whether or not to participate in such a process. Further evidence of the need for a changed approach to public involvement in tourism planning has come from the numerous tourism impact and resident attitude studies conducted in diverse host communities over the years (Keogh, 1990). Therefore, having a clear understanding of attitudes and interest of stakeholders helps to reach effective comprehensive planning and management which leads to sustainable tourism development (AbbasiDorcheh, 2013). Moreover, local communities may react in many different and varied ways, from complete resistance through to the complete adoption of new developments. In order to overcome possible resistance, residents' perceptions need to be carefully considered alongside with their incorporation in the planning and development process (Eccles & Costa, 1996) which is fundamental for tourism planning and development (Ap, 1992).

Numerous factors influencing resident's perception can be found in the tourism literature. According to Murphy (1985), some general factors include the type and extent of host-guest interaction, importance of the industry to the community, the extent of individual reliance on the industry, and the overall level of tourism development found in the community. For example, people who are economically reliant on the tourism industry have been found to have more favorable attitudes towards new tourism development projects (Madrigal, 1993; Perdue, Long, & Allen, 1990). Even in the case of low-income individuals, favorable attitudes towards the tourism industry were found since they often view the industry as bringing potential economic benefits to the community and willingly participate in the decision-making process (Haley, Snaith, & Miller, 2005). In regards to the extent of host-guest interaction, it has been found that in places where host communities have a high levels of interaction with tourists, the

perception of local communities in regards to tourism will be positive or very positive in terms of Likert-type questions (Akis, Peristianis, & Warner 1996; Andereck, et al., 2005).

The level of community attachment or length of residence also plays an important role in determining resident's attitudes. In regards to this, some conclude that the longer an individual resides in a community, the more likely they will develop negative attitudes towards tourism development (Lankford, 1994; Sheldon & Var, 1984, Belisle & Hoy, 1980; and Pearce, 1980). This conclusion, however, does not always apply in every circumstance (Anderck et al., 2005). Another factor is the distance of residence from the tourist areas. Belisle and Hoy (1980), for example, conclude that the closer a resident lives to a tourist destination, the more likely that resident will develop negative attitudes towards tourism development.

Also, the access which residents have to recreational amenities and facilities made possible by the industry has previously been considered as an important factor. For instance, Gursoy et al. (2002) found that if residents perceive tourism development as improving or incrementing the recreational facilities they use, they are likely to develop positive attitudes. On the other hand, if the opposite occurs where the local population is strongly losing accessibility to these recreational assets, they are more likely to develop a negative attitude towards the industry. Other factors that have been widely discussed within the literature include demographic variables such as age, language, gender, among others are found to be related to resident attitudes (Davis et al., 1988; Liu & Var, 1986; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Madrigal 1995). In spite of the various studies that have been conducted, others suggest that these socio-economic factors play a minor and sometimes unclear role in explaining resident attitudes toward

tourism development (Perdue et al., 1990; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). For instance, Perdue et al. (1990) conclude that there is very little difference in perceived tourism impacts by socio-demographic characteristics of the host population.

When analyzing resident's attitudes towards tourism, different theories concerning the socio-cultural impacts on residents and factors affecting their perceptions have also been developed. Social exchange theory, however, has increasingly been adopted for developing a framework to explain the relationships between individuals and the perceived benefits of tourism development (Perdue et al., 1990). It was originally adopted within the community tourism development field by John Ap in 1992. According to Ap (1992), "modern social exchanged theory has evolved from the works of Levi-Strauss (1969), Homans (1961), Blau (1964), and Emerson (1972)" (p. 668). Such theory, he argues, is a general sociological theory that focuses on understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interactive situation. Social exchange theory also suggests that the relationships between individuals and groups are based on the subjective evaluation of benefits and costs and comparison alternatives. Individuals or groups will favor the exchange with other groups if they perceive that the benefits are greater than possible costs.

Within a tourism context, Ap (1992) states that from the residents' perspective, the primary benefit is to gain the social and economic improvements brought by tourism development. The costs of this exchange include the negative impacts of such development often endured by the host communities themselves. He further acknowledges that residents will support tourism development if the perceived benefits surpass or equate the perceived costs. He also explains that in order to sustain tourism in a community, certain exchanges must occur. Therefore, local communities may

contribute to the well-being of the community through their participation in the planning, development, and the operation of tourist attractions; and by extending their hospitality to tourists in exchange for the benefits obtained from tourism. Since then, a number of empirical studies within the tourism field have been conducted using social exchange theory as a basis (Perdue et al., 1990).

Similarly, AbbasiDorcheh and Mohamed (2013) argues that during host-guest interactions people always seek and follow something valuable. This perceived value is one of the primary dimensions used to determine the resident's perception toward tourism. He further argues that the perception of the local community towards tourism depends on two different factors. First, residents who have personal benefits or dependency in the industry are more likely to have positive perceptions and therefore will help promote and develop tourism. In contrast, residents whose perceptions are focused on costs, are more likely to have a negative perception, and thus, will not support or participate during the planning process.

Even though social exchange theory has contributed a great deal in helping to understand resident attitudes towards tourism development, there is still more room for future studies that link tourism impacts, social exchange theory, resident's attitudes, and tourism planning in particular. For instance, in his article, Lankford (2001) states that "tourism impact research is (or should be) designed to provide planners a database with which to develop a planning process aimed at addressing local concerns and issues" (p. 316). He further suggests that by using appropriate statistical procedures, the planner can identify which residents are opposed and which in favor of tourism development within their community. Afterward, the planner can use such analysis to develop a

network of concern citizens while enhancing our ability to be sensitive to variations in the level and content of development to reflect local concerns.

Therefore, the next step in the studies of local community perceptions so as to contribute to tourism planning and subsequently sustainable tourism development is by researching the relationship between residents' perceived benefits and costs and support to tourism planning. In other words, it is still unclear whether support for tourism development will lead to residents' willingness to participate throughout the planning process. For instance, McGehee and Andereck (2004), who carried out a study similar to that of Perdue et al. (1990), argue that the main difference between both studies was that theirs included a model to conceptualize the relationship between residents' perceived benefits and costs and support to tourism planning. They found that tourism's negative impacts are positively related to tourism planning, but there was no significant relationship between personal benefit and tourism planning in particular. They also found that support for additional tourism predicted tourism planning with an, especially strong correlation. In other words, those who recognized the negative impacts of tourism and those who were in support of additional tourism both recognize the need for tourism planning.

Conclusion

According to the tourism and tourism planning literature, the tourism industry has been widely embraced by developing countries as a way to alleviate many of their economic problems as well as to position themselves into the global economy and the Caribbean region has not been the exception. Indeed, it is deemed the most tourism-dependent region in the world. However, tourism development can also cause many

adverse environmental, economic, and socio-cultural effects in the host countries.

Because of this, scholars suggest that the industry must adopt a sustainable approach in order to maintain a reasonable balance between the previously mentioned dimensions.

In essence, the concept of sustainable tourism development evolved from its parental paradigm - Sustainable Development which seeks to combine the concepts of development and sustainability so that development does not compromise the ability for future generations to meet their own needs.

The literature also suggests that in order for tourism to be sustainable, it needs to be carefully planned by incorporating all important stakeholder groups during all stages of the planning, development and decision-making process. In particular, local community members who endure many of the negative consequences of the tourism industry should be incorporated. Lastly, the literature suggests that it is also important that tourism planners incorporate resident attitudes towards the tourism industry and consider the various factors that influence such attitudes. While many studies have focused on trying to understand local community attitudes, further research on community attitudes towards tourism planning, in particular, still remains to be done. In this regard, the present study hopes to contribute to this important gap within the tourism planning literature.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This chapter describes the study area and research methods in three different sections. In the first section, a brief summary of the study area is presented alongside maps of the region. It includes information such as the general location of the study areas, demographic data, relevant geographic features, major economic activities, and the current status of transportation infrastructure including roads and airports. The second section describes data collection procedures including the development of the survey instrument, sampling techniques, questionnaire administration, and a summary of the types of informal discussions held with local residents and local businesses owners. The third and final section includes a summary of the data analysis methods used to obtain the results which are presented in Chapter 4.

Study Area

The Dominican Republic

The island of Hispaniola (as shown in Figure 4) is part of the Greater Antilles and is second in size after Cuba. Originally called Quisqueya by the natives, it was later named Hispaniola (little Spain) by the Spanish. Nowadays, the island is divided into two independent states, the Dominican Republic to the east and the Republic of Haiti to the west. The island has a total land surface of 77,914 km² from which 48,310.97 km² belong to the Dominican Republic including the 265 km² of Lake Enriquillo. The Dominican Republic is located South of the Atlantic Ocean which separates the country from the Turks and Caicos Island, West of the Mona Passage which separates it from

Puerto Rico, North of the Caribbean Sea which separates it from South America, and East of the Republic of Haiti. Its geographical coordinates are 17° 36' and 19° 58' north and 68° 19' and 72° 01' west (República Dominicana, 2010).



Figure 4. The Island of Hispaniola
Source: Hispaniola (2016).

According to the 2010 census, the total population in the country was 9,445,281 of which 4,739,038 were male and 4,706,243 were female. The composition by age and gender can be observed in Figure 5. Children under 5 years constituted 9.5% of the total population while children between 6 and 15 years constituted about 30% of the population. In contrast, those 65 and over constituted only 6.3%, and those over 75 accounted for 2.6% of the total population (República Dominicana, 2010). As of 2005, 64% of the population lived in urban areas which were growing at an annual rate of 1.99%. By 2010, the population in Santo Domingo, the capital city alone was 2,374,370. Other important cities with significant population include Santiago de los

Caballeros, La Romana, San Pedro de Macorís, San Francisco de Macorís, and Concepción de la Vega (Dominican Republic, 2007).

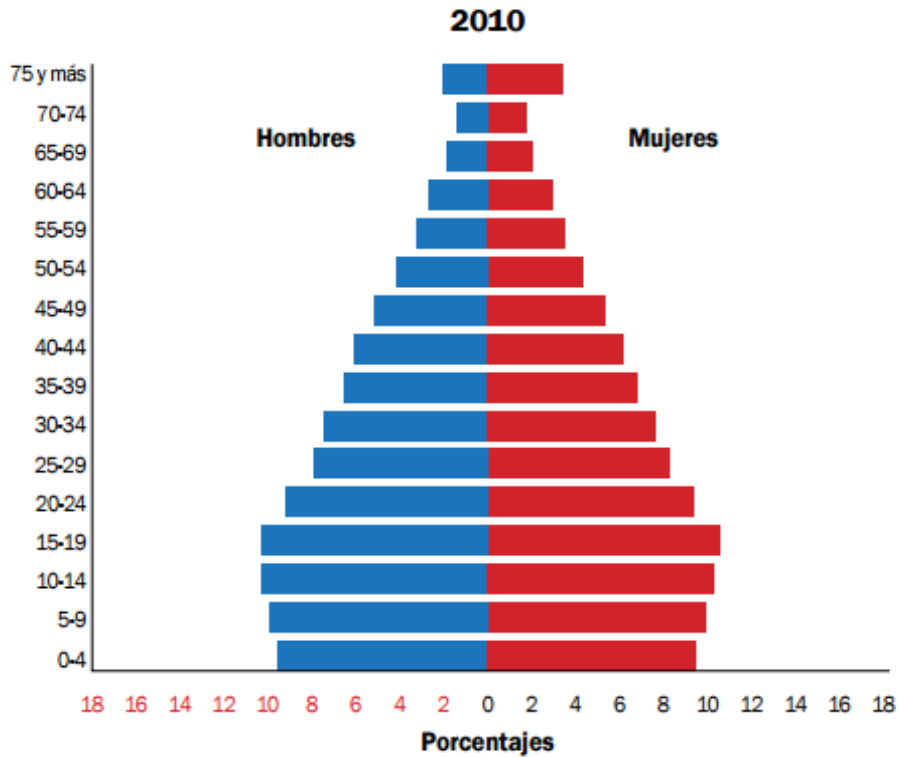


Figure 5. 2010 Population Pyramid of the Dominican Republic
Source: República Dominicana (2010).

Regarding ethnic groups, 16% of the population claim European ancestry, 11% African ancestry, and 73% mixed race. Descendants of early Spanish settlers and of black slaves from West Africa constitute the two main racial groups. Even though English is spoken in the capital and Creole is used along the Haitian border, Spanish is the official language of the country. In terms of religious affiliation, 68.1% of the population self-report as Roman Catholic while 11% are affiliated with other Christian denominations. The remaining 20.9% claim no religious affiliation (Dominican Republic, 2007).

Historically, the country's economy was based primarily on agriculture with sugar, coffee, and tobacco as the main export crops. However, nowadays the service sector is the largest employer accounting for about 60% of the total labor force, led mostly by the tourism industry, telecommunications, and free-trade-zone manufacturing (Dominican Republic, 2007). The tourism industry, in particular, was not organized until 1967 when the country received no more than 45,000 visitors per year. More recently, increased political stability has made the country more attractive to tourist and foreign investment (Dominican Republic, 2007). Even though the country entered the Caribbean tourism late, it quickly became one of the most popular destinations in the region (Duffy et al., 2016). For instance, international tourist arrivals increased from 4,306,000 in 2011 to 5,141,000 in 2014 (World Data Bank, 2016).

The growing tourism sector (5.1 million in 2014 with a goal of 10 million visitors yearly by 2022) also demands high-quality food products. A growing number of consumers demand higher quality and healthier products and generally perceive U.S. products as meeting their requirements. However, the Dominican food industry has become more efficient and more competitive, integrating new technologies and production processes. All-inclusive resorts, for instance, usually focus on purchasing local products to lower their costs. Although major restaurants and all-inclusive resorts import some products directly and have developed a purchasing structure, most of them source their products from local importers (Caribbean Market Profile, 2016).

The Province of La Altagracia

The Province of Altagracia is part of the Yuma Region (as seen in Figure 6). It occupies an area of 2,998.4 square kilometers and is the second largest province in the

country. According to the 2010 census, the province had a population of 273,210 inhabitants with a population density of 91 inhabitants per square kilometer, of which 143,010 were men and 130,200 were women. The urban population is 212,656 inhabitants and the rural population is 60,554 inhabitants (La Altagracia, 2016b). Population growth in the province has been primarily the result of migration due to economic migrants from Haiti and also from other parts of the Dominican Republic (La Altagracia, 2016b).

Región VIII: Yuma

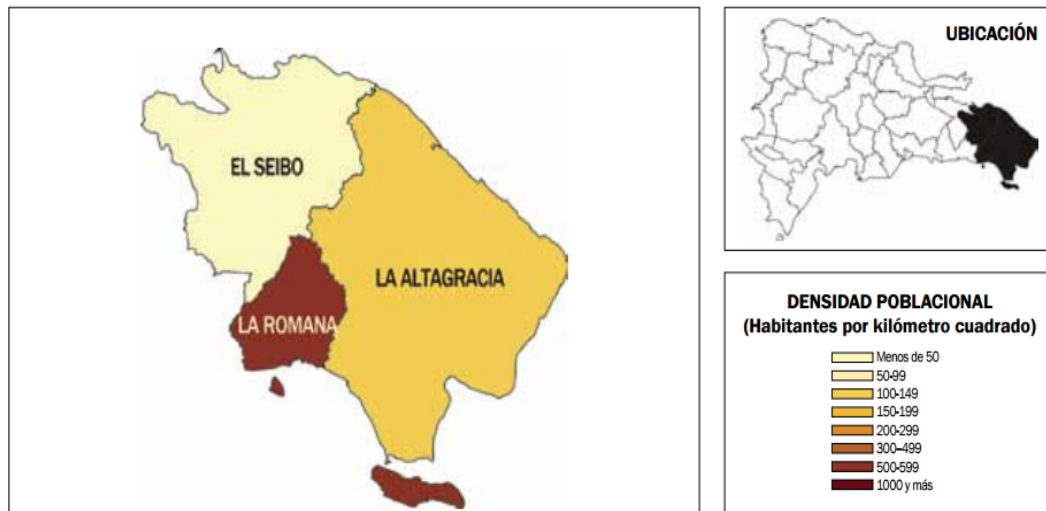


Figure 6. Yuma Region, Dominican Republic.
Source: República Dominicana (2010).

La Altagracia is located on the southern edge of the Atlantic Ocean, west of the Mona Passage, north of the Saona Island and the Caribbean Sea, and east of the provinces of El Seibo and La Romana. According to the political-administrative division, it is subdivided into two municipalities, Higüey and San Rafael del Yuma. These two municipalities are divided into five municipal districts including Las Lagunas

de Nisibón, La Otra Banda, Bayahibe, Boca de Yuma, and Verón - Punta Cana (La Altagracia, 2016b).

A growing tourism sector can be attributed in part to the province's diverse environments. For instance, the province has nine protected areas grouped into four categories for management which are as follows: Habitat and Species, Natural Monuments, National Parks, and Protected Landscapes. These areas occupy an area of 457.76 square kilometers equivalent to 15.27 percent of the total area of the province (La Altagracia, 2016a). The three main protected areas include Parque Nacional del Este, the much smaller Laguna de Bávaro, and the Maimón Basin. The Eastern National Park (Parque Nacional del Este) is located in the southern part of the province (Figure 1). This park is considered as one of the most beautiful protected areas in the country due to its scenic beaches. It is also the habitat for a wide range of distinctive flora and fauna (La Altagracia, 2016b).

Ecological zones surrounding the study area consists of subtropical wet forests and widespread subtropical dry forests. The type of forest area south of Punta Cana corresponds to the eastern coastal plain. However, the concentration of forests also reach some important spots north of Punta Cana. While coastal vegetation grows on sandy soil, inland vegetation is more varied with some found on rocky and dry soil, some on wet ground and to a lesser extent within and around freshwater lagoons (Valdez, 2008). By 2012 forest land cover occupied 798.8 km², equivalent to 40.4% of the area of the province. Semi-arid forest occupies 369.7 km² (18.7%), coniferous forest 157.4 km² (7.9%), and broadleaf forest accounts for 264 km² (13.3%) (La Altagracia, 2016a).

The main roads and highways in the province include Mella Road which connects the City of Higüey with the Province of El Seibo, located northwest of Higüey; and the Eastern Highway connects the City of Santo Domingo with the hotels located in the eastern part of the province. This makes it possible for tourists to travel from Santo Domingo to Bávaro and Punta Cana in less than three hours. Lastly, the Higüey Road connects the City of Higüey with Bávaro and Uvero Alto located in the northeast part of the province (La Altagracia, 2016b). The province also counts with a privately owned airport called the Punta Cana International Airport (PUJ). The PUJ is the first private international airport in the country and also the world's first privately built, owned and managed international airport. In its inaugural year in 1984, the airport received 2,976 passengers. In 2012, it received over four million visitors (Punta Cana Resort and Club, 2016).

The Province of La Altagracia has remarkable economic activities based on ranching and agriculture. For instance, about 775,000 hectares in the province are dedicated to grazing cattle, which ranks it as the second province in terms of pasture area and livestock. On the other hand, agricultural activities consist of the production of sugar cane and rice, as well as corn, beans, cassava, bananas, taro, yams, sweet potatoes and other vegetables. Fishing is also a common practice not only as a traditional economic activity but also as a tourist and sports activity (La Altagracia, 2016b).

With first-class international tourist hotels such as those found in Bávaro and Punta Cana, this region is considered to be one of the top tourist destinations in the Caribbean and Central America (La Altagracia, 2016b; Messinger, 2013). According to the Dominican Republic Hotel and Tourism Association, Inc. (ASONAHORES) tourists from the U.S. continue to lead arrivals. As seen in Figure 7, approximately 923,854

tourists arrived at the PCJ between January and March of 2016 accounting for a total of 64.74% of all foreigners who arrived in the country during that period of time. Roughly 605,808 were from North America, 198,528 from Europe, 109,994 from South America, 9,254 from Central America, 170 from Asia, and 100 from other parts of the world (Moya, 2016). It is also estimated that nearly 2.5 million foreigners enjoy these all-inclusive resorts every year in the country (Caribbean Market Profile, 2016).

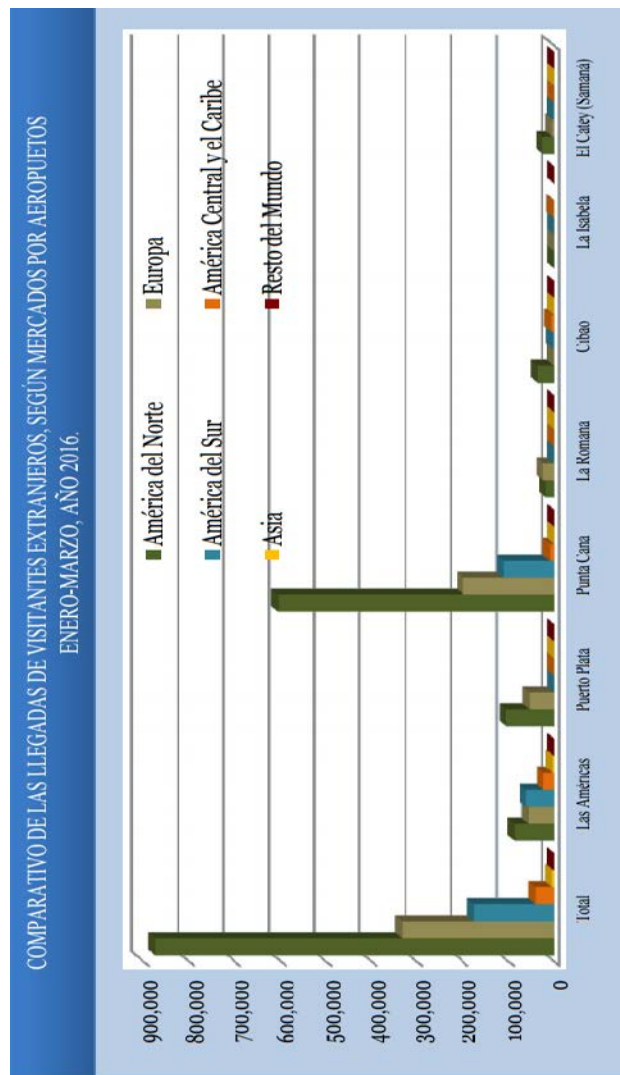


Figure 7: Comparison between foreign visitors by airport Between January and March of 2016. Source: Moya (2016).

In addition to the several beaches and the fine white sand shaded by coconut palms, there are other multiple attractions to be found in the province. Among them is Parque Nacional del Este an ecological reserve that possesses the greatest concentration of cave art in the Antilles. The Island Saona, which is part of the park, is inhabited by a small community of fishermen and has leafy forests, sandy beaches and a wide diversity of insects, reptiles, and birds many of which are endemic to the island. Tortoise and manatees can also be found within this national park. Other attractions in the province include the Bávaro Lake, international scuba diving and fishing areas in Cabeza de Toro, subterranean caverns and rivers, indigenous cemeteries, mountains and hot springs. Religious tourism is another form of tourism in the province due to the Basilica of Our Lady of La Altagracia located in the City of Higüey (Dominican Republic, 2016).

Study Sites

The participants included in this study were recruited from three separate communities within the municipal district of Verón - Punta Cana including Juanillo, Verón, and Friusa. Figure 8 highlights the location of these communities located on the eastern portion of La Altagracia. Verón consists of a number of different neighborhoods grouped together such as Rufina, Las Dos Jarras, Los Manantiales, and Pueblo Bávaro. On the other hand, Juanillo and Friusa consist of one single neighborhood and/or village.

Except for Juanillo, these communities did not exist prior to 1960. Their development quickly followed the construction of hotel resorts in the region. Before then, only a few hundred locals inhabited the eastern part of the province. The economy

of these early residents was primarily based on charcoal production, coconut plantations, subsistence agriculture, fishing, and coal mines (Sauter, 2014). However, local production of these goods as well as fishing has been decreased and largely replaced by employment options in the tourism industry. Some of the settlements in these communities are either the result of displacement in the case of Juanillo, or economic migration in the cases of Verón and Friusa (Sauter, 2014; Valdez, 2008).

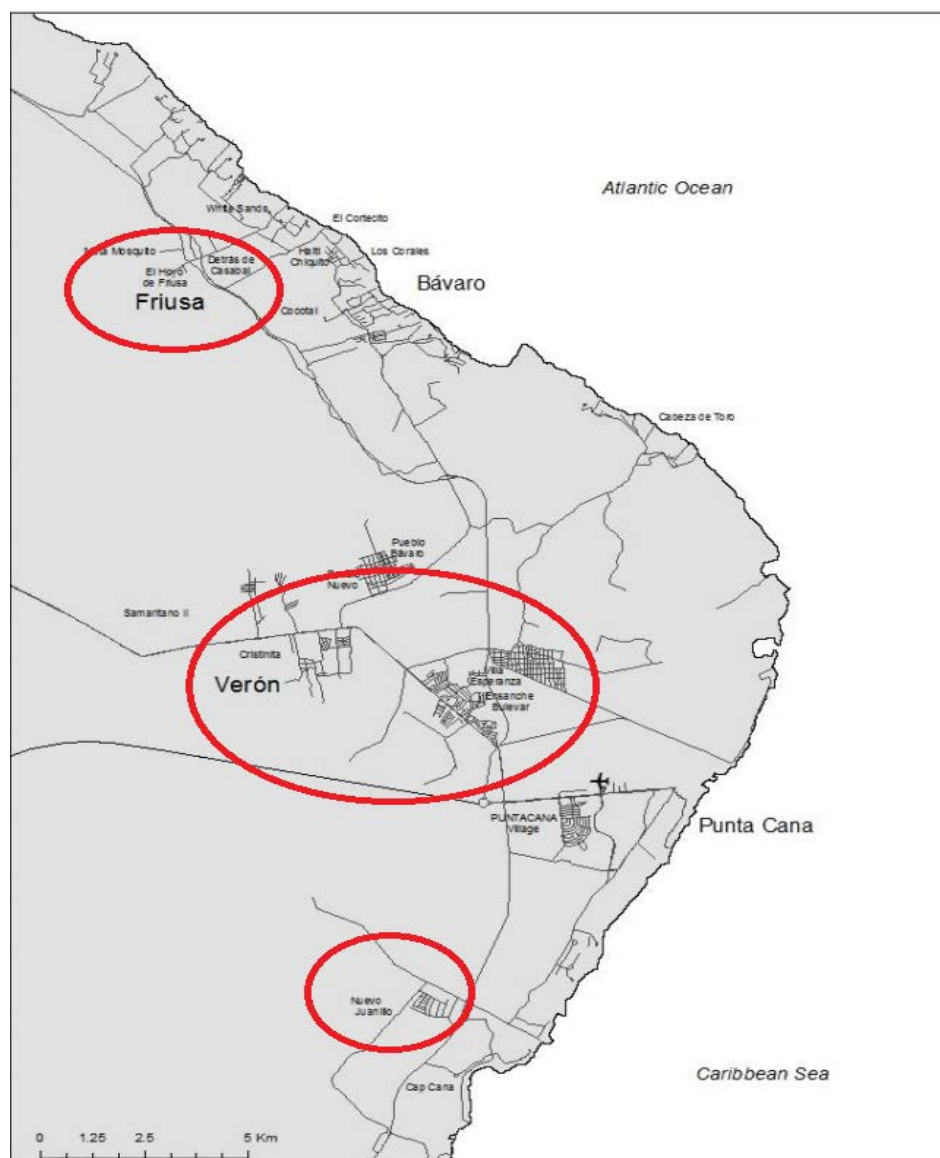


Figure 8. Map of the study area in the Province of La Altagracia.
Source: Base map by Sauter (2014)

Data Collection

To get a better understanding of attitudes and perception of local residents regarding tourism development and planning as well as their willingness to participate in the planning process, similar research techniques were conducted in all three of these communities. Data collection was accomplished with the implementation of a survey questionnaire carried out with the assistance of Universidad Iberoamericana (UNIBE). In addition to the systematic completion of the survey questionnaires, informal discussions were conducted with some of the local residents. During the summer of 2015 about 500 residents were approached and asked to participate in the Western Michigan University Human Subjects Institutional Review Board approved survey (Appendix B).

Based on the systematic survey and informal discussions, this research attempts to explain the inner-relationships among basic beliefs, psychological and attitudinal constructs. It seeks to explain how residents' value orientations and community attachment affect their attitude toward participatory tourism planning. It also seeks to explain how these values affect their support for tourism development and their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. The following sections describe how the measures used in the study were developed, the sampling techniques adopted, and the means of administration of the survey instrument.

Development of Survey Instrument

In order to be successful, the questions in a survey questionnaire should be formulated to collect the data necessary to answer the study's objectives. The construction of the survey used in this research is influenced by the existing literature pertaining tourism planning, resident's perception toward tourism development, and

local community participation. The selected items were initially developed via preliminary research but then refined based on feedback from a number of colleagues. They were asked to clarify items and comment on whether the items were likely to be appropriate for evaluating responses or not. Unless otherwise specified, most of the sections in the survey contained close-ended Likert-type questions. Participants were asked to respond to them and indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each particular item on a five-point scale. During testing procedures, it was determined that completing the questionnaire takes an average of 25 minutes. A copy of the survey questionnaire can be found in Appendix B.

The survey instrument was comprised of nine different sections. Section 1- Questions About You - asked socio-demographic and background information such as the name of their community, occupation, age, gender, the number of years of residence, the level of education, and the primary reason for moving to their community. Section 2 - Community Engagement - was intended to measure community involvement by determining different types of activities the participant was part of. For instance, if the participant chose "fishing" it is likely that he or she is a fisherman. Similarly, if the participant selected "selling of goods and services to tourists" then it is likely that the participant is a merchant.

Section 3 - Community Attitudes - was intended to measure place or community attachment. Nine items were included in this section to measure each participant's community attachment. The types of items used under this section were related to the participant's emotional, social bonding, and identity in relationship to their respective communities. Examples include "what happens in this community is important to me," and "this community is special to me." Participants were asked to respond based on a

five-point Likert-type scale of agreement ranging from 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

Section 4 - Environmental Attitudes - was intended to explore the participant's level of awareness regarding the importance of protecting the environment and included items such as "humans are severely abusing the environment," and personal statements such as "when not in use, I turn off the lights and appliances at home."

Similarly, Sections 5 and 6 -Economic Attitudes - and - Social Attitudes - were intended to determine the participants' overall economic and social attitudes respectively. They included opinion-seeking items such as "tourists should purchase products from local businesses," and "an important part of the visitor's experience is interacting with local residents and the local culture."

Section 7 - Tourism Development and Your Community - was intended to understand how has tourism development impacted the existing life conditions within the participant's communities with a Likert scale of 1 = significantly worsen, 2 = worsen, 3 = no change, 4 = improved, 5 = significantly improved. It included items investigating perceptions of employment opportunities for local people, household income of local people, the number of entertainment and recreational opportunities, and opinion related to the general appearance of the area.

Section 8 - Your opinions on Tourism Development - was intended to explore the participant's opinions on tourism development in general and included items such as "my community can handle more tourism development," and "we should emphasize on limiting new tourism development."

Lastly, Section 9 - Participatory Tourism Development - posed questions about residents' attitudes toward participation and involvement during the tourism planning processes. Example of items under this section included "local people should be consulted when tourism policies are being made," "Local people should not participate by any means in tourism development," and "I, as a resident should be able to participate in local decision-making processes," Similar to most sections in the questionnaire, respondents were asked to respond how much they agree or disagree with each item on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Two additional questions were added after Section 9 to identify residents' participation or membership in any local groups, clubs, organizations, and associations. The questions asked whether or not residents were participating in any of these groups, how many of these groups they were participating in, and how many of these groups were related in one way or another to the tourism industry. If they were not participating in any of the groups, they were asked about the reason they were not participating including lack of information, lack of enthusiasm, time constraints, and absence of such groups and organizations near their homes. Lastly, respondents were asked to rate their perceived level of local involvement in the tourism decision-making processes on a five-point scale ranging from very poor to very good. Finally, an open-ended question was also added at the bottom of the survey for participants to provide additional comments.

Sampling Techniques

Since a census of the study area was not feasible at the time of the data collection, a sampling process was developed to represent the residents of Juanillo, Verón, and Friusa using the number of housing units in the proposed municipal plan of

2008 (Valdez, 2008). Local residents were selected using a systematic random sample. Given that the majority of the communities in the area do not have a zip code and houses are hard to identify by number, the systematic random sampling method was identified as the most appropriate measure for generating the sample. Every 6th house was systematically chosen with a random start in the communities of Verón and Friusa. In Juanillo, every 3rd house was systematically chosen for being relatively smaller than the other two communities. This yielded a total sample of 200 homes total, 15 of which were from Juanillo, 135 were from Verón, and 50 were from Friusa. As of 2008, the total number of houses was 1,052 in Verón; 1,076 in Friusa; and less than 70 in Juanillo (Valdez, 2008).

In total, 500 local residents were initially approached of which 200 residents successfully completed the entire questionnaire. This produced an overall 40% response rate. In order to increase the response rate, each person who completed the survey received a gift bag containing a souvenir, candies, and a letter of gratitude from the researcher. Local residents also had to meet some basic requirements prior to their participation in this research. First, all participants were required to be temporary or permanent residents of one of the three rural areas Juanillo, Verón, and Friusa (not visitors). In identifying temporary residents, two criteria were taken into consideration: the length of stay and the purpose of the visit such as work or school. Second, local residents needed to be 18 years of age and older. Also, only one person in each household was invited to participate.

Questionnaire Administration

This study relied on administered face-to-face surveys. The surveys were conducted from July 1, 2015, to August 22, 2015. Participants were recruited by a team

consisting of undergraduate tourism students attending Universidad Iberoamericana (UNIBE), professor Nikaully Vargas Arias, the researcher, as well as some of my relatives. The entire team received proper training on research ethics, recruitment procedures, and informed consent processes prior to the distribution of the survey questionnaire.

During the recruitment process, the survey team approached each individual household unit in pairs of two. Each pair introduced themselves with emphasis on the research's affiliation with an American academic institution, the purpose of the research, and the reasons the person was being invited to participate in the study. The surveys took place in each one of the participants' homes and were conducted in Spanish. After consulting the individual teams it was determined that administering the surveys took an average of 25 minutes each.

The informed consent document, including the benefits of the research and possible risks of participating in the study, were also explained to the participants before the survey took place. Potential subjects were provided with an opportunity for making his/her own decision to participate. It was also made clear that they had the opportunity to participate or not as they wish, and that there were not repercussions based on either choice. If the subject expressed their interest in participating, they received the survey questionnaire in the form of a hard copy or the survey was read and completed by the research team depending on the participant's preference. Participants also received a copy of the informed consent form with the researcher contact information. In the case of absence or where no adult was at home, an invitation letter was left at the door with the researcher's contact information (Appendix C).

Informal Discussions

In addition to the survey questionnaire, the team also engaged in informal discussions with participants and local business owners so as to address some of the limitations of the questionnaire. Discussions with local residents and local business owners revealed the relevance of questions not included in the survey. The primary purpose of such discussions was to complement information gathered in the survey questionnaire. They assisted the researcher in understanding the perception of local residents regarding the impacts of tourism development on their communities and their views on participatory tourism planning.

To conduct these informal discussions, the research team engaged in conversation with approximately 15 of the participants and local business owners in Verón and Friusa during the same period of data collection. Each discussion took an average of 10 minutes. Some local residents who refused to take part in the survey questionnaire gladly agreed to participate in the anonymous informal discussions. These discussions, therefore, provided an opportunity for local residents to express their opinions without the restraints that often comes with a predetermined set of questions.

Data Analyses

To answer the research questions stated in Chapter 1 - Introduction - four major categories have been organized from the survey data including demographics, community attachment, support for tourism development, and willingness to participate in the planning process. The first step involves calculating of basic descriptive statistics of respondent demographics. The demographic information collected from respondents include age, gender, education level and other characteristics were analyzed in this step. No names or specific information that might reveal the identity of respondents were

collected in this section. For the purpose of this research, sections 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7 were not included in the analysis but might be used in future research. In addition, not all variables were included but only those the researcher considered necessary to answer the objectives of the research.

All the selected quantitative data was summarized, numerically coded and placed in an Excel spreadsheet. Subsequently, a number of data analyses were conducted using SPSS version 23 during April and May of 2016. Basic analysis such as frequencies and cross-tabulations were performed to determine the characteristics of local residents and to construct demographic profiles for the samples. To compare and contrast groups based on age, gender, levels of education, place of residence, the length of residency, and perceived reliance on the tourism industry a Chi-square was used. The purpose was to determine the difference in response between different demographic groups.

Summary

In summary, data for this research was collected during July and August of 2015 in the municipal district of Verón - Punta Cana located in the Province of la Altagracia, Dominican Republic. Tourism is clearly one of the most important sectors in several parts of the country especially the Province of La Altagracia. Most of the population growth in the province is the result of rapid tourism development. Included in this study are the communities of Juanillo, Verón, and Friusa which are adjacent to three of the most prominent tourist developments in la Altagracia. These include Cap Cana, Punta Cana, and Bavaro respectively.

To gather data for this study, 500 local residents were initially approached using a systematic random sample to complete a survey questionnaire. From the potential participants, only 200 successfully completed the survey. The data gathered through these surveys is analyzed using SPSS to generate demographic data, as well as to analyze and present information on residents' attitudes, community attachment, and willingness to participate in planning processes. Additionally, 15 local residents participated in informal discussions with the researcher with the purpose of gathering additional information and to complement the data obtained from the survey questionnaires. The results of the data analysis will be presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Results Overview

This chapter presents an overview of the methodology used to analyze the survey data. It includes the most important research findings as well as detailed discussions of such results. This chapter is comprised of five major categories including: (1) Demographics which contains the necessary information for constructing the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, (2) Perceptions Towards Tourism Development which reveals how participants perceive tourism development in general, (3) Attitudes Towards Local Participation which presents the results in regards to participants' attitudes towards local community participation during the tourism planning process, (4) Willingness to Participate which illustrates findings of participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning processes, and (5) Summary and Discussions which provides a summary of the results where the three major research questions are answered based on the research findings.

To eliminate redundancy, several questions or variables from the survey questionnaire were combined into three separate composite variables representing (1) participants' perceptions on tourism development, (2) participants' attitudes towards local community participation and (3) participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. To account for any explanatory factors associated with participants responses, these composite variables were analyzed across variables such as sex, age groups, levels of education, place of residence, the length of residency in the survey areas, and participants' perceived reliance on the tourism industry. The Pearson's

chi-square analysis has been used with an alpha value of .05 in order to determine the level of significance. Responses were grouped into three main groups consisting of a negative group, a moderate group, and a positive group. Participants with negative attitudes and perceptions are grouped into the negative group, while participants with positive attitudes and perceptions are grouped into the positive group. Participants with no attitude or perception are grouped in the neutral category. In addition, the Spearman's correlation analysis with an alpha value of .01 was used to determine the strength and significance of the relationship between participants' perceptions and attitudes and participants' willingness to participate.

Demographics

From a total of 200 participants included in this research 15 were from Juanillo, 121 from Verón, and 64 from Friusa representing 7.5%, 60.50% and 32% of the total sample respectively. Although Juanillo seems to be underrepresented in this research in comparison to Verón and Friusa, the sample adequately represents the total population of the village. This is due to fewer household units and the small total population of the site. The accessibility of local residents may have also played a role in the difference in sample size between the three study areas.

Age and Gender

The percentage of males and females is relatively well-distributed across all three study sites (Figure 9). The proportion of males, however, was slightly higher than that of females by 2 to 4% depending on the site. For instance, Friusa has 4% more male participants than female participants, followed by both Verón and Juanillo with 2.5% more male than female participants. Even though the general population in all three sites

was not predominantly males, men were more likely to participate in the study than female residents. Female residents were more likely to refuse to participate even after the inform consent document was explained. This may suggest that males, in general, are more interested in the topic of tourism planning and development than female residents.

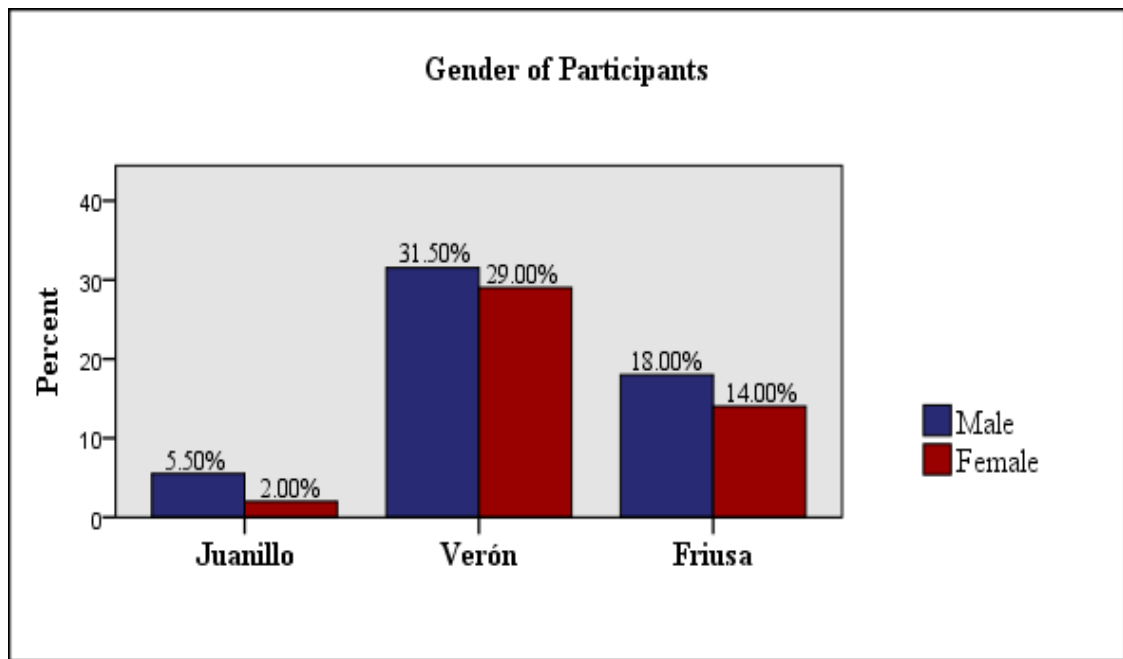


Figure 9: Gender of Participants by Study Area
Source: calculated by author

The minimum age of respondents was 18 years and the maximum age was 70. Young participants between the ages of 18 and 35 comprised a larger percentage than participants who are 36 years and older. Figure 10 illustrates the percentage of participants by age groups. The largest group is comprised of participants between 26 and 35 years of age (37%), followed by participants between 18 and 25 (31%). Adult participants between 36 and 45 years old form the third largest group in the total sample

(20%), followed by participants between 46 and 55 years (8%) and participants 56 years and older (4%).

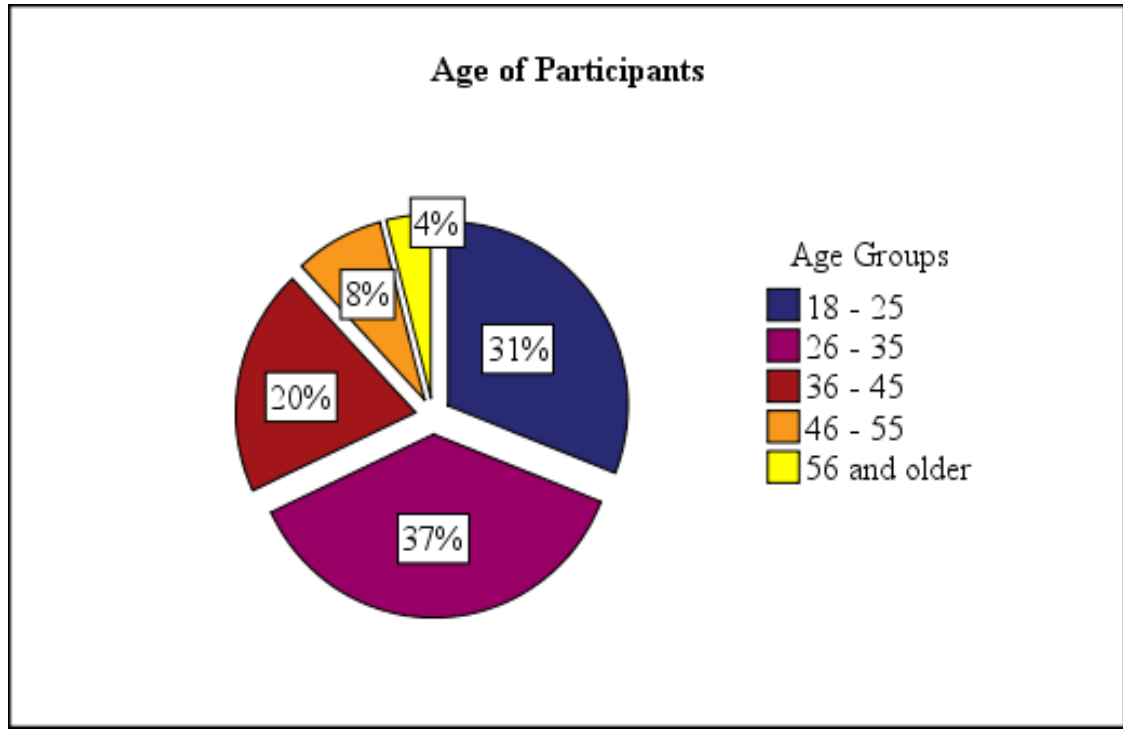


Figure 10. Age of Participants
Source: calculated by author

Participants' age groups differed significantly between the study sites (Table 1). For instance, the majority of participants in Verón were between the ages of 18 and 35 (73.6%) while fewer were 36 years of age and older (26.4%). Similarly, Juanillo was found to have a high representation of participants between the ages of 18 and 35 (73.3%). The oldest participant in Juanillo was 45 years of age. In contrast with Verón and Juanillo, the age group of participants in Friusa was more evenly distributed. Participants between the ages of 18 and 35 comprised 56.3% of the sample in Friusa while participants 36 and older comprised 43.8%.

Table 1.

Age Groups by Study Site

Age Groups	Study Site			Total	
	Juanillo	Verón	Friusa		
18 - 25 yrs.	Count	5	49	8	62
	%	33.3%	40.5%	12.5%	31.0%
26 - 35 yrs.	Count	6	40	28	74
	%	40.0%	33.1%	43.8%	37.0%
36 - 45 yrs.	Count	4	17	19	40
	%	26.7%	14.0%	29.7%	20.0%
46 - 55 yrs.	Count	0	11	5	16
	%	0.0%	9.1%	7.8%	8.0%
56 + yrs.	Count	0	4	4	8
	%	0.0%	3.3%	6.3%	4.0%
Total	Count	15	121	64	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: calculated by author

Level of Education

Table 2 illustrates the level of education of participants for each study site.

When asked for their highest level of education, 72.5% of participants reported having achieved a high school degree or lower while 25% of participants reported having a college degree or higher. Only 2.5% of participants reported having received no formal education. Verón had the highest percentage of participants with a college degree and higher (33.1%) followed by Friusa (15.7%). Juanillo, on the other hand, had no participants with a college degree and higher. Instead, it had the highest percentage of participants with a high school degree and lower (93.3%) followed by Friusa (82.8%) and Verón (64%). Lastly, all three study areas had low percentages of participants with no formal education. The higher percentage of college graduates in Verón can be

attributed to a better location, housing choices, amenities and overall standard of living when compared to Friusa and Juanillo.

Table 2.
Participants' Level of Education

Education Level		Study Site			Total
		Juanillo	Verón	Friusa	
Primary School	Count	6	18	10	34
	%	40.0%	14.9%	15.6%	17.0%
Secondary School	Count	2	20	16	38
	%	13.3%	16.5%	25.0%	19.0%
High School	Count	6	40	27	73
	%	40.0%	33.1%	42.2%	36.5%
College/University	Count	0	34	9	43
	%	0.0%	28.1%	14.1%	21.5%
Graduate School	Count	0	6	1	7
	%	0.0%	5.0%	1.6%	3.5%
No Education	Count	1	3	1	5
	%	6.7%	2.5%	1.6%	2.5%
Total	Count	15	121	64	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: calculated by author

Length of Residency

When asked about the length of residency within the study sites, 53% of the total number of participants said to have been living in their communities for 5 years or less, while 25.5% said to have been residents for 6 to 10 years. The remaining 21% have been residents for longer than 11 years (Table 3). Verón was the only site where participants reported a length of residency of 20 years and more, whereas in Friusa the longest length of residency reported was less than 20 years. Residents in Juanillo had a maximum length of residency of 10 years. This is because residents of Juanillo

relocated to their current site about a decade ago. In fact, most of the participants from Juanillo reported a total residency of 5 years and less (86.7%).

Table 3.

Length of Residency

Length of Residency		Study Site			Total
		Juanillo	Verón	Friusa	
1 - 5 years	Count	13	63	31	107
	%	86.7%	52.1%	48.4%	53.5%
6 - 10 years	Count	2	31	18	51
	%	13.3%	25.6%	28.1%	25.5%
11 - 15 years	Count	0	12	8	20
	%	0.0%	9.9%	12.5%	10.0%
16 - 20 years	Count	0	5	7	12
	%	0.0%	4.1%	10.9%	6.0%
21 + years	Count	0	10	0	10
	%	0.0%	8.3%	0.0%	5.0%
Total	Count	15	121	64	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: calculated by author

Percentage of Tourism-Related Jobs

Participants were also asked about their jobs and whether or not they perceived them to be dependent on the tourism industry. If participants perceived their jobs to be dependent on the industry either directly or indirectly (i.e. tour guide, hotel receptionist, janitor, and farmer) they were asked to mark "Yes." On the other hand, if they perceived their jobs to be independent in the tourism industry they were asked to mark "No."

Figure 11 illustrates the percentage of both groups for each of the study sites. In general, 60% of participants perceived their jobs to be dependent on the tourism industry while 40% perceived their jobs to be independent of the industry. The percentage of

participants dependent on the tourism industry for both Verón and Juanillo was significantly greater than those who do not depend on the industry. In contrast, the percentage of participants in Friusa for the two groups was relatively close.

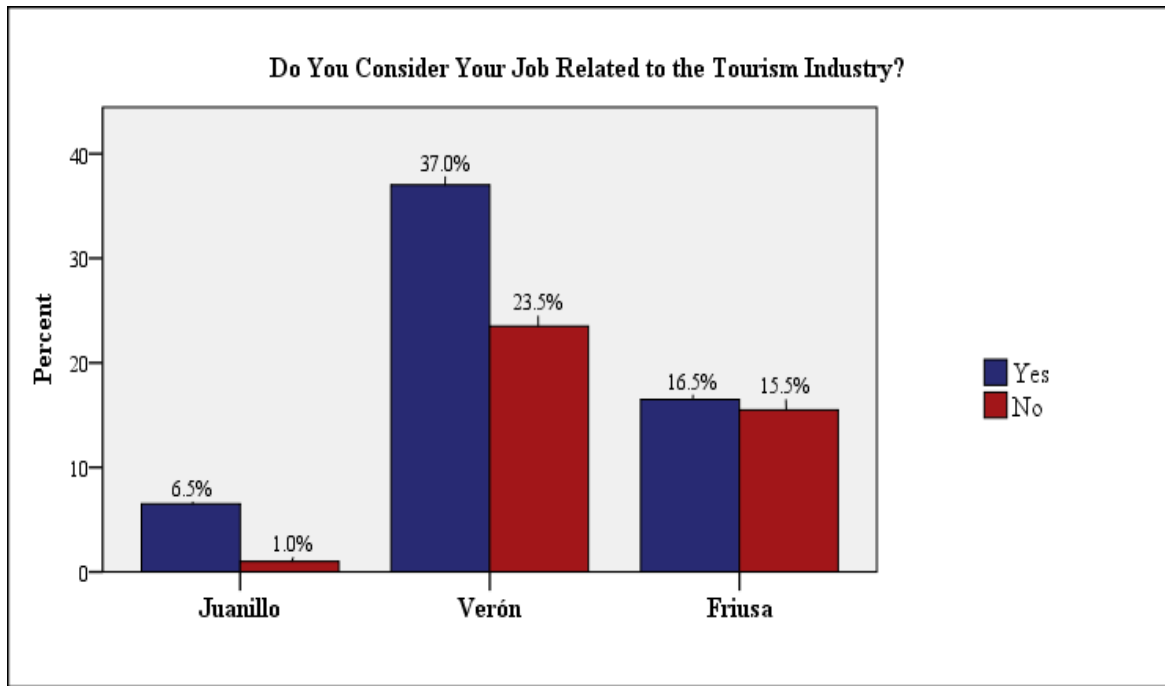


Figure 11. Percentage of Tourism-Dependent Jobs by Community.
Source: calculated by author

Perceptions of Tourism Development

Questions measuring participants' perceptions of tourism development from Section 8 - Your Opinions on Tourism Development - from the survey questionnaire were aggregated into a single composite variable (see Appendix A). Table 4 shows the results of the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) analysis and the p-value for the perception of tourism development across the three study sites. Results show a significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 12.190$, $d.f. = 4$, $p = 0.016$). In other words, the location of residence does influence how participants perceive tourism development. While more than half of participants in Verón and Friusa perceive tourism development positively,

participants in Juanillo are more likely to have moderate perceptions of tourism development.

Table 4.

Perceptions of Tourism Development by Community

Perceptions of Tourism Development		Study Site			Total
		Juanillo	Verón	Friusa	
Negative	Count	4	7	7	18
	%	26.7%	5.8%	10.9%	9.0%
Moderate	Count	8	50	20	78
	%	53.3%	41.3%	31.3%	39.0%
Positive	Count	3	64	37	104
	%	20.0%	52.9%	57.8%	52.0%
Total	Count	15	121	64	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		12.190	4	.016	

Source: calculated by author

Table 5 illustrates the results of the Chi-square (χ^2) analysis and the p-value for the perceptions of tourism development by gender. Results show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 1.178$, *d.f.* = 2, *p* = 0.555). Therefore, the gender of participants does not influence their perceptions towards tourism development. More than half of males and females viewed tourism development positively with 51.8% and 52.2% respectively. The analysis showed no significant relationship within the study sites. Both groups were shown with similar percentages for each of the three areas.

Table 5.

Perceptions of Tourism Development by Gender

Perceptions of Tourism Development		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Negative	Count	12	6	18
	%	10.9%	6.7%	9.0%
Moderate	Count	41	37	78
	%	37.3%	41.1%	39.0%
Positive	Count	57	47	104
	%	51.8%	52.2%	52.0%
Total	Count	110	90	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value
		1.178	2	.555

Source: calculated by author

The results of the Chi-square (χ^2) analysis and the p-value for the perceptions of participants and age groups are shown in Table 6. Results show no significant relationship between the variables ($\chi^2 = 6.573$ *d.f.* = 8, $p = 0.583$). In other words, participants' perceptions of tourism development are not influenced by age categories. Participants older than 46 had slightly lower perceptions of tourism development. However, these differences were not found to be significant. No significant relationship was found between the two variables in any of the study sites.

Table 6.

Perceptions of Tourism Development by Age Groups

Age Groups		Perceptions of T. D.			Total
		Negative	Moderate	Positive	
18 - 25 yrs.	Count	4	26	32	62
	%	6.5%	41.9%	51.6%	100.0%
26 - 35 yrs.	Count	6	26	42	74
	%	8.1%	35.1%	56.8%	100.0%
36 - 45 yrs.	Count	5	14	21	40
	%	12.5%	35.0%	52.5%	100.0%
46 - 55 yrs.	Count	3	7	6	16
	%	18.8%	43.8%	37.5%	100.0%
56 + yrs.	Count	0	5	3	8
	%	0.0%	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
Total	Count	18	78	104	200
	%	9.0%	39.0%	52.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		6.573	8	.583	

Source: calculated by author

Table 7 shows the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) and the p-value for participants' perceptions of tourism development across education level. Results show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 8.038$, *d.f.* = 10, *p* = 0.625). The participants' level of education does not influence their perceptions of tourism development. The majority of the participants were found to have moderate to positive perceptions regardless of their educational attainment. Similarly, the χ^2 analysis found no significant relationship between the variables in any of the study sites.

Table 7.

Perceptions of Tourism Development by Education Level

Education Level		Perceptions of T. D.			Total
		Negative	Moderate	Positive	
Primary School	Count	2	14	18	34
	%	5.9%	41.2%	52.9%	100.0%
Secondary School	Count	4	14	20	38
	%	10.5%	36.8%	52.6%	100.0%
High School	Count	6	30	37	73
	%	8.2%	41.1%	50.7%	100.0%
College/University	Count	3	18	22	43
	%	7.0%	41.9%	51.2%	100.0%
Graduate School	Count	2	0	5	7
	%	28.6%	0.0%	71.4%	100.0%
No Formal Education	Count	1	2	2	5
	%	20.0%	40.0%	40.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	18	78	104	200
	%	9.0%	39.0%	52.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	d.f.	P-value	
		8.038	10	.625	

Source: calculated by author

The results for the perceptions of tourism development and participants' length of residency are shown in Table 8. The Chi-square (χ^2) result and the p-value show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 5.498$, $d.f. = 8$, $p = 0.703$).

Therefore, the length of residency of participants does not influence their perceptions of tourism development. The majority of participants had moderate to positive perceptions of tourism development regardless of their time spent in the study areas. However, the χ^2 analysis found a significant relationship between the two variables in Juanillo ($\chi^2 = 6.346$, $d.f. = 2$, $p = 0.042$). Participants in Juanillo with a length of residency longer than 6 years perceive tourism development negatively.

Table 8.

Perceptions of Tourism Development by Length of Residence

Length of Residency		Perceptions of T. D.			Total
		Negative	Moderate	Positive	
1 - 5 years	Count	10	48	49	107
	%	9.3%	44.9%	45.8%	100.0%
6 - 10 years	Count	5	17	29	51
	%	9.8%	33.3%	56.9%	100.0%
11 - 15 years	Count	1	8	11	20
	%	5.0%	40.0%	55.0%	100.0%
16 - 20 years	Count	1	3	8	12
	%	8.3%	25.0%	66.7%	100.0%
21 + years	Count	1	2	7	10
	%	10.0%	20.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	18	78	104	200
	%	9.0%	39.0%	52.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		5.498	8	.703	

Source: calculated by author

The Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) results and the p-value for the analysis between participants' perceptions of tourism development and the percentage of tourism-dependent jobs are shown in Table 9. The results show no significant relationship between the variables ($\chi^2 = 1.767$, *d.f.* = 2, *p* = 0.413). In other words, participants' perceive dependency on the industry does not determine their perception of tourism development. The analysis also found no significant relationship between the two variables within the study sites. Both groups share similar percentage distributions as seen in Table 9. Those who perceived their jobs to be dependent on the industry have slightly higher positive perceptions than those who do not.

Table 9.

Perceptions of Tourism Development by Tourism-Related Jobs

Perceptions of Tourism Development		Tourism-Related Jobs		Total
		Yes	No	
Negative	Count	10	8	18
	%	8.3%	10.0%	9.0%
Moderate	Count	43	35	78
	%	35.8%	43.8%	39.0%
Positive	Count	67	37	104
	%	55.8%	46.3%	52.0%
Total	Count	120	80	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value
		1.767	2	.413

Source: calculated by author

Attitudes towards Local Community Participation

A second composite variable was calculated to represent the general attitudes of participants towards local community participation in the tourism planning process. The questions used to form the composite come from Section 9 - Participatory Tourism Planning - of the survey instrument (see Appendix A). The Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) and the p-value for participants' attitudes towards local community participation and participants' place of residence are shown in Table 10. The statistical results show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 3.502$, *d.f.* = 4, $p = 0.478$). In other words, the majority of participants viewed participatory tourism planning positively regardless of their place of residence.

Table 10.

Attitudes towards Local Participation by Study Site

Attitudes towards Local Participation		Study Site			Total
		Juanillo	Verón	Friusa	
Negative	Count	1	13	2	16
	%	6.7%	10.7%	3.1%	8.0%
Moderate	Count	5	33	19	57
	%	33.3%	27.3%	29.7%	28.5%
Positive	Count	9	75	43	127
	%	60.0%	62.0%	67.2%	63.5%
Total	Count	15	121	64	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		3.502	4	0.478	

Source: calculated by author

The Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) results and the p-value for participants' attitudes towards local community participation and gender are shown in Table 11. Results show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 0.312$, *d.f.* = 4, *p* = 0.856). Therefore, gender does not influence participants' attitudes towards local community participation. Both males and females were likely to view local community participation positively. The analysis also found no significant relationship between the two variables in any of the study sites. In Friusa and Juanillo female participants were more likely to view local community participation positively when compared to male participants (75% vs. 61.1% and 75% vs. 54.5% respectively). However, results were not statistically significant.

Table 11.

Attitudes towards Local Participation by Gender

Attitudes towards Local Participation		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Negative	Count	9	7	16
	%	8.2%	7.8%	8.0%
Moderate	Count	33	24	57
	%	30.0%	26.7%	28.5%
Positive	Count	68	59	127
	%	61.8%	65.6%	63.5%
Total	Count	110	90	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value
		.312	2	.856

Source: calculated by author

The Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) results and p-value of participants' attitudes towards local community participation and participants' age groups show no significant relationship ($\chi^2 = 14.875$, *d.f.* = 8, *p* = 0.062). As seen in Table 12, the majority of participants viewed local community participation positively regardless of their age group. Participants between the ages of 18 and 25 were less likely to view local participation positively when compared to older age groups. They also had a higher moderate percentage. These results, however, were not statistically significant. Within the three study sites, the 18 - 25 age category also had slightly less positive attitudes towards local community participation.

Table 12.

Attitudes towards Local Participation by Age Groups

Age Groups		Attitudes towards L. P.			Total
		Negative	Moderate	Positive	
18 - 25 yrs.	Count	5	27	30	62
	%	8.1%	43.5%	48.4%	100.0%
26 - 35 yrs.	Count	6	18	50	74
	%	8.1%	24.3%	67.6%	100.0%
36 - 45 yrs.	Count	2	7	31	40
	%	5.0%	17.5%	77.5%	100.0%
46 - 55 yrs.	Count	3	3	10	16
	%	18.8%	18.8%	62.5%	100.0%
56 + yrs.	Count	0	2	6	8
	%	0.0%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	16	57	127	200
	%	8.0%	28.5%	63.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		14.875	8	.062	

Source: calculated by author

In regards to participants' attitudes towards local community participation and participants' level of education, the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) result and the p-value show no significant relationship ($\chi^2 = 7.474$, *d.f.* = 10, *p* = 0.680). Therefore, the level of education of participants does not influence their attitudes towards participatory tourism planning. As seen in Table 13, the majority of participants viewed local community participation positively regardless of their educational attainment. The analysis also does not show any significant relationship between the two variables in any of the study sites.

Table 13.

Attitudes towards Community Participation by Education Level.

Education Level		Attitudes towards C. P.			Total
		Negative	Moderate	Positive	
Primary School	Count	4	8	22	34
	%	11.8%	23.5%	64.7%	100.0%
Secondary School	Count	5	11	22	38
	%	13.2%	28.9%	57.9%	100.0%
High School	Count	4	21	48	73
	%	5.5%	28.8%	65.8%	100.0%
College/University	Count	1	14	28	43
	%	2.3%	32.6%	65.1%	100.0%
Graduate School	Count	1	1	5	7
	%	14.3%	14.3%	71.4%	100.0%
No Formal Education	Count	1	2	2	5
	%	20.0%	40.0%	40.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	16	57	127	200
	%	8.0%	28.5%	63.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		7.474	10	.680	

Source: calculated by author

Table 14 illustrates the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) and the p-value for the participants' attitudes towards local community participation and participants' length of residency. The results show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 11.909$, *d.f.* = 8, *p* = 0.155). The majority of participants viewed local community participation positively regardless of the number of years spent in their communities. Participants who have been living in the area for more than 5 years view local community participation slightly more positive than those who have been living in the region for 5 years or less. Also, no significant relationship was found between the variables in any of the study sites.

Table 14.

Attitudes towards Local Participation by Length of Residency

Length of Residency		Attitudes towards L. P.			Total
		Negative	Moderate	Positive	
1 - 5 years	Count	12	37	58	107
	%	11.2%	34.6%	54.2%	100.0%
6 - 10 years	Count	2	11	38	51
	%	3.9%	21.6%	74.5%	100.0%
11 - 15 years	Count	1	6	13	20
	%	5.0%	30.0%	65.0%	100.0%
16 - 20 years	Count	0	1	11	12
	%	0.0%	8.3%	91.7%	100.0%
21 + years	Count	1	2	7	10
	%	10.0%	20.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	16	57	127	200
	%	8.0%	28.5%	63.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		11.909	8	.115	

Source: calculated by author

The Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) result and the p-value for participants' views on local community participation and participants perceived job dependency on the tourism industry can be seen in Table 15. The results show no significant relationship between these two variables ($\chi^2 = 0.46$, *d.f.* = 2, *p* = 0.977). Most participants viewed local community participation positively regardless of their perceived economic dependence on the tourism industry. The analysis found no significant relationship between the two variables in any of the study sites.

Table 15.

Attitudes towards Local Participation by Tourism-Related Jobs

Attitudes towards Local Participation		Tourism-Related Jobs		Total
		Yes	No	
Negative	Count	10	6	16
	%	8.3%	7.5%	8.0%
Moderate	Count	34	23	57
	%	28.3%	28.7%	28.5%
Positive	Count	76	51	127
	%	63.3%	63.7%	63.5%
Total	Count	120	80	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value
		.46	2	.977

Source: calculated by author

Current Local Community Involvement

The last question of the survey questionnaire asked participants to rate the current participation of local residents during tourism planning processes (See Appendix A). Figure 12 illustrates the responses' percentage of participants across the three study sites. Overall, more than half of all participants (58.5%) viewed local community participation poorly, while 16% viewed current participation positively. Participants in Juanillo were more likely to perceive a lack of community participation (80%) in comparison to participants in Verón (50.4%) and Friusa (68.8%). The majority of participants also reported a poor level of local community participation during tourism planning processes regardless of demographic factors in all three study sites.

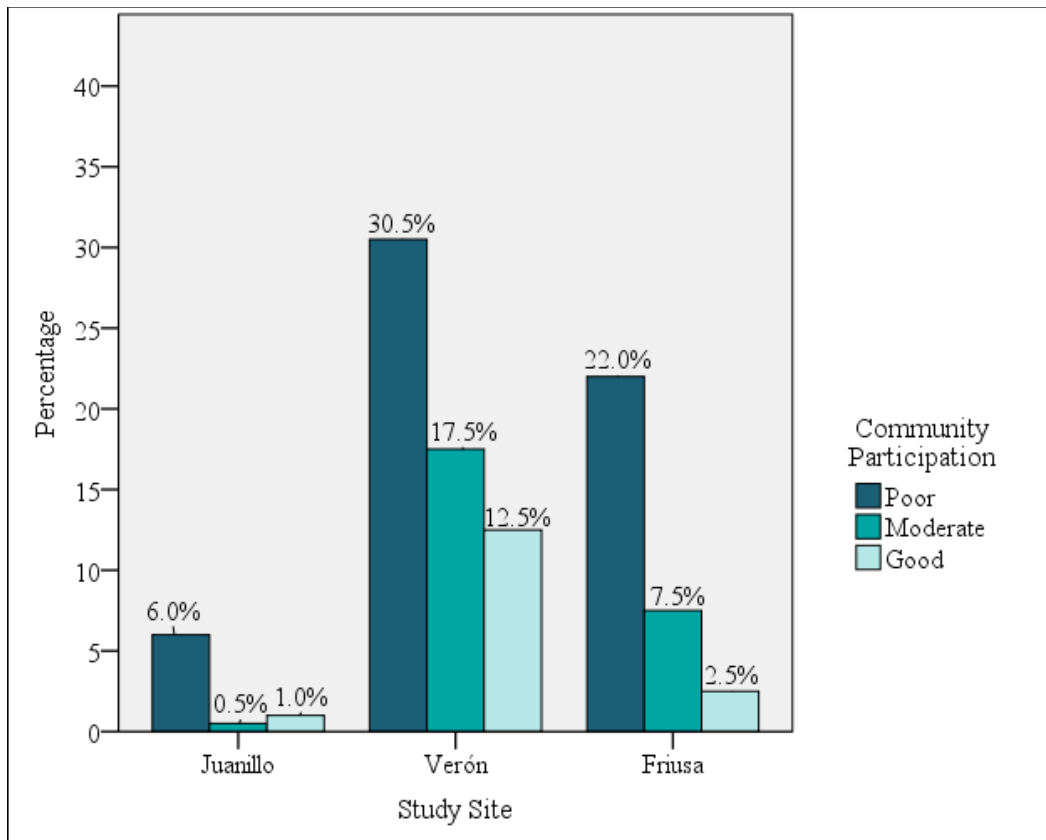


Figure 12. Perceived Local Community Participation across Study Site.
Source: calculated by author

Willingness to Participate

The third composite variable was also computed from questions in Section 9 of the survey questionnaire measuring participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process (see Appendix A). Table 16 shows the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) result and the p-value for participants' willingness to participate and participants' place of residence. The results show a significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 26.337$, $d.f. = 4$, $p = .0001$). In other words, the place of residence of participants does influence their willingness to participate in the tourism planning processes. The majority of participants in Friusa reported being willing to participate in the tourism planning process (64.1%) in contrast to 43.8% of participants in Verón. In Juanillo no

participant showed a willingness to participate which could be the result of past experiences with tourism development.

Table 16.

Willingness to Participate by Study Site

Willingness to Participate		Study Site			Total
		Juanillo	Verón	Friusa	
Low	Count	5	8	4	17
	%	33.3%	6.6%	6.3%	8.5%
Moderate	Count	10	53	19	82
	%	66.7%	43.8%	29.7%	41.0%
High	Count	0	60	41	101
	%	0.0%	49.6%	64.1%	50.5%
Total	Count	15	121	64	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		26.337	4	.0001	

Source: calculated by author

Table 17 illustrates the results of the Chi-square (χ^2) analysis and the p-value of participants' willingness to participate and participants' gender. The outcome show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 1.678$, *d.f.* = 2, $p = 0.432$). Therefore, the gender of participants does not influence their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. Both male and female participants had moderate to high willingness to participate. The analysis also found no significant relationship between the variables for any of the study sites.

Table 17.

Willingness to Participate by Gender

Willingness to Participate		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Low	Count	10	7	17
	%	9.1%	7.8%	8.5%
Moderate	Count	49	33	82
	%	44.5%	36.7%	41.0%
High	Count	51	50	101
	%	46.4%	55.6%	50.5%
Total	Count	110	90	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value
		1.678	2	.432

Source: calculated by author

The results from the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) analysis and the p-value for participants' willingness to participate and participants' age groups are shown in Table 18. These results show no significant relationship between the variables ($\chi^2 = 10.573$, $d.f. = 8$, $p = 0.227$). Therefore, participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process is not influenced by age categories. Participants between the ages of 18 and 25 seem to be less interested in participating when compared to older participants. The same pattern was found in each of the study sites. These differences, however, were not statistically significant.

Table 18.

Willingness to Participate by Age Groups

Age Groups		Willingness to Participate			Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
18 - 25 yrs.	Count	9	28	25	62
	%	14.5%	45.2%	40.3%	100.0%
26 - 35 yrs.	Count	3	31	40	74
	%	4.1%	41.9%	54.1%	100.0%
36 - 45 yrs.	Count	4	17	19	40
	%	10.0%	42.5%	47.5%	100.0%
46 - 55 yrs.	Count	1	4	11	16
	%	6.3%	25.0%	68.8%	100.0%
56 + yrs.	Count	0	2	6	8
	%	0.0%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	17	82	101	200
	%	8.5%	41.0%	50.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		10.573	8	.227	

Source: calculated by author

Table 19 illustrates the results regarding participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process and participants' education level. The Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) and the p-value show no significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2 = 16.793$, *d.f.* = 10, *p* = 0.079). Therefore, the level of education of participants does not influence their willingness to participate in the planning process. In addition, the analysis did not find any significant relationship between the two variables within the three study sites.

Table 19.

Willingness to Participate by Education Level

Education Level		Willingness to Participate			Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
Primary School	Count	2	18	14	34
	%	5.9%	52.9%	41.2%	100.0%
Secondary School	Count	3	21	14	38
	%	7.9%	55.3%	36.8%	100.0%
High School	Count	9	19	45	73
	%	12.3%	26.0%	61.6%	100.0%
College/University	Count	2	21	20	43
	%	4.7%	48.8%	46.5%	100.0%
Graduate School	Count	0	2	5	7
	%	0.0%	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
No Formal Education	Count	1	1	3	5
	%	20.0%	20.0%	60.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	17	82	101	200
	%	8.5%	41.0%	50.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		16.793	10	.079	

Source: calculated by author

Table 20 illustrates the Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) result and the p-value for participants' willingness to participate and participants' length of residency. The results show no significant relationship between the two variable ($\chi^2 = 13.241$, *d.f.* = 8, *p* = 0.104). In other words, the time spent on the sites does not influence participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. The analysis also found no significant relationship between the two variables in any of the study areas.

Table 20.

Willingness to Participate by Length of Residency

Length of Residency		Willingness to Participate			Total
		Low	Moderate	High	
1 - 5 years	Count	10	50	47	107
	%	9.3%	46.7%	43.9%	100.0%
6 - 10 years	Count	3	20	28	51
	%	5.9%	39.2%	54.9%	100.0%
11 - 15 years	Count	3	3	14	20
	%	15.0%	15.0%	70.0%	100.0%
16 - 20 years	Count	0	3	9	12
	%	0.0%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
21 + years	Count	1	6	3	10
	%	10.0%	60.0%	30.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	17	82	101	200
	%	8.5%	41.0%	50.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	P-value	
		13.241	8	.104	

Source: calculated by author

The Chi-square (χ^2) result and the p-value of participants' willingness to participate and participants' tourism-dependent jobs are shown in Table 21. The results indicate no significant relationship between the variables ($\chi^2 = 5.730$, *d.f.* = 2, *p* = 0.057). Participants' perceived economic dependency on the industry does not influence their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. No significant relationship was found in Juanillo and Friusa between the two variables. In Verón, however, results show a significant relationship ($\chi^2 = 8.677$, *d.f.* = 2, *p* = 0.013). Participants who depend economically on the tourism industry were more likely to be willing to participate (56.8%) than those who do not (38.3%). Nearly 60% of

participants who do not depend economically on the tourism industry had a moderate willingness to participate.

Table 21.

Willingness to Participate by Tourism-Related Jobs

Willingness to Participate		Tourism-Related Jobs		Total
		Yes	No	
Low	Count	14	3	17
	%	11.7%	3.8%	8.5%
Moderate	Count	43	39	82
	%	35.8%	48.8%	41.0%
High	Count	63	38	101
	%	52.5%	47.5%	50.5%
Total	Count	120	80	200
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square Test		χ^2	<i>d.f.</i>	<i>p-value</i>
		5.730	2	.057

Source: calculated by author

Relationship between Participants' Attitudes and Perceptions and Participants' Willingness to Participate.

A Spearman's correlation analysis was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships between participants' attitudes and perceptions and participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. Coefficients between .10 and .29 represent a small association, coefficients between .30 and .49 represent a moderate association and coefficients above .50 indicate a large association. A Spearman correlation requires that the relationship between each pair of variables is monotonic, meaning it does not change directions. As seen in Table 22, the analysis' output indicates a significant moderate correlation between participants' perception of tourism development and participants' willingness to participate ($r = 0.422, p < 0.01$). This

suggests that residents who have positive perceptions of tourism development are more likely to be willing to participate than residents who have a moderate to low perceptions of tourism development (Figure 13).

Table 22.

PTD and WTP - Spearman's Rho

		WTP	PTD
WTP	Correlation coefficient	1.000	.422**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	200	200
PTD	Correlation coefficient	.422**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	200	200

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: calculated by author

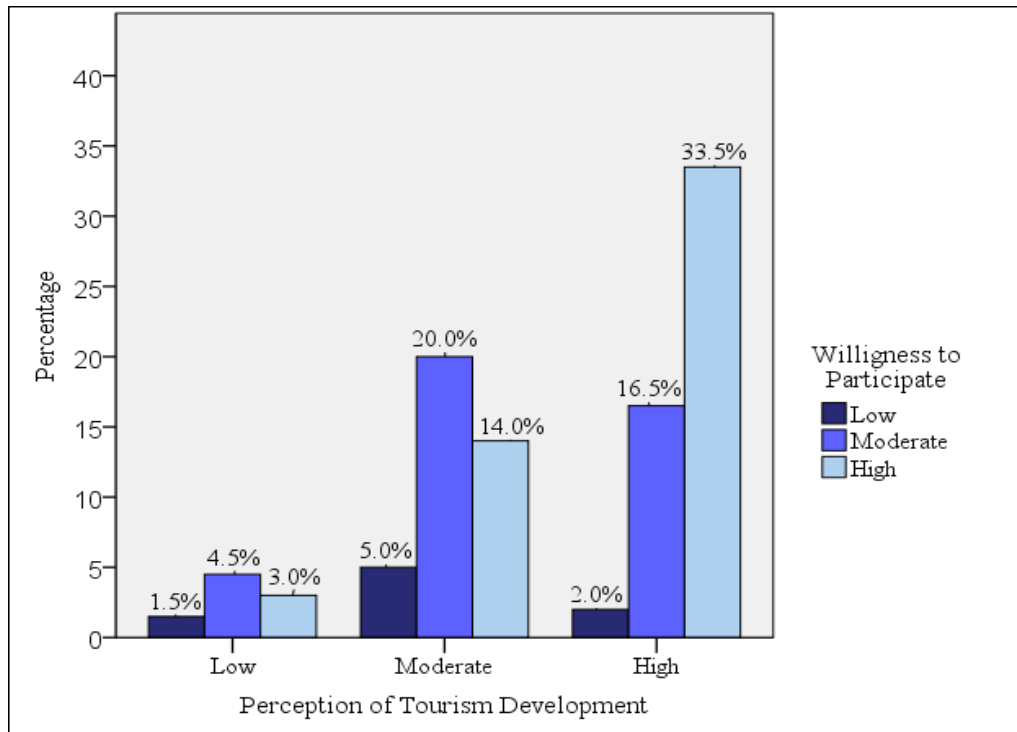


Figure 13. Perception of Tourism Development and Willingness to Participate

Source: calculated by author

Table 23 illustrates the output for the Spearman's correlation analysis between participants' attitudes towards local participation and participants' willingness to participate. Results illustrate a large significant correlation between the variables ($r = 0.560$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that residents who have positive attitudes towards local community participation are more likely to be willing to participate in the tourism planning process, whereas residents who have moderate to low perceptions of local participation are less likely to be willing to participate in the tourism planning process (Figure 14). In other words, participants are more likely to participate in the planning process when they view their participation as a crucial component of such process. If they view their participation negatively or not as important, they are more likely to refuse to participate in the planning process.

Table 23.

ATLP and WTP - Spearman's Rho

		WTP	ATLP
WTP	Correlation coefficient	1.000	.559**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	200	200
ATLP	Correlation coefficient	.559**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	200	200

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: calculated by author

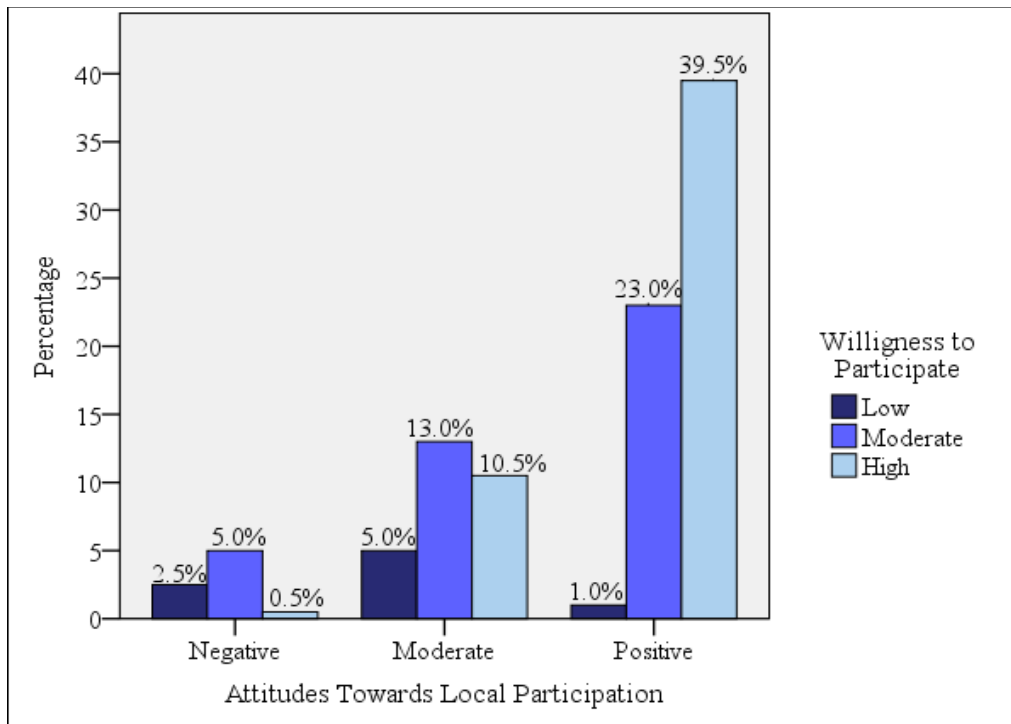


Figure 14. Attitudes towards Local Participation and Willingness to Participate.
Source: calculated by author

Summary and Discussions

Based on demographic data, the total number of participants is dominated by male residents between 18 and 35 years of age. Most of them completed high school or fewer years of formal education. Demographic data also revealed that most participants have been residing in the study areas from 1 to 5 years particularly participants in Juanillo (86.7%). Most participants also perceived their work to be related to the tourism industry either directly or indirectly. During informal discussions, several respondents, particularly in Verón and Friusa, said they migrated to the region in search for a job. Fewer participants indicated to have migrated to the area based on leisure or educational purposes.

The following sections seek to answer the three research questions posed by this study based on the results presented in this chapter. In other words, these sections seek to discuss the overall findings regarding participants' perception of tourism development, their attitudes towards local community participation and their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process, as well as the independent factors associated with them. They also include information and quotes from participants to provide with further understanding of the research findings.

Research Question 1

The first objective of this study was to understand the overall perception of local residents regarding the adjacent tourism development. To represent such perceptions, a composite variable was calculated from questions measuring the views of participants in regards to tourism development. The composite variable called (1) Participants' Perceptions of Tourism Development was analyzed against several independent variables to understand which factors may influence such perceptions. Overall, results show that more than half of all participants perceived tourism development positively (52%), followed by participants with moderate perceptions (39%) and participants with negative perceptions of tourism development (9.0%).

The most important difference in responses was found among the participants' place of residence. Participants in Juanillo were more likely to have moderate to negative perceptions of tourism development, whereas participants in Verón and Friusa were more likely to have positive perceptions. The difference in perceptions could be the result of past experiences with tourism development. For instance, residents of Juanillo were previously displaced by the development complex Cap Cana which consists of a real estate, a marina, hotels and a golf course. As a result, local residents

were relocated 8 kilometers inland and were left without livelihoods. Senior residents in Juanillo were also displaced during the 1970s due to the construction of the Punta Cana international airport (León, 2010). On the other hand, Verón and Friusa grew and continue to grow as result of the increasing demand for tourism workers most of which come from within La Altagracia, other parts of the country and Haiti.

Age and gender did not have significant roles in determining participants' perceptions of tourism development. Both genders showed large positive perceptions and only slight variations were found between age groups even though results were not significant. Participants older than 46 years old were also underrepresented in the study, thus making conclusions difficult to establish. Similarly, participants' perceptions of tourism development are not influenced by participants' level of education, the length of residency, or tourism economic dependency.

Written comments in the questionnaires, as well as casual conversations with participants, helped to gather additional information on tourism development perceptions. The majority of respondents seemed to understand the benefits and economic implications of the tourism industry for the region. However, many of them expressed disappointment with the disengagement of local communities in the tourism industry. They pointed out the negligence and lack of community support from both the industry and local authorities. In Friusa the majority of participants pointed out the lack of schools, hospitals, burial grounds, green areas, paved streets, and sports facilities such as baseball fields which are held in most communities across the country. They also complained about the lack of recycling bins and the poor waste management.

Another major concern for some participants was the lack of safety in their neighborhoods. One participant stated: "we need more security, the police department should send more police officers to patrol the area." Another participant stated: "many of our communities are not safe and local authorities need to work towards improving safety. Otherwise, visitors might be reluctant to venture beyond tourist facilities." While visitors remain safe within the resort facilities due to the private security they offer, residents seem to struggle with the lack of safety and uncertainty due to lack of policing around the local neighborhoods. This is, perhaps, one of the main factors contributing to a lack of interaction between local residents and visitors in the region.

Research Question 2

The second research objective sought to understand how local community participation is viewed among local residents, which is often a new concept in areas where tourism planning is not inclusive and which is hardly ever discussed in the tourism planning literature. To achieve this goal, several variables measuring participants' attitudes towards local participation were calculated into a single composite variable and analyzed across a series of socio-demographic variables. The second objective also sought to understand whether local residents are consulted or incorporated during the planning process for the adjacent tourism development.

This study suggests that local communities are not being involved in existing planning and development practices. The last question of the survey asked participants to rate the overall consultation and involvement of local communities during tourism planning and processes related to the adjacent tourism development. Nearly 60% of all participants indicated a belief in a lack of community participation and only 16% indicated inclusive efforts for community participation. Among all participants, those in

Juanillo and Friusa were more likely to perceive a lack of community participation than participants in Verón.

The results also show that the majority of participants had positive views on local community participation (63.5%). Only 8% of the total sample viewed local participation negatively and 28.5% had a moderate attitude towards local community participation. The Chi-square (χ^2) analysis did not find any difference in response between the study sites. Residents in all three areas were likely to view local participation positively with Friusa having the largest percentage (67.2%) and Juanillo the lowest (60%). Age and gender do not influence participants' attitudes and only small variations were observed between the groups. However, these variations did not prove to be significant. The analysis also found no significant relationship between participants' attitudes and participants' level of education, the length of residency, or economic dependence on the tourism industry.

Throughout informal discussions, participants expressed their desire for more community participation in the future. Many of them agreed with the importance of involving local communities during all stages of the tourism planning process. They also agreed with the need for more local tourist activities and community-based initiatives that could also benefit the local population. One participant stated: "I think our communities can help in offering activities and services for tourists and in doing so, we can help to improve cultural awareness and show the hospitality of the Dominican people." Another participant stated: "tourism has great potential for economic development in the region. However, our communities are currently excluded from the tourism industry. If we were more involved, our communities could better develop economically and be perceived positively."

Furthermore, incorporating community participation within the tourism planning process has its limitations. For instance, current planning practices are not inclusive and tourism planners and developers are not required to consult or incorporate local residents in the process. Therefore, developers and investors may often take advantage of the lack of planning rules and regulations in the region. One participant stated: "community participation in the tourism industry may be difficult to implement since developers focus mostly on their own interests." Another participant stated: "I think local communities should have more participation in the tourism planning process, and advocate for ways in which everyone, including local communities, can benefit."

Research Question 3

The final research objective sought to understand participants' willingness to participate if a participatory tourism planning is put together in the future, as well as to understand the socio-demographic factors that may influence such willingness. It also sought to understand the association between residents' perceptions of tourism development and attitudes towards participatory planning and residents' willingness to participate. Overall, the study shows that slightly over half of all participants (50.5%) were willing to participate, 8.5% were unwilling, and the remaining 41% of participants had a moderate willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. Participants' place of residence played a significant role on residents' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. Participants in Juanillo were less likely to be willing to participate, whereas participants in Friusa were more likely. In Verón, the majority of responses were divided between the moderate and positive response groups. The study also shows that participants who viewed tourism development positively or had positive

attitudes towards local community participation were more likely to be willing to participate in the tourism planning process.

The study found no significant relationship between participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process and socio-demographic variables. Both male and female participants share equal views across all three study sites. The analysis also found no significant relationship between participants' willingness to participate and participants' age groups, the level of education, the length of residency or tourism-dependent jobs. However, participants in Verón who depend economically on the tourism industry were more likely to be willing to participate than participants who do not. Since the analysis did not find a significant relationship in Friusa and Juanillo between these two variables, more research is needed in this regard to understand if there is a difference in response between the two groups.

Informal conversations with participants did not reveal much information regarding participants' willingness to participate in the tourism planning process. However, a small number of respondents said there have not been major efforts to reach out to local residents for tourism planning meetings or consultation of tourism projects. When asked if they knew any local tourism organizations or tourism-related activities, a few participants said that there was a lack of information and advertising by such entities. They also said that it was the first time they were approached by someone to ask them questions related to tourism development, local community participation and their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

Tourism development has long been regarded as one of the primary tools for economic advancement in developing nations such as the Dominican Republic. However, if not planned properly, these efforts can result in harmful environmental, social and economic consequences which are often borne by the local population. Therefore, various scholars suggest that careful planning is necessary to maximize the benefits of tourism development while minimizing its negative effects. As seen in Chapter 2, the tourism literature regards the involvement of local community members as one of the most important elements in the tourism planning process. To create policies and development that are more economically, environmentally and socially sustainable, it is important to include all stakeholder groups in the tourism planning process so that they can lobby on their own behalf during the making of decisions that affect them. Therefore, local communities would not only have the opportunity to lobby on their own behalf but also become active partners and take particular stakes in specific projects and present less resistance to new plans and ideas. Local communities can also provide new and creative ideas that can result in more successful commercial activities.

This research upholds important findings for the tourism literature and the tourism planning literature in particular. There have been previous studies focused on local residents' perceptions of tourism development, the involvement of local communities throughout the planning process and limiting factors to community participation. However, few studies have examined residents' attitudes towards local community participation as well as participants' willingness to participate in the tourism

planning process. Before this research little evidence on the attitudes of local communities regarding the tourism planning process and their willingness to participate was known (Muganda, et. al, 2013). This research not only reinforces the importance of local community involvement emphasized by previous researchers but also provides empirical evidence for the attitudes and perceptions as well as willingness to participate of local residents.

It is important to acknowledge not only communities' perceptions of tourism development but also the various factors that may influence such perception such as economic dependence on the tourism industry, existing relationships between local communities and the tourism industry, length of residency and other socio-demographic variables. This research demonstrates that the location of residence of participants plays a significant role in determining participants' perceptions of tourism development since existing relations with the industry vary across communities. On the other hand, the research found no significant relationship between participants' perception of tourism development and economic dependency, the length of stay or any other demographic variables. This goes in accordance with the study carried out by Purdue et al. (1990) and McGehee & Andereck (2004) which also concluded that there was little evidence in perceived tourism development by socio-demographic characteristics.

Furthermore, the literature regards local community participation as one of the base components of the tourism planning process (Loukissas, 1983; Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1994; Inskip, 1991; Harvel, 1996; Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Nicholas, 2007; Niekerk, 2014). However, residents' attitudes towards local community participation as an area of study have been previously overlooked. In this regard, this

research found that a majority of participants have positive attitudes towards the benefits of local community participation during the tourism planning process regardless of the study area, the length of residency, economic dependency on the industry or other socio-demographic factors. This research also found that the majority of participants perceived local community participation poorly. Local communities seem to be hardly involved or consulted during the tourism planning process as stated by Murphy (1985), Harvel (1996) and Fahmy (2009).

This research also found that half of all participants have a high willingness to participate in future tourism planning processes. Socio-demographic variables did not determine participants' willingness to participate. Only participants in Juanillo were found to have lower willingness to participate. It was also found that participants in Verón who perceive their work as related to the industry have a higher willingness to participate than those who do not. According to social exchange theory, these participants may have a higher willingness to contribute to the well-being of their community through their participation in the planning, development, and perhaps the operation of tourist attractions due to their perceived economic benefits (Perdue et al., 1990; AbbasiDorcheh, 2013). However, more research is needed in this regard since different results were obtained in Juanillo and Friusa between participants' tourism-dependent jobs and participants' willingness to participate.

Finally, the study also shows a significant moderate relationship between participants' perceptions of tourism development and their willingness to participate during the tourism planning process. McGehee and Andereck (2004), argue that both residents with negative and positive perceptions of tourism development recognized the need for tourism planning. They also concluded that it was unclear whether support for

tourism development will lead to residents' willingness to participate during the planning process. Results from this research found a significant relationship between participants' perceptions of tourism development and participants' willingness to participate where participants who view tourism development positively are more likely to be willing to participate in the planning process than those who do not. Additionally, the research found that participants who have positive attitudes regarding local community participation in tourism planning were more likely to be willing to participate in the tourism planning process.

Limitations of the Study & Implications for Future Research

This study has been successful in analyzing participants' attitudes and perceptions on tourism development and local community participation, as well as their willingness to participate in tourism planning. However, there are several factors that may have limited the application of the findings and conclusions of the study. Such limitations should not invalidate the findings of this study, but rather be taken as a basis for improvement in future studies in this area. One of the most prominent limitations has been the insufficient financial resources and time to conduct more in-depth data collection. In addition, only communities adjacent to the main tourism destinations, Bávaro and Punta Cana, were included in this study. Therefore, the end results may not be representative of that of the entire population in the province or the country in general.

Additionally, the sample size only represented a small percentage of the total population in the study sites with an estimated error of ± 10 percent. As a result, the number of local residents that participated in this research could be considered relatively

low compared to that of previous studies. Also, the students helping throughout the data collection process did not have previous experience in research and data collection. Therefore, they could have experienced difficulties which may have affected the data collection process in following the sampling techniques, explaining the research to potential subjects, or successfully recruiting them. Financial resources to cover gas money, materials, and food supplies for the research team was very limited. The constraints imposed by the limited financial resources not only made traveling between the study sites difficult but also reduced data collection to a couple of weeks.

Another major limiting factor was the length of the survey questionnaire. The survey instrument was developed under the previous supervision and with ideas that were not necessary related to the current research purposes and thus were not implemented in the data analysis process. Because of the length of the questionnaires, keeping participants interested resulted in being a challenge. In many instances, participants would not have participated if an immediate benefit was not provided such as the gifts and souvenirs distributed during the data collection process. Because of this, it is recommended to keep the survey instrument shorter, consistent and true to the research questions.

To obtain a better understanding of participants' responses, future research should address participants' attitudes and perceptions as well as their willingness to participate within larger samples sizes and longer time periods. Research conducted over extended periods of time and across as many areas as possible would better capture potential variations of local residents' attitudes and perceptions. It is also important to continue to investigate participants' attitudes towards local community participation as

well as their willingness to participate in the tourism planning process as more research is needed in this regard. In areas where communities are not being incorporated, it is important to include the perception of other stakeholder groups on participatory tourism planning including local business owners, activist groups, foreign investors, government officials, and visitors.

In the case of the tourism industry in the Dominican Republic and other similar tourist-dependent regions where local communities are being excluded from the planning process, it is important to start setting the stages for the implementation of local community participation. It is also important for the planner to identify existing power relations in the area where one group may impose their agenda at the expense of another group. Such is the case of developers and local communities in the Verón - Punta Cana municipal district. In order to avoid this, it is important that planners identify a convener during the early stages of the planning process. Local authorities in La Altagracia, for instance, may serve this purpose due to their power to create land use and regulations and sustainable tourism plans that require the inclusion of local communities during all stages of the tourism planning process. By doing so, a more sustainable and inclusive planning process can be achieved.

Appendix A

HSIRB Approval Letter

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY



Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

Date: November 3, 2014

To: Christopher Smith, Principal Investigator
Jose Ernesto Fernandez Lorenzo, Student Investigator for thesis

From: Amy Naugle, Ph.D., Chair

Re: HSIRB Project Number 14-10-06

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project titled "Understanding Participation of Local Communities in Sustainable Tourism Development. Bavaro-Punta Cana, Dominican Republic" has been **approved** under the **exempt** category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note: This research may **only** be conducted exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project (e.g., ***you must request a post approval change to enroll subjects beyond the number stated in your application under "Number of subjects you want to complete the study."*** Failure to obtain approval for changes will result in a protocol deviation. In addition, if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

Reapproval of the project is required if it extends beyond the termination date stated below.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: November 2, 2015

Appendix B

Survey Questionnaire

**Thesis Title: Tourism Planning and Local Community Participation.
Verón – Punta Cana Municipal District, Dominican Republic.**

Section 1: Questions about You

1. Name of the place you reside in: _____
2. Do you live in the area throughout the year? YES NO
- a. **IF YES**, how many years have you lived in the area? ____ year (s)
- b. **IF NO**, about how many months of a year do you live in the area? ____ month (s)
3. What was the primary reason for moving here? (*Chose all that apply*)
- Work Study Leisure Retirement Other: _____
4. If working, do you consider your job related to the tourism industry? YES NO
- a. **IF YES**, what best describes your job? (E.g. tour guide, resort manager, etc.)

- b. **IF NO**, what industry do you work in? (Please state the industry, not the name of the company) _____
5. What is your gender? Male Female
6. How old are you? _____
7. What is your highest level of education?
- Primary school Secondary school High school No formal education
- College/university Graduate school PhD
8. Please indicate today's date: _____ (dd/mm/yy)

Section 2: Community Engagement

Please indicate how often you engage in the following activities within your community (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = very often, 5 = not applicable).

	N	S	O	VO	NA
1. Fishing	1	2	3	4	5
2. Farming	1	2	3	4	5
3. Going to church and church-related activities	1	2	3	4	5
4. Going to school	1	2	3	4	5
5. Selling of goods and services to tourists	1	2	3	4	5

6. Selling of goods and services to other local residents	1	2	3	4	5
7. Construction of new infrastructure (hotels, houses, roads, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Attending neighborhood meetings	1	2	3	4	5
9. Planning/participating in cultural activities (religious festivities, parades, concerts, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Attending cultural activities in my neighborhood	1	2	3	4	5
11. Engaging in environmental conservation and preservation programs	1	2	3	4	5
12. Are you involved in other activities?					

Section 3: Community Attitudes

Please tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements that ask about your feelings concerning the community you live in. Please circle a number that best reflects your opinion (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. What happens in this community is important to me	1	2	3	4	5
2. This community is special to me	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am proud to live in this community	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel like I am an important part of my community	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am willing to invest my talent or time to make this community a better place	1	2	3	4	5
6. I have a strong emotional connection to this community	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel at home in this community	1	2	3	4	5
8. If I had the opportunity to leave this community, I would	1	2	3	4	5
9. This community is a safe place to live	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4: Environmental Attitudes

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement on how you see the natural environment. For each statement, please circle a number that best reflects your opinion (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. There is a limited number of people the earth can support	1	2	3	4	5
2. Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit	1	2	3	4	5

their needs

3. Humans are severely abusing the environment	1	2	3	4	5
4. The earth has plenty of natural resources for humans to use	1	2	3	4	5
5. The development of more infrastructure can lead to environmental destruction	1	2	3	4	5
6. Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist	1	2	3	4	5
7. The balance of nature is strong enough to handle the impacts of humans	1	2	3	4	5
8. I recycle materials like paper, glass, and plastic as much as I can	1	2	3	4	5
9. When not in use, I turn off the lights and appliances at home	1	2	3	4	5
10. I throw the garbage in the proper garbage disposal(s)	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5: Economic Attitudes

This section asks your feelings towards the following statements about the local economy in general. Please circle a number that best reflects your opinion (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Tourists should purchase products from local businesses	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tourist should be allowed to use services provided by local residents	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am willing to spend money for the well-being of my community	1	2	3	4	5
4. Resorts and tourism facilities should support local farmers and businesses by purchasing local goods	1	2	3	4	5
5. Local resorts and tourism facilities should purchase foreign products	1	2	3	4	5
6. We need more independent businesses to attract tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Non-residents should be allowed to develop tourism attractions in the area	1	2	3	4	5
8. Tourism creates more jobs for foreigners than for local residents	1	2	3	4	5

Section 6: Social Attitudes

This section asks you to rate your feelings towards each statement about social factors in general. Please circle the number that matches your response. (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Meeting and interacting with tourists is important for the community	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities from the local population	1	2	3	4	5
3. Both local residents and tourists should be treated fairly and	1	2	3	4	5

equitably

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4. Visitors should respect the values and culture of local communities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Local residents and tourists should be allowed to use the same attractions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. An important part of the visitor's experience is interacting with local residents and the local culture | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Section 7: Tourism Development and your Community

In this section please indicate how has tourism development impacted the following things in your community for the past couple of years (1 = significantly worsen, 2 = worsen, 3 = no change, 4 = improved, 5 = significantly improved).

	SW	W	NC	I	SI
1. Employment Opportunities for local people	1	2	3	4	5
2. Household income of local people	1	2	3	4	5
3. Amount of entertainment and recreational opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
4. Quality of goods and services in general (electricity, water, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Accessibility (transportation and communication)	1	2	3	4	5
6. Quality of the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5
7. Quality of health and medical services	1	2	3	4	5
8. Waste management	1	2	3	4	5
9. Relationship between residents and tourists	1	2	3	4	5
10. Personal safety and security	1	2	3	4	5
11. Cost of living in the area	1	2	3	4	5
12. Appearance of the area	1	2	3	4	5
13. The peace and tranquility in the area	1	2	3	4	5
14. General quality of life for local people area	1	2	3	4	5

Section 8: Your Opinions on Tourism Development

This section asks you to rate your feelings about each statement regarding tourism development in general. Please circle the number that matches your response. (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. My community can handle more tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tourism provides many employment opportunities for the local population	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tourism generates income for me and/or my family	1	2	3	4	5
4. New tourism development should be encourage in my community	1	2	3	4	5

5. Increased tourism will hurt my community's quality of life	1	2	3	4	5
6. Tourism is the best way to contribute to the local economy	1	2	3	4	5
7. Tourism development will benefit me economically	1	2	3	4	5
8. I oppose new tourism development in the area	1	2	3	4	5
9. We should focus on improving existing infrastructure instead of creating more	1	2	3	4	5
10. We need more infrastructure such as tourist hotels, lodges, restaurants, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
11. We should emphasize on limiting new tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
12. We need to promote community-based tourism initiatives	1	2	3	4	5

Section 9: Participatory Tourism Development

This section asks you to rate your feelings about each statement towards participation in tourism development. Please circle the number that matches your response. (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Local people should be consulted when tourism policies are being made	1	2	3	4	5
2. Local people should not participate by any means in tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
3. A committee containing local residents should make the decisions on tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Appointed and elected officials should make the decisions regarding tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
5. Foreign investors should make the decisions on tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
6. I, as a resident, should be able to participate in local decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am interested in local tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
8. I wish to be involved in local tourism decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am able to influence decisions and policies related to local tourism development	1	2	3	4	5
10. I would like to serve on a committee involved in local tourism development and similar activities	1	2	3	4	5
11. I feel personally involved in the decision-making process regarding tourism development such as establishment of tourist hotel, lodges or camp sites etc.	1	2	3	4	5

12. Do you belong to any local clubs, groups, organizations, or associations? YES NO

a. **IF YES**, how many of these are related to tourism development? _____

Appendix C

Informed Consent Letter

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HSIRB Office



Principal Investigator: Christopher Scott Smith

Student Investigator: José Ernesto Fernández Lorenzo

Title of Study: Understanding the Participation of Local Communities in Sustainable Tourism Planning. Bávaro - Punta Cana, Dominican Republic.

You have been invited to participate in a research project titled "*Understanding Participation of Local Communities in Sustainable Tourism Planning in Bávaro - Punta Cana, Dominican Republic.*" This project will serve as José E. Fernández Lorenzo's thesis for the requirements of the Master of Arts and Science in Geography. This consent document will explain the purpose of this research project and will go over all of the time commitments, the procedures used in the study, and the risks and benefits of participating in this research project. Please read this consent form carefully and completely and please ask any questions if you need more clarification.

What are we trying to find out in this study?

Tourism development is an important factor for the economic and social development of your community and the region in general. It provides benefits such as the creation of jobs for local residents and foreign direct investment which supports the local economy. However, tourism like any other industry is very resource-driven and can result in negative effects for the local environment, economy, and society if not planned properly. Since your community also rely on these important resources, we believe that local residents should be given participation in tourism planning and sustainable initiatives alongside other groups in the region. We want to learn if people from your community are being incorporated in this process and the ways of doing so. In addition, we want to understand your own views on community participation in sustainable tourism planning.

Who can participate in this study?

Anyone who is 18 years old or older can participate in this study. Also for research purposes participants must have lived within their respective communities for at least one consecutive year. Before receiving this consent form, the researcher(s) must have asked you about these two criteria to see if you qualify. Anyone who meets these two criteria is eligible to participate in this study.

Where will this study take place?

This survey will be distributed to only a few households within communities adjacent to Bávaro and Punta Cana.

NOV 03 2014


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What is the time commitment for participating in this study?

The research will take place over 25-30 days in total. During this time, you will be visited only one time. Visits should take no more than 15-25 minutes each.

What will you be asked to do if you choose to participate in this study?

This research will only involve your participation in the completion of a survey questionnaire which will be given to you in the form of a hard copy. The completion of this survey should take no more than 10 minutes in total.

What information is being measured during the study?

Throughout the survey you will be asked to select answers about demographics, social/economics/environmental attitudes, tourism development in general and the effects of tourism within your community, and your views about community participation in tourism development.

What are the risks of participating in this study and how will these risks be minimized?

Although no private information will be asked in the survey, there is a risk that you may share some personal or confidential information by chance, or that you may feel uncomfortable with some of the questions. However, we do not wish for this to happen. You do not have to answer or fill out any questions or take part in the survey at all if you feel the question(s) are too personal or if answering them makes you uncomfortable. You may also receive questions from others in your community that are not included in this study.

What are the benefits of participating in this study?

Although there is no direct personal benefit, your participation is likely to help us find out more about community views and resident's willingness to participate in sustainable tourism development and planning. Such information may be useful to tourism managers, planners and decision-makers within your community and other local tourism destinations within the country.

Are there any costs associated with participating in this study?

The only cost associated with this research will be the time you spend to fill out the survey questionnaire. Other than this, there are no monetary costs for participating in this research.

Is there any compensation for participating in this study?

Since there will be no monetary costs associated with the participation of this study, no further compensations will be made.

NOV 03 2014


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Who will have access to the information collected during this study?

The information you include in the survey will NOT be shared with anybody outside of the research team, and nothing will be attribute to you by name. The knowledge that we get from this research will be shared with you and your community before it is made widely available to the public. We will share the results of the research in the form of a thesis so that other interested people both in academia and in your community may learn from them.

What if you want to stop participating in this study?

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You can choose to stop participating in the study at anytime for any reason. You will not suffer any prejudice or penalty by your decision to stop your participation. You will experience NO consequences either academically, work-related, or personally if you choose to withdraw from this study. The investigator can also decide to stop your participation in the study without your consent.

Should you have any questions prior to or during the study, you can contact the principal investigator, Christopher Scott Smith at (269) 387-3484 or c.scott.smith@wmich.edu. You may also contact the Chair, Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at 269-387-8293 or the Vice President for Research at 269-387-8298 if questions arise during the course of the study.

This consent document has been approved for use for one year by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB) as indicated by the stamped date and signature of the board chair in the upper right corner. Do not participate in this study if the stamped date is older than one year.

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