Journal of Management and Sustainability; Vol. 10, No. 1; 2020
ISSN 1925-4725 E-ISSN 1925-4733
Published by Canadian Center of Science and Education

Entrepreneurship and Sustainability in Tourism: An Interpretative Model

Ornella Papaluca[1,2], Mario Tani[2] & Ciro Troise[3]

[1] Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn - National Institute of Marine Biology, Ecology and Biotechnology, Villa Comunale 1 - 80121 - Naples, Italy

[2] Department of Economics, Management, Institutions, University of Naples Federico II, Naples, Italy

[3] Department of Management, Università degli Studi della Campania "Luigi Vanvitelli", Capua (CE), Italy

Correspondence: Ornella Papaluca, Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn - National Institute of Marine Biology, Ecology and Biotechnology, Villa Comunale 1 - 80121 - Naples, Italy. E-mail: ornella.papaluca@unina.it

Received: December 28, 2019 Accepted: January 29, 2020 Online Published: January 31, 2020

doi:10.5539/jms.v10n1p38 URL: https://doi.org/10.5539/jms.v10n1p38

Abstract

Especially in recent years, the attention to sustainability is even more felt in the tourism sector where the consequences of indiscriminate behavior in the exploitation of resources on the environment, on human beings and on their economic activities have become increasingly evident (Jaremen, Nawrocka, & Żemła, 2019). Tourism is often considered as a source of natural and cultural resources' exploitation, but it also contributes to GHG emissions, being one of the main reasons that pushes the world population to move. On the other hand, tourism-related activities, when correctly designed, can be a strong source of sustainable development. Indeed, tourism products should be sustainable as they depend on local area resources: they are complex products which, on the one hand, should use local resources as a differentiation strategy, on the other hand, hey should factor in the needs of several territory's stakeholders.

Researchers and institutions have developed many tools to assess tourism environmental impacts focusing both on the local area as a whole or on a given product. For the tourism sector, social and environmental impacts, responses and indicators fall into five categories (Buckley, 2012): population, peace, prosperity, pollution and protection. Moreover, these tools and measures have not been able to increase sustainability of tourism products and the industry is not yet close to sustainability.

In this chapter, we proposed an approach, built around Elkington's three pillars model (1994), to assess sustainability (Lehtonen, 2004) of tourism products; we focus on products design processes to create a model that help entrepreneurs in assessing if their products are sustainable and where they are their main weaknesses. In order to show how such a simple model can be used to evaluate sustainable tourism initiatives and highlight their weaknesses we have used a multiple case studies approach and we have analyzed three different cases.

Keywords: assessing sustainability in tourism, Elkington' model, multiple case studies, stakeholder approach, sustainable tourism

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the Problem

Tourism can be explained with an endogenous need each man has, usually, to escape from his ordinary life to live an experience in a different place from his habitual residence (Pine & Gilmore, 2000). The pervasiveness of its manifestations, the plurality of operators actively involved in it, and its real nature, make tourism phenomenon a complex one (Burkart & Medlik, 1981; Chadwick, 1994), that can only be studied according to a logic systemic (Tani, Papaluca, & Sasso, 2019; Basile & Dominici, 2016; Dominici & Levanti, 2011). Indeed, the actors engaged in touris are able to collaborate with each other continuosly, to offer tourists a product that can be—for they—the global travel experience. On the other hand, the tourist's travel experience depends not only on the quality of the services offered by each touristic operator, but it depends also on the own resources of the destination he has visited. These resources will contribute to the overall evaluation of all the moments in which the tourist perceived "quality" (Chen & Chen, 2010). This view acknowledges how the various perceptions are usually affected by those external—environmental-characteristics of the destination itself

(natural, artistic, heritage, social resources existing in the local area), that operators should include in their tourism services for their characteristics and their usability (Papaluca & Tani, 2016).

If we extend the definition of tourism products to include the local resources on which they are built, it means acknowledge that their raw materials are the specific natural, cultural and social resources existing in a given local area (Krippendorf, 1982). These resources are activated, and sometimes consumed, in tourism-related activities, therefore they should be protected by following the principles of "*intergenerational*" and "*infragenerational*" equity (Brundtland, Khalid, Agnelli, Al-Athel, & Chidzero, 1987), to avoid the risk that their consumption today will make them unavailable for future tourism activities (Welford, 1995) and for local communities too. The theme sustainability, especially in recent years, has become increasingly important. The spread of concerns related to the impoverishing of the Planet's resources has grown—internationally too—together with the awareness that we have only one World, that we must respected it and, above all, preserved it.

These concerns are particularly felt in the tourism sector which perhaps, more than others, bases its strength on its oown local resources. Tourism entrepreneurs were among the first to try to develop their activities by leveraging on the protecting natural resources and creating new tourism products first and brand-new-niches later, i.e., ecotourism (Goodwin, 1996). In these first attempts to create new forms of tourism, related to specific environmental or cultural resources of a given local area, the sustainability paradigm was mainly used as a marketing ploy or as a weak source of differentiation (Lodkipanidze, Brezet, & Backman, 2003). Instead, Other authors highlight how using tourism-related activities to sustain development in a given area, especially in the case of protected ecosystems and the less regulated areas in developing countries, could also present a risk (Rasoolimanesh & Jaafar, 2017; Basu, 2017). This risk is more actual the more successful these initiatives have in attracting tourists in the new market niches driving them against the very same goals they were trying to accomplish (Wheeler, 1993). And not only. Concerns related to a not entirely sustainable development in tourism are also linked to two possible sector-specific phenomena. The first is the Nocifera's paradox (2001), that is, the risk that development lead a tourist destination to become a more anonymous than extraordinary place. The second phenomenon arises from the overcoming of the carrying capacity of a destination (Mowforth & Munt, 2003) and to the consequent sentiment of anti-tourism (Doxey, 1975), which occurs when conflicts between residents and tourists increase, and the tourism is not more considered as a creative resource but as a destructive force (Butler, 1980).

As pointed out by Ahmed and McQuaid (2005), sustainable development—also in tourism—should therefore not be limited to solve environmental issues but it must also be able to deal with economic and social ones. Owen, Witt and Gammon (1993) pointed out that sustainable development it is not in contrast with economic viability which, indeed, is needed to fight poverty, to improve the quality of life and to guide processes for the protection of environment protection. Therefore, development must be achieved balancing, in the long-run, economic growth and resources' exploitation without falling into the trap of inaction (Hunter, 1997). Elkington (1994) proposed to interpret sustainable development processes using a three-dimensional model (i.e., the *3 pillars model*), separating the processes' effect in each of economical, environmental and social dimensions, that he calls *the pillars of sustainability*. Using this perspective, sustainable tourism is a way to balance the different souls of the same territory, without one of the three dimensions being considered more important than the other two (Papaluca, Sciarelli, & Tani, 2012)

In this paper we start from three considerations. Tourism is often considered a source of natural and cultural resources' exploitation. Furthermore, tourism is influenced by climate change (which affects tourist destinations), but it also contributes to greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, being one of the main reasons that drive the World population to move. For this reason, the attention to sustainability and the search for corrective solutions to the resources' exploitation are even stronger in this sector, where the consequences of indiscriminate behaviors—on the environment, on human beings and on their economic activities—have become increasingly obvious (Jaremen et al., 2019). On the other hand, tourism-related activities, when correctly designed, can be a strong source of sustainable development. Indeed, tourism products should be sustainable as they depend on local area resources in order to differentiate themselves from external competition; moreover, they are usually complex products and, consequently, they should factor in the needs of several territory's stakeholders. For this reason, tourism entrepreneurs should focus on a stakeholder-oriented strategy (Freeman, 1984). Considering a stakeholder perspective in evaluating their decisions should help tourism entrepreneurs on several levels. At a first level, while taking into account those stakeholders more directly involved in the enterprise's activities (i.e., competitors, partners, and policy-makers), they will be able to overcome some of the main hindrances Hjalager (1997), such as the need to coordinate, the lack of flexibility and the lack of adequate public monitoring systems.

This approach will also help tourism entrepreneurs not only to create more market-oriented products (Day, 1994) and to compete in tourism with greater critical-mass, but also to overcome the so-called *separation fallacy* (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & De Colle, 2010). This enhanced managerial vision should be attained by involving stakeholders in the decision-making processes in order to take account of their needs (Poudel, Nyaupane, & Budruk, 2016). Last, but not least, consideration is the need for tools to assess the environmental impacts of tourism (Boley, McGehee, & Hammett, 2017). Researchers and institutions have developed many tools to assess tourism environmental impacts, sometimes focusing on the entire local area, sometimes on a specific product.

Researchers and Institutions have developed many tools to assess tourism environmental impacts, focusing sometimes on the local area as a whole, sometimes on a given product. For the tourism sector, social and environmental impacts, responses and indicators are reviewed into five categories (Buckley, 2012): population, peace, prosperity, pollution and protection. Moreover, these tools and measures have not been able to increase sustainability of tourism products and the industry is not yet close to sustainability.

In this chapter, we proposed an approach, built around Elkington's three pillars model (1994), to assess sustainability of tourism products; we have focused on products design processes to create a model that help entrepreneurs in assessing if their products are sustainable and where they are their main weaknesses. In order to show how such a simple model can be used to evaluate sustainable tourism initiatives and highlight their weaknesses, we have analysed three case studies one of a private initiative, one linked to a social enterprise and the last one to a private certification mark for eco-tourism-oriented hotels.

1.2 Prior Literature

1.2.1 Enterpreneurship, Sustainability and Stakeholder Theory

According to previous literature entrepreneurship is about applying a small set of resoruces to answer to catch opportunities (Schlange, 2009) and innovate in order to satisfy new needs (Zhao, 2005; Schmitz, Urbano, Dandolini, De Souza, & Guerrero, 2017). Moreover, according to Venkatram (2002), entrepreneurs have to take into account that their resources are limited, and that their control over the resources needed is limited (Barney, 1996).

Since from Schumpeter works (Schumpeter, 1934, in the 2017 ed.), entrepreneurship has been considered as a motor to change the society and, according to Hall, Daneke and Lenox (2010), it is a central concept in the transtition toward a more sustainable society as the creation of social and cultural values replaces, in part, the focus on economic value creation (Dean & McMullen, 2007).

According to Elkington (1994), a sustainable development perspective has to factor in not only the creation of economic value, but it must take into account the effects on the social and the environment perspectives (Strothotte & Wüstenhagen, 2005; Muñoz & Cohen, 2018).

Using the social perspective, entrepreneurhip is a way to find innovative solutions to society's most pressing social problems and offering new ideas to foster societal change (Lordkipanidze, Brezet, & Backman, 2005). Several other authors (Schaltegger, 2002; Isaak, 2017) have used the term ecopreneurship to conceptualize the entrepeneurship in those fields where the environmental aspects are considered as core objectives and sources of competitive advantage (Cohen & Winn, 2007).

According to this perspective sustainable entrepreneurship may defined as those entrepreneurial ventures focused on the "*preservation of nature, life support, and community in the pursuit of perceived opportunities to bring into existence future products, processes, and services for gain, where gain is broadly construed to include economic and non-economic gains to individuals, the economy, and society*" (Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011, p. 137).

In order to become effective at identifying these opportunities companies should be able to identify, analyze the relevant stakeholder (Goodpaster, 1991; Aras & Crowther, 2016) and then to engage them (Androif, Waddock, Husted, & Rahman, 2017).

New entrepreneurs, managing the stakeholder relationships, may increase their resource endowment (Venkatram, 2019) even if this expose them to their influence strategies (Frooman, 1999). Moreover, they may increase their capability in opportunity recognition (Vandekerckhove & Dentchev, 2005; Burns, Barney, Angus, & Herrick, 2014) factoring in the needs of several territory's stakeholders. Considering a stakeholder-oriented strategy (Freeman, 1984) in evaluating their decisions should help tourism entrepreneurs on several levels. At a first level, while taking into account those stakeholders more directly involved in the enterprise's activities (i.e., competitors, partners, and policy-makers), they will be able to overcome some of the main hindrances Hjalager (1997), such as the need to coordinate, the lack of flexibility and the lack of adequate public monitoring systems. This

approach will also help tourism entrepreneurs not only to create more market-oriented products (Day, 1994) and to compete in tourism with greater critical-mass, but also to overcome the so-called separation fallacy (Freeman et al., 2010). This enhanced managerial vision should be attained by involving stakeholders in the decision-making processes in order to take account of their needs (Andriof, Waddock, Husted, & Rahman, 2017).

1.2.2 Assessing Sustainability in Tourism

The effects of tourism on development processes in a given area can be affected by several factors. Sometimes, tourism activities can have several positive influences on the economic and social side of a given community; on the other side, some of these activities will have a negative impact mainly on the ecological perspective of the local area but can create dangerous situation in the other two as well.

The positive effects are mainly related to the creation of new jobs needed to satisfy tourists' needs and to exploit tourism economic inflows. These new resources have a multiplier effect on the area's economy as a whole, promoting development of new strategic tourism-related businesses (e.g., local crafts, trades, heritage protection or restoration), favouring disused areas conversion. Farrell and McLellan (1987) highlighted how properly managed tourism activities can help a territory to gain significant economic flows while reducing natural and cultural resources' exploitation. These positive effects can even reach beyond the economic perspective driving local policymakers to increase their efforts in restoring natural resources and cultural heritage trying and improving their usability to attract new local and foreign direct investments (Tani & Papaluca, 2015).

However, tourism related activities can lead to natural resources' overexploitation or to cultural ones' contamination hindering, not altogether destroying, the main attraction points for a given local area. These negative effects impact on the destination as a whole, creating a growing concern in preserving natural resources and in protecting on human well-being as well (Richards & Hall, 2000).

Another negative effect is related to small local enterprises lack of economic flexibility (Hjalager, 1997) hindering them to realign their operations and their products to the new needs coming out of tourism flows.

Assessing these impacts, both positive and negative, is a difficult process as while there's a broad acceptance on a definition of sustainable development, there is not a general consensus on its main characteristics (Bell & Morse, 2012).

The process to measure sustainability of tourism activities, configured as complex phenomena created by the interaction of several stakeholders, cannot be easily carried on as each measurement, each tool, has to be adapted to a territory's particular characteristics making each initiative difficult to compare with the others through a common, and consistent, set of criteria (Tsaur, Lin, & Lin, 2006).

As these difficulties become more, researchers have tried to define new tools to measure and monitor local area tourism impact in the long-run (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006); they are needed to help entrepreneurs and policy-makers to have a lead in setting sustainable objectives and/or policies (Ko, 2005).

Klien-Vielhauer (2009) has found out that the combined effort on these topics have led to the definition of a broad set of tool and measures that could be used by entrepreneurs to analyse their own actions in each of Elkington's pillar. These tools are usually classified in the big family of the impact assessment tools (Klein-Vielhauer, 2009).

At the same time other scholars (Sharpley, 2000) have tried to close the theoretical gap between tourism and sustainable development.

Pulido Fernandez and Sanchez Rivero (2009) observed that the indicator systems for tourism are usually revised versions of more general ones and, for this same reason, are often unable to assess the real impacts of tourism-related activities. Measuring tourism impacts on a local area seems a tricky process. Stoeckl, Walker, Mayocchi and Roberts (2004) hilighted that while these tools should be used to measure it, they are, instead, only used to provide a simpler indication of change and, even then, sometimes they get only a partial success.

Indeed, the results of these various approaches are a complex set of various measures, tools, instruments, policies and strategies that have a similar function in evaluating sustainable development processes (Telfer & Hashimoto, 2006). These tools are usually based upon objective indicators, normally seen as more rigorous indicators, with only some of them relaying upon qualitative measures, based on personal feelings and attitudes (Tsaur et al., 2006). This evolution seems strange considering that Schneider and Donaghy (1975) had already cautioned scholars against these seemingly simple results of goals measures finding out that subjective measures should be more useful to assess complex phenomena.

These various tools can be classified in several ways. We can separate those meant for assessing sustainability a given area from those meant to assess the sustainability impact of a given project. Each of these classes could be further subdivided in two subclasses: those aimed to give decision makers a guidance in order to design and carry on sustainable activities and those more focused on assessing their effects as well as their consequences.

The first-class answers to a general need of policymakers to rely upon instruments and tools to monitor and evaluate their policies progresses towards sustainable development (Selman, 1999). This class is, by far, the most numerous one (Ness, Urbel Piirsalu, Anderberg, & Olsson, 2007). These indicators are usually built with a set of indicators that can be summed up in a single global measure of sustainability or left in a non-integrated form to point up the various effects they are evaluating.

In the first category we have the Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI) defined by Samuel-Johnson and Esty (2002); ESI is a set of 68 indicators classified into five categories (Note 1) that are not strictly related to tourism activities.

Some other sets of indicators have been developed in order to directly assess the effects of tourism in a local area. One of the first tools to have been developed thinking about tourism is the Visitor Impact Management (Moore, Smith, & Newsome, 2003). This tool is a process model (Note 2) designed to help policy makers in developing a flexible set of indicators specifically meant for a given local area; it can be used to monitor tourism impacts so entrepreneurs, and policy-makers too, can define alternative strategies with a lower overall impact.

In order to evaluate the environmental consequences of tourism several authors have proposed to carry on an Environmental Impact Assessment or an Environmental Audit (Mowforth & Munt, 2003). These processes could help entrepreneurs reckoning environmental impacts in their decision-making processes (Green & Hunter, 1992), but Mowforth and Munt highlights their two main limits: the first one is that they focus mainly on the environmental perspective of sustainable development, underestimating the social ones; the second one is their dependence on the autonomous definition of indicators by entrepreneurs.

Klein-Vielhauer (2009) instead of adapting a more general tool to sustainable tourism characteristics has preferred to start from scratch in developing a specific set of indicators, mainly content-related and qualitative. The author aims to get to a global evaluation of all leisure and tourism activities in a defined large area and includes the accompanying transport activities, both on the supply and consumption sides.

A more strategic approach has been followed by some other authors (Masiello, Moscariello, & Fera, 2018) that have tried to develop tools that could be used to lead the processes needed to design policies and products.

The most used indicator to help entrepreneurs in designing their products is the Carrying Capacity (Mathieson & Wall, 1982) a measure of the maximum number of people, tourists and local residents too, who can use the site without an unacceptable impact on the environment. This indicator is very common, and some authors have developed several different Carrying Capacities (Mowforth & Munt, 2003) that can be used to assess different perspectives of sustainable development (Note 3). Some other Authors (Galli & Notarianni, 2002) have criticized this approach as it lacks a precise definition of what is an "acceptable change" making difficult to use them in real tourism product design processes.

Another widespread tool is the Limit of Acceptable Change (LAC) (Stankey, Cole, Lucas, Petersen, & Frissell, 1985) a measure originally defined to plan activities in U.S.A.'s forest areas. Defining LAC is the output of a nine steps process aimed at identifying which are the changes a local area will be subject to and which policies can help reducing them. Gossling, Borgstrom Hansson, Horstmeier and Saggel (2002), highlight that LAC is not able to fully assess the tourism effects on a local scale, or a global one.

Hunter (2002) proposed another way to measure the ecological impact of tourism as a whole, the Tourist Ecological Footprint (TEF). TEF has the advantage of being easily used as a benchmark measure for comparing different areas. Another approach has been followed by Wackernagel and Rees (1996). They define the Ecological Footprint as the per capita land area needed to create the resources needed to satisfy the average person's annual consumption of goods and services without endangering their consumption over time.

The other group of tools and measure is made of those tools needed to assess the sustainability impacts of a single project, or tourism products. These tools have a more limited scope, but they tend to be more developed.

The most used tool in this group is the Life Cycle Assessment (LCA). LCA has been used to evaluate the environmental impacts of a product or a service throughout its whole life cycle from raw materials acquisition to waste disposal (Ness et al., 2007). The International Standards Organisation (ISO) has established guidelines and principles for LCA and several scholars have honed them for some specific industries (Ross & Evans, 2002) or for some specific products (Huijbregts, Hellweg, Frischknecht, Hungerbühler, & Hendriks, 2008; De Camillis,

Raggi, & Petti, 2010).

Some other tools as Strategic Environmental Assessment (Partidario, 2001) have been focused on evaluating potential environmental impacts linked to a given strategy.

Another approach to assess ex-ante the sustainability of tourism products has been followed by some institutions that have set standards, and the related certification processes, in order to assess, and compare, the sustainability of various products. One of these standards is the Certification for Sustainable Tourism (CST) developed by the Costa Rica Institute of Tourism with the help of several other stakeholders (Tepelus & Castro Cordoba, 2005) with the stated objective to get a more practical approach to tourism's sustainability.

However, in spite of all these efforts, several studies have pointed out that there have been few progresses in monitoring and measuring tourism impacts on sustainable development (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006). Moreover, only few of the tools developed in the last years have been designed to help entrepreneurs in getting an ex-ante evaluation of these impacts. Many researchers have focused their efforts to develop tools to assess tourism-related products impacts on a territory after the resource consumption have already started.

1.3 Research Design

In order to develop our model, we have followed Ap and Crompton (1998) that used Elkington's *three pillars' model* to classify the perceived impacts of tourism activities in economic, social and environmental related ones.

Explicitly referring to the three pillars helps us to address finding that tourism activities are mainly concentrated in the "Very Weak" and the "Weak" classes of sustainable processes using Turner, Pearce and Bateman (1994) classification. Hunter (1997) reaches this conclusion observing that usually natural resources are considered as mere tools to achieve economic objectives in most of the sustainable tourism projects.

On the other side we follow a stakeholder approach to sustainability; as shown by some authors (Ross & Wall, 1999) studying the relationships between stakeholders can help to evaluate sustainable tourism processes as entrepreneurs, local area populations and natural resources are united in a symbiotic relationship in marketing tourism products.

Gossling et al. (2002) held that when stakeholder relationships are integrated in the product design phases the resulting product should be sustainable.

Moreover, as shown by several studies on tourism quality (Chen & Chen, 2010), a stakeholder-oriented approach helps in broadening entrepreneur's vision and enriches the new products he will develop with positive effects on service quality, and value, and improving its perception by customers.

Both these considerations suggest tourism entrepreneurs to broaden their strategic visions in order to involve other stakeholders in their strategy development processes (Fick & Brent, 1991). This greater involvement lead entrepreneur to stop focusing only on customers and to strengthen their bonds with other stakeholders, both local and abroad, in order to enhance their products' competitiveness (Slater & Narver, 1999). The greatest benefits are obtained when stakeholders are involved (Andriof et al., 2017) in service design phases.

Another long run beneficial effect of stakeholder involvement is that these new products will be able to go beyond their expectation in each moment of quality perception (Chen & Chen, 2010) generating a better overall experience, without the creation of those conflicts with the other local area stakeholders that are linked to local area resources' overexploitation. Another positive effect is that preserving local resources, natural or cultural ones, will help entrepreneurs to overcome Nocifera's paradox (2001).

In order to get maximum benefits from stakeholders' involvement these very same processes must account for their impact on the social and environmental pillars. Reckoning the products effects on the other two pillars is a needed condition to warrant that all the relevant local area stakeholders have been involved.

A product design process reaches a basic level of the environmental sustainability pillar when it is built around a generic awareness of tourism services impacts in a local area. Using TEF (Hunter, 2002), or a similar process, the entrepreneur finds the average resource consumption of the average tourism product. This knowledge can be used as a benchmark tool in order to have a deeper understanding of his own products impacts. Moreover, these tools get their global evaluations analysing each single activity the product is made of driving the entrepreneur to reach a more efficient product configuration and helping him in marketing less costly products.

Another step along the environmental pillar is reached when during the first steps of the design process the entrepreneurial subject tries to assess the overall effect in the natural resources of the various tourism products offered in the local area. Assessing the effects of their own products integrated with all the other services insisting on the same resources, although daunting, is a task that asks entrepreneurs to interact with a broader set

of stakeholders. Carrying Capacity is one of the most widespread tools to assess the global impact an area can sustain before endangering its resources' endowment in the long run (Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

In a similar way the entrepreneur must account in his decisions the third pillar of Elkington's model: the social one.

A first problem with assessing social impacts, impacts on traditions and set of values, is that they are not some limited phenomena but are influenced by all the economic and cultural activities insisting in a given area and cannot be measured by the single activities but must be analysed using a systemic approach (Caldwell, 1990). On this specific issue McCool and Lime (2001) hold that the Cultural Carrying Capacity should not try to assess *how many* people a given area can sustain without endangering its specific resources, but rather the evaluation efforts should be focused on the social and biophysical conditions, desired or appropriate, for a given destination. They argued that this different approach to cultural carrying capacity provides tourism planners with a more powerful and useful tool.

But acknowledging the need to preserve local cultural resources is not the ultimate step in cultural sustainability as tourism products can focus on helping local social development processes. Tourism enterprises can help these processes integrating local crafts and other traditional activities in their own products increasing their value and helping local communities to exploit their cultural resources to start development processes.

The analysis framework coming out of these considerations and evaluations has been represented in the Figure 1. The framework is a three-dimensional model with each dimension used to evaluate the effects on one of Elkington's pillars. Each dimension has been further subdivided in some steps with and ordinal nature, i.e., a step can be reached only after that the previous ones in the same dimension are all met.

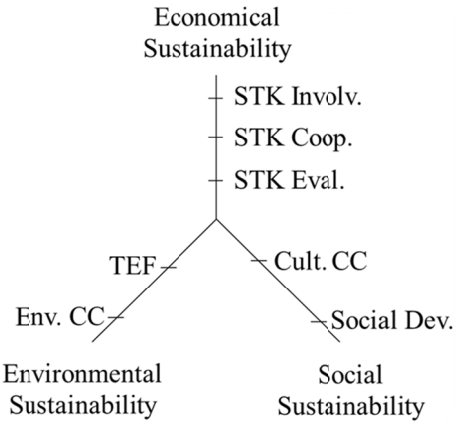

Figure 1. The interpretative model for assessment of sustainable tourism products

Note. STK Eval. = Evaluation of stakeholders' interests in decision-making processes; STK Coop. = Cooperation with stakeholder in providing tourism services; STK Involv. = Involvement of stakeholders in service design processes; TEF = Tourist Ecological Footprint; Env. CC = Carryng Capacity; Cult. CC =Cultural Carryng Capacity; Social Dev. = Social Development.

Based on our theoretical framework, in this paper we propose a model to assess the sustainability of a tourism product starting from its design process. In this way we are targeting the least numerous of the four classes we have presented: the product-oriented tools to assist entrepreneurs before their products have been marketed.

Moreover, while there are many different classes of tourism products, we will try to define the guidelines and the principles they have to be designed around in order to drive sustainable development processes.

Following these brief considerations, we state our research hypothesis as:

It is possible to evaluate sustainability of tourism related products through a small set of guidelines and principles monitored in the product design phase.

2. Method

In order to find an answer to our research questions we have decided to use a multiple case studies approach (Yin, 2003) as our research is mainly an exploratory one investigating if monitoring some characteristics of the tourism product design process can help entrepreneurs to evaluate if they are marketing a product fostering

sustainable development.

As prescribed by Yin we have defined the main characteristics of the cases we had to study before searching for them in order to choose a small set of cases that could be significant. We started analysing the responsible tourism initiatives and found out that there were three main classes of tourism-related products: those responsible tourism products created by private entrepreneurs, those designed by social enterprises and other social actors and sustainable certification marks.

These three classes are different as the first one is a classic tourism product marketed in a specific niche, the second one is usually designed to help sustainable development in a given underdeveloped area. The last one is made of all the various sustainable marks and certifications, both public and private ones.

We have decided to leave out the public certification systems as they are not products, but policies and our framework requires that the products are developed using an entrepreneurial approach.

Moreover, we decided to focus on successful enterprises in order to sort out the critics related to economic viability of sustainable development efforts in tourism (Hunter, 2002).

We settled upon three cases, one for each of the classes: Sextantio Hotels; Sott'e'Ncoppa sustainable tourism initiatives with Perù Etico; Responsible Hotels.

In this way we can assess the framework capabilities in all the classes of tourism products we have designed it for. Each single case has been carried on studying the processes behind the tourism product definition using the secondary sources, mainly public available documents and newspaper articles, and later the information have been complemented with an open-questions questionnaire to key personnel in the organizations, in order to get a first hand view on how these processes have been carried on by these entrepreneurs.

2.1 Case Studies

The first case we present is Sextantio Hotel. This is a sustainable development initiative by an Italian-Swedish entrepreneur, that, during a travel in the Abruzzo's countryside, ended up in an abandoned medieval village located between the mountains near L'Aquila in Italy.

This village was located in the National Park Gran Sasso-Monti della Laga so this activity had to comply not only with heritage preservation regulations but with the National Park rules too.

The entrepreneurial idea was to create a first example of *diffused hotel* i.e., a hospitality enterprise that was not built around a single structure as an Hotel, or a small number of buildings, like some resorts, but it would have used the greater part of the abandoned village in order to recover it (Papaluca & Tani, 2016).

The entrepreneur started his activities in this project using national loans to collect the financial resources needed to fund an initial purchase of several building for a total of 3500 square meters in various buildings throughout the village.

As one of project's goals was to recover the medieval village, and its traditions, the entrepreneur decided to hire specialized personnel and to start cooperating with local Universities to ensure that the building would have been restored in compliance with their historical characteristics. Later, Universities have been involved to guide even the creation of other services related to medieval traditions in Abruzzo.

Other stakeholders have been involved in various projects aimed at developing new solutions to provide customers with the technologies they were looking for without ruining the global experience of a traditional medieval village experience the project wanted to market. In this sense, the entrepreneur main goal was to have them made invisible. In order to get that they have recurred to solution as induction heating systems and wireless internet connections.

In addition to recovering the assets the entrepreneur has helped in starting a process to revitalize that part of Abruzzo preserving local traditions and cultures and sustaining the creation of new economic activities. The entrepreneur main idea was to support new entrepreneurial activities that could further help him in restoring local, indigenous, cultural traditions in order to enhance the global perceived quality of his own initiative.

After the creation of this diffused hotel, the village has been slowly repopulated; local population, not directly involved in the hotel activity, has grown from 70 inhabitants in 1999 to about 120 ten years later; the positive effects have even led to repopulating surroundings thanks to new jobs created to support the initiative. However, these activities should be considered as subsidiary activities of Sextantio Hotel as their main source of income are the financial flows coming out of the 7300 tourists the hotel can accommodate each year; they are not really independent and could be seriously harmed in case of diffused hotel's demise.

The project tried to preserve the local traditions even in its approach to managing impacts on environments in two main ways: it restored the structures only using traditional raw materials as local woods and stones; the restoration process has been a gradual one and the number of "rooms" has been limited with several other buildings yet to be restored.

The approach to economic sustainability is a typically integrated one with high initial investments required to purchase properties and starting the first house's restoration; today it continues maintaining centralized control of activities in order to avoid the risk that the objectives set by the entrepreneurs could be diverted from his future partners.

Sextantio Hotel has been used as the model for creating new recovery processes of other villages in Southern Italy, mainly in Basilicata.

The case we have selected to represent the second class, tourism activities by social enterprises, is the tour operating business created by a Naples Fair Trade Organization (FTO): Sott'e'Ncoppa (it means Upside-Down in Naples' dialect).

This case was chosen mainly for its links with Fair Trade practices that should warrant a more *business-oriented* approach to social activities as these enterprises sustain themselves, and fund their initiatives, selling their products in the market (Borzaga & DeFourny, 2001).

Sott'e'Ncopp main goals are to diffuse a lifestyle based upon the concepts of fraternity, peace and democracy in order to get a fairer distribution of resources around the world. Its activities, being FTO, are created to support sustainable development in south of the world countries.

This association has been working with PerùEtico, a sustainable tourism Tour Operator, and some other Peruvian and Italian not for profit organizations in order to promote responsible tourism initiatives in Peru, since 2008. In 2010 Sott'e'Ncopp decided to follow PerùEtico in expanding their activities in Mexico participating in the creation of another tour operator, MessicoEtico, and involving in tourism products design even some other local stakeholders.

Today Sott'e'Ncoppa tourism related activities are focused on selling travel packages to experience Peruvian cultures, traditions and natural resources; the social resources are activated involving local families for accommodating small groups of tourists in the more remote destinations. Moreover, these relationships with local stakeholders help the tour operator to provide customers with the opportunity to experience, consciously and responsibly, some destinations that are not normally accessible through traditional tourism channels strengthening its products differentiation against more traditional tourism products.

On the social perspectives the travel packages are built around the idea to sensitize both tourists and the Peruvian communities towards the economic, social and environmental issues linked to relationships between Developing and Developed Countries.

Customers can choose two different types of tourism products. The first type is labelled as *Ethical Travel*, it is a catalogue of 11 different itineraries in the Peruvian poorest and farthest areas coupled with other 10 itineraries in Mexico tourists can choose from.

The second class is made of *Fair-trade Travels* designed with local communities already involved in Fair Trade productions in order to help customers get in touch with these producers. This second class of tourism products are meaningful for the social enterprise as they create a strong synergy with its other activities not related to tourism. These packages help their Italian customers to directly live the advancement in developing processes the social enterprise is funding with its trade related activities increasing their value and reinforcing their customer's loyalty. These products are important even for the local communities as they help them to focus on fair-trade related processes and provide them with more financial resources that can be used to further advance local development.

These products have been designed cooperating with local communities in order not to be too demanding on local resources so to preserve them; further acknowledging this need the entrepreneurs have decided to offer several different travel packages in both countries and to limit them to a low number of tourists. Moreover, in each travel, tourists will visit several places limiting their impact on each single local community without sacrificing the quality of their own experience.

In the third class of sustainable tourism activities we have chosen a private sustainable certification mark: Responsible Hotels.

Responsible Hotels is a certification mark created to assess, and certify, sustainable tourism initiatives carried on

by hotels and resorts management. The brand is not too widespread, and its certification process has been developed by a branch of JohnsonDiversey an Italian provider of cleaning and food safety solutions: JohnsonDiversey Consulting.

Their certification is based on three basic principles. The first principle is that hotel managers should enforce the Charter of the Tourist Rights in hotel operations. The second is the need to follow the practices of sustainable hotel management, both in terms of used products and services (which must have a low environmental impact) and in terms of food services that should use local organic ingredients (in order to preserve the culinary traditions of the destination).

Finally, this certification requires that facilities actively engage in increasing public awareness and customer's involvement in local area environmental issues. Hotels' activities have to be environmentally friendly and should aim at continuously lower their impacts on natural resources.

Getting the certification, and following the related practices, enable hotels to have a better brand image, both locally and internationally. Moreover, these rules help hotel structures to play in the eco-tourism market niche, a fast growing one.

Several of the initiatives of this certification process are geared towards an increase in sustainability of the related activities. The need to provide customers with meals prepared with short food supply chain produces forces managers to cooperate with local farmers and other local stakeholders outside the tourism industry in order to create a stable network of relationships to keep a constant quality on meals. These new relationships increase hotel participation in the value chain while increasing pressures to to safeguard and protect the environment.

The need to lower the environmental impact related to their activities helps hotel managers to factors in the environmental perspective in their decision-making processes. On the other side the certification does not ask entrepreneurs to cooperate with competitors and policy makers in order to reduce the combined impacts of tourism activities on the destinations.

Moreover, as the mark is mainly aimed at creating eco-tourism products its evaluation process coherently does not asks entrepreneurs to factor in the social impacts of their own activities. In this way it limits its own capabilities to assure that tourism entrepreneurs can be a driving force in sustainable development processes.

3. Discussion of Results

In the Figure 2, we show the results of our analysis on the three cases using our model.

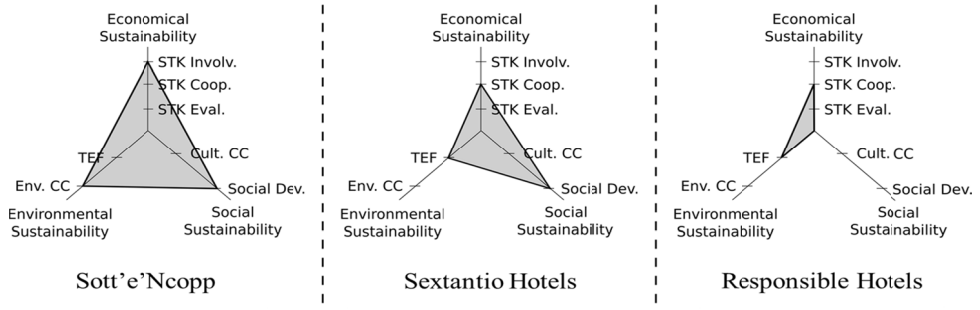

Figure 2. Evaluation of the case studies using our model

Our model shows how the Sott'e'Ncopp initiative has the highest potential to be a real source of sustainable development process. Not only this is an initiative created by a group already involved in social activities created working with local stakeholders, but it has been designed to promote the recovery of culture and tradition Moreover the link with FTO help this initiative to drive development processes in the destination.

Then comes Sextantio suffering primarily for not having factored in the environmental carrying capacity of the territory as a whole (this is a lesser sore point as the diffused hotel experience has been created in an area where it was the main economic activity); on the other side, this activity is fully capable of creating positive effects in the social pillar of Elkington's model.

In the end, there's Responsible Hotel; it is moderately successful in assuring cooperation with most stakeholders

and explicitly asks to evaluate the ecological footprint of hotel activities but it does not factor in the social perspectives and it does not ask entrepreneurs to evaluate the global impact of all tourism related activities in a given area.

4. Conclusions and Implications

Tourism activities need tools that can drive entrepreneurs in creating their product so to foster sustainable development processes. In this chapter we have presented a framework to assess new tourism activities impacts on the destination analysing their design process.

These tools are needed as the consequence of unsustainable activities is resources over-exploitation or, in the worst cases, resource depletion; both these consequences can endanger local area future competitiveness as a tourism destination.

Moreover, the theoretical analysis has shown that tourism entrepreneurs can enhance the perceived quality of their products leveraging a sustainable development approach.

On the other hand, the complex landscape of tourism products asks such a tool to provide practical guidelines to entrepreneurs that can be applied to the various configurations.

The three case studies we have analysed belonged to different classes of tourism products, the last one is a certification process more than a tourism product. Applying the model to analyse them has provided a useful guidance in assessing their contribution to sustainable development.

The model has shown one main weakness: the lack of quantitative measures. This weak point is only apparent as the model refer to other quantitative measures if they are needed. The model is geared towards giving entrepreneurs a tool to drive their design processes in the right direction and not to measure their progresses on them.

Last, but not least, we can make a final consideration on the framework that we follow. Our results confirm what some Authors (Passet, 1996) highlighted in their studies: the better capacity of the Bioeconomic Model compared to the TBL to read the phenomenon of sustainability. Indeed, the Elkington model highlight the "equivalence" of the three pillars of sustainability and - as shown by our model based on it—the sustainability is not represented as an equilateral triangle in none of the three cases studied. Here, we can see the two principal limits of the Elkington model: it does not consider the trade-off between three sustainability's dimensions; the representation does not take into account the hierarchy of sustainability's dimensions

Moreover, as shown in the cases analysis, our model has two main strengths: it has been designed to be a practical one and it highlights to entrepreneurs the main weaknesses of their projects before they are offered in the market helping them to correct them with the help of the other stakeholders in the local area.

References

Ahmed, A., & McQuaid, R. W. (2005). Entrepreneurship, Management, and Sustainable Development. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, *1*(1), 6–30. https://doi.org/10.1504/WREMSD.2005.007750

Andriof, J., Waddock, S., Husted, B., & Rahman, S. S. (2017). *Unfolding stakeholder thinking: Theory, responsibility and engagement*. London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351281881

Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1998). Developing and Testing a Tourism Impact Scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, *37*(2), 130–138. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759803700203

Aras, G., & Crowther, D. (2016). *The durable corporation: Strategies for sustainable development*. London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315615714

Barney, J. B. (1996). *Gaining and Sustaining Competitive Advantage*. Addison Wesley Publishing Company, Reading. Retrieved from https://trove.nla.gov.au/work/22026660

Basile, G., & Dominici, G. (2016). A Complex Adaptive System Framework for Management and Marketing Studies. In Ş. Erçetin (Ed.), *Chaos, Complexity and Leadership 2014* (pp. 83–97). Cham: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-18693-1_9

Basu, P. K. (2017). Is sustainable tourism development possible? Broad issues concerning Australia and Papua New Guinea. In R. N. Ghosh & M. A. B. Siddique (Eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development. Case Studies from the Indian Ocean Region* (pp. 140–149). London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315235981-11

Bell, S., & Morse, S. (2012). *Sustainability Indicators: Measuring the Immeasurable* (2nd ed.). London: Earthscan. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781849772723

Boley, B. B., McGehee, N. G., & Hammett, A. T. (2017). Importance-performance analysis (IPA) of sustainable tourism initiatives: The resident perspective. *Tourism Management*, *58*, 66–77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.10.002

Borzaga, C., & Defourny, J. (2001). Social Enterprises in Europe, a diversity of initiatives and prospects. In C. Borzaga & J. Defourny (Eds.), *The Emergence of Social Enterprise* (pp. 350–370). London and New York: Routledge. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.469.831&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Buckley, R. (2012). Sustainable tourism: Research and reality. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(2), 528–546. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2012.02.003

Burkart, A. J., & Medlik, S. (1981). *Tourism: past, present and future* (2nd ed.). London: Heinemann.

Burns, B., Barney, J. B., Angus, R., & Herrick, H. N. (2014). Opportunity Identification and Stakeholder Enrollment Under Conditions of Risk and Uncertainty. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, *2014*(1), 17416. https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.2014.17416abstract

Butler, R. W. (1980). The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: implication for management of resources. *Canadian Geographer/Le Géographe Canadien*, *24*(1), 5–12. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0064.1980.tb00970.x

Chadwick, R. A. (1994). Concepts, definitions, and measures used in travel and tourism research. In R. J. R. Brent & C. R. Goeldner (Eds.), *Travel, Tourism, and hospitality Research. A handbook for managers and researchers* (2nd ed., pp. 47–61). New York: Wiley and Sons.

Chen, C. F., & Chen, F. S. (2010). Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism Management*, *31*, 29–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.02.008

Choi, H. S. C., & Sirakaya, E. (2006). Sustainability indicators for managing community tourism. *Tourism Management*, *27*, 1274–1289. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.05.018

Cohen, B., & Winn, M. I. (2007). Market imperfections, opportunity and sustainable entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *22*(1), 29–49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2004.12.001

Day, G. S. (1994). The Capabilities of Market-Driven Organizations. *Journal of Marketing*, *58*(4), 37–52. https://doi.org/10.2307/1251915

De Camillis, C., Raggi, A., & Petti, L. (2010). Life cycle assessment in the framework of sustainable tourism: a preliminary examination of its effectiveness and challenges. *Progress in Industrial Ecology, an International Journal*, *7*(3), 205–218. https://doi.org/10.1504/PIE.2010.037776

Dean, T. J., & McMullen, J. S. (2007). Toward a theory of sustainable entrepreneurship: Reducing environmental degradation through entrepreneurial action. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *22*(1), 50–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2005.09.003

Dominici, G., & Levanti, G. (2011). The complex system theory for the analysis of inter-firm networks: a literature overview and theoretic framework. *International Business Research*, *4*(2), 31–37. https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v4n2p31

Doxey, G. V. (1975). *A causation theory of visitor-resident irritants: Methodology and research inferences* (pp. 195–198). In Travel and Tourism Research Associations Sixth Annual Conference Proceedings. San Diego, CA: Travel Research Association.

Elkington, J. (1994). Towards the Sustainable Corporation: Win-Win-Win Business Strategies for Sustainable Development. *California Management Review*, *36*(2), 90–100. https://doi.org/10.2307/41165746

Farrell, B. H., & McLellan, R. W. (1987). Tourism and physical environment research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *14*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(87)90044-2

Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.

Freeman, R. E., Harrison, J. S., Wicks, A. C., Parmar, B. L. & De Colle, S. (2010). *Stakeholder Theory: The State of the Art*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2010.495581

Galli, P., & Notarianni, M. (2002). *La sfida dell'Ecoturismo*. Milano: De Agostini.

Goodwin, H. (1996). In Pursuit of Ecotourism. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, *5*, 277–292. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00051774

Gossling, S., Borgstrom Hansson, C., Oliver Horstmeier, O., & Saggel, S. (2002). Ecological footprint analysis as a tool to assess tourism sustainability. *Ecological Economics*, *43*, 199–211. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(02)00211-2

Green, H., & Hunter, C. (1992). The environmental impact assessment of tourism development. In P. Johnson & B. Thomas (Eds.), *Perspectives on Tourism Policy* (pp. 29–47). London: Mansell.

Hall, J. K., Daneke, G. A., & Lenox, M. J. (2010). Sustainable development and entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future directions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *25*(5), 439–448. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2010.01.002

Hjalager, A. M. (1997). Innovation patterns in sustainable tourism: an analytical typology. *Tourism Management*, *18*, 1–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(96)00096-9

Huijbregts, M. A. J., Hellweg, S., Frischknecht, R., Hungerbühler, K., & Hendriks, A. J. (2008). Ecological footprint accounting in the life cycle assessment of products. *Ecological Economics*, *64*(4), 798–807. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2007.04.017

Hunter, C. (1997). Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*(4), 850–867. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(97)00036-4

Hunter, C. (2002). Sustainable tourism and the tourist ecological footprint. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, *4*, 7–20. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016336125627

Isaak, R. (2017). *Green logic: Ecopreneurship, theory and ethics*. London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351283168

Jaremen, D. E., Nawrocka, E., & Żemła, M. (2019). Sharing the Economy in Tourism and Sustainable City Development in the Light of Agenda 2030. *Economies*, *7*(4), 109. https://doi.org/10.3390/economies7040109

Klien-Vielhauer, S. (2009). Framework model to assess leisure and tourism sustainability. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *17*, 447–454. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2008.07.006

Ko, T. G. (2005). Development of a tourism sustainability assessment procedure: a conceptual approach. *Tourism Management*, *26*(3), 431–445. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.12.003

Krippendorf, J. (1982). Towards new tourism policies: The importance of environmental and sociocultural factors. *Tourism Management*, *3*(3), 135–148. https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(82)90063-2

Lehtonen, M. (2004). The environmental-social interface of sustainable development: capabilities, social capital, institutions. *Ecological Economics*, *49*(2), 199–214. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2004.03.019

Lordkipanidze, M., Brezet, H., & Backman, M. (2005). The entrepreneurship factor in sustainable tourism development. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *13*(8), 787–798. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2004.02.043

Masiello, B., Moscariello, N., & Fera, P. (2018). Political Marketing Strategies to Foster the Sustainability of Private Transnational Organisations: The Case of the IASB. *Sustainability*, *10*(8), 2652. https://doi.org/10.3390/su10082652

Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, physical and social impacts*. New York: Longman.

McCool, S. F., & Lime, D. W. (2001). Tourism Carrying Capacity: Tempting Fantasy or Useful Reality? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *9*(5), 372–388. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580108667409

Moore, S. A., Smith A. J., & Newsome, D. N. (2003). Environmental Performance Reporting for Natural Area Tourism: Contributions by Visitor Impact Management Frameworks and Their Indicators. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *11*(4), 348–375. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580308667211

Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2003). *Tourism and sustainability. New tourism in the Third World* (2nd ed.). London and New York: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203422779

Muñoz, P., & Cohen, B. (2018). Sustainable entrepreneurship research: Taking stock and looking ahead. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, *27*(3), 300–322. https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2000

Ness, B., Urbel Piirsalu, E., Anderberg, S., & Olsson, L. (2007). Categorising tools for sustainability assessment. *Ecological Economics*, *60*, 498–508. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2006.07.023

Nocifera, E. (2001). *Itineraria*. *Dal Grand Tour al turismo postmoderno*. *Lezioni di sociologia del turismo.* Milano: Le Vespe.

Owen, R. E., Witt, S. F., & Gammon, S. (1993). Sustainable tourism development in Wales. *Tourism Management*, *14*, 463–474. https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(93)90099-7

Papaluca, O., Sciarelli, M., & Tani, M. (2012). Il bilanciamento di finalità economiche e sociali nei sistemi sociali del turismo sostenibile. In M. Ruisi & L. Picciotto (Eds.), *Atti: IV Riunione Scientifica SISTUR* (Società Italiana di Scienze del Turismo, Palermo 26/27 ottobre 2012, pp. 483–498). Roma: Aracne.

Papaluca, O., & Tani, M. (2016). Entrepreneurs' Experiences, Motivations, and Sustainability of Tourism. In *Tourism Management, Marketing, and Development* (pp. 239–258). Palgrave Macmillan, New York. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137401854_12

Papaluca, O., & Tani, M. (2016a). Ricostruire le risorse locali per competere nel turismo. Alcune evidenze dal caso di Sextantio Hotel/The rediscovery of local assets for tourism competition. Some evidence from the case of Sextantio Hotel. *Il Capitale Culturale. Studies on the Value of Cultural Heritage*, *13*, 467–495. Retrieved from https://riviste.unimc.it/index.php/cap-cult/article/view/1362/1050

Partidario, M. R. (2001). Strategic environmental assessment - principles and potential. In L. N. McCold (Ed.), *Handbook of Environmental Impact Assessment* (Volume 1, Environmental Impact Assessment: Process, Methods and Potential, pp. 60–73). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Science. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1466046600002350

Passet, R. (1996). *L'économique et le vivant* (2e éd.). Paris: Economica. https://doi.org/10.3917/econo.passe.1996.01

Pine II, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (2000). *L'economia delle esperienze*. Milano: Etas.

Poudel, S., Nyaupane, G. P., & Budruk, M. (2016). Stakeholders' perspectives of sustainable tourism development: A new approach to measuring outcomes. *Journal of Travel Research*, *55*(4), 465–480. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287514563166

Pulido Fernandez, J. I., & Sanchez, R. M. (2009). Measuring tourism sustainability: proposal for a composite index. *Tourism Economics*, *15*(2), 277–296. https://doi.org/10.5367/000000009788254377

Rasoolimanesh, S. M., & Jaafar, M. (2017). Sustainable tourism development and residents' perceptions in World Heritage Site destinations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *22*(1), 34–48. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2016.1175491

Richards, G., & Hall, D. (2000). *Tourism and Sustainable Community Development*. London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203464915

Ross, S., & Evans, D. (2002). Use of life cycle assessment in environmental management. *Environmental Management*, *29*(1), 132–142. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-001-0046-7

Ross, S., & Wall, G. (1999). Ecotourism: Towards congruence between theory and practice. *Tourism Management*, *20*(1), 123–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(98)00098-3

Samuel-Johnson, K., & Esty, D. (2002). *2002 Environmental Sustainability Index* (pp. 1–86). An Initiative of the Global Leaders of Tomorrow Environment Task Force, World Economic. In collaboration with Yale Center for Environmental Law and Policy (Yale University), Center for International Earth Science Information Network (Columbia University). Annual Meeting, 2002. Retrieved from https://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/es/esi/ESI2002_21MAR02a.pdf

Schaltegger, S. (2002). A Framework for Ecopreneurship: Leading Bioneers and Environmental Managers to Ecopreneurship. *Greener Management International*, *38,* 45–58. https://doi.org/10.9774/GLEAF.3062.2002.su.00006

Schlange, L. E. (2009). Stakeholder Identification in Sustainability Entrepreneurship. *Greener Management International*, *55*, 13–32. https://doi.org/10.9774/GLEAF.3062.2006.au.00004

Schmitz, A., Urbano, D., Dandolini, G. A., De Souza, J. A., & Guerrero, M. (2017). Innovation and entrepreneurship in the academic setting: a systematic literature review. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, *13*(2), 369–395. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-016-0401-z

Schneider, A. E., & Donaghy, W. (1975). *Organizational communication*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Schumpeter, J. A. (2017). *Theory of economic development.* London: Routledge.

https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315135564

Selman, P. (1999). Three decades of environmental planning: what have we really learned? In M. Kenny & J. Meadowcroft (Eds.), *Planning Sustainability* (pp. 148–175). London: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203058695

Sharpley, R. (2000). Tourism and sustainable development: exploring the theoretical divide. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *8*(1), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580008667346

Slater S. F., &. Narver, J. C. (1999). Market-Oriented is More than Being Customer-Led. *Strategic Management Journal*, *20*(12), 1165–1168. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0266(199912)20:12<1165::AID-SMJ73>3.0.CO;2-#

Stankey, G. H., Cole, D. N., Lucas, R. C., Petersen, M. E. & Frissell, S. S. (1985). *The limits of acceptable change (LAC) system for wilderness planning*. The limits of acceptable change (LAC) system for wilderness planning (INT-176). https://doi.org/10.5962/bhl.title.109310

Stoeckl, N., Walker, D., Mayocchi, C., & Roberts, B. (2004). *Douglas Shire Sustainable Futures: Strategic Planning for Implementation Project Report*. Canberra: CSIRO Sustainable Ecosystems.

Tani, M., & Papaluca, O. (2015). Local resources to compete in the global business: The case of Sextantio hotels. In A. A. Camillo (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Global Hospitality and Tourism Management* (pp. 119–141). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-8606-9.ch008

Tani, M., Papaluca, O., & Sasso, P. (2018). The system thinking perspective in the open-innovation research: A systematic review. *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, *4*(3), 38. https://doi.org/10.3390/joitmc4030038

Telfer, D. J., & Hashimoto, A. (2006). Resource management: social, cultural, physical environment and the optimization of impacts. In D. Buhalis & C. Costa (Eds.), *Tourism management dynamics: trends, management and tools* (pp. 145–156). Elsevier: Amsterdam. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-7506-6378-6.50026-3

Tepelus, C. M., & Castro Cordoba, R. (2005). Recognition schemes in tourism—from 'eco' to 'sustainability*? Journal of Cleaner Production*, *13*, 135–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2003.12.015

Tsaur, S. H., Lin, Y. C., & Lin, J. H. (2006). Evaluating ecotourism sustainability from the integrated perspective of resource, community and tourism. *Tourism Management*, *27*, 640–653. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.02.006

Turner, R. K., Pearce, D., & Bateman, I. (1994). *Enviormental Economics: An Elementary Introduction*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Vandekerckhove, W., & Dentchev, N. A. (2005). A network perspective on stakeholder management: Facilitating entrepreneurs in the discovery of opportunities. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *60*(3), 221–232. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-005-0130-7

Wackernagel, M., & Rees, N. E. (1996). *Our Ecological Footprint: Reducing the Human Impact on the Earth*. Gabriola Island, B.C., Canada: New Society Publishers.

Welford, R. (1995). *Environmental Strategy and Sustainable Development*. London: Routledge.

Wheeler, B. (1993). Sustaining the ego. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *1*(2), 121–129. https://doi.org/10.1080/09669589309450710

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case Study Research. Design and Methods*. Beverly Hills*:* Sage.

Notes

Note 1. The ESI's categories are assessing environmental systems, stresses on environmental systems, human vulnerability to environmental change, social and institutional capacity to deal with environmental challenges and compliance with international standards and agreements.

Note 2. For futher information see Moore et al. (2003).

Note 3. Authors define five different carrying capacities: Ecological-environmental capacity; Physical-facility capacity; Social-perceptual capacity; Economic carrying capacity; Psychological capacity.