The connection between ethnic minorities and domestic environmental conservation destinations in the East Midlands

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Abstract

This paper explores the engagement of ethnic minorities with environmental conservation destinations in the East Midlands. Ethnic minorities have been noted, particularly by the media, as being largely absent from engaging with tourist destinations centred on the English countryside (Countryfile, 2009; Prasad, 2004; Jeffries, 2005; John, 2004; John, 2005). Such reports initiated an investigation to explore why such environmental destinations appeared to be failing to engage successfully with this specific profile of consumer.

The literature review found that the industry perspective to date has been largely unexplored. In turn, this study provides a key stakeholder perspective on the issue of ethnic minorities as consumers to environmental tourist destinations, through the use of ten in-depth interviews. Consequently, a thematic analysis approach was taken to the data to identify trends and themes.

For tourist providers who seek to expand their consumer base and market to ethnic minorities, it is argued that further profile segmentation should also be strongly considered by providers to gain a greater understanding of the issue. When considering the barriers hindering ethnic minority engagement, many of the deterrents are most severe when considering an additional profile feature; that of residing in an 'urban deprived' location. In addition, many of the barriers seen as deterring ethnic minorities are also simultaneously applicable to the wider under-represented group of the 'urban deprived', regardless of ethnicity.

Furthermore, considering the incentives for tourist providers, this study judges that engaging with the most under-represented groups in society is best suited to environmental conservation destinations based in more urban areas.

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2.0 Introduction

The British natural environment is a spectacle that has provided a focal point for a tourism industry to develop around. The domestic tourism industry is vast, with British residents spending "£18.7bn" on "overnight stays" and "£46bn" on "day trips" to visit areas of their home country (Visit England, 2013:1). More specifically, between March 2012 and February 2013, English adults made "2.85bn" trips to the domestic natural environment, suggesting the demand to engage with the British outdoors is enormous (Natural England, 2013:i).

Despite the general popularity of the British outdoors, specifically British ethnic minorities have been noted as a particular segment that form a minimal part of natural environment consumers. In 2009, BBC *Countryfile* magazine reported, "around 10 per cent of the UK population is of an ethnic minority background, only about 1 per cent of visitors to national parks are from ethnic minorities" (2009; web source). Furthermore, Trevor Phillips, Chair of the Commission of Racial Equality's drew great attention to the "absence of Black and Asian faces from the countryside" by stating it as a form of "passive apartheid'" (cited in John, 2004: web source). Whilst there has not been extensive statistical works on the issue, there appears a general reported trend within the media that ethnic minorities are not engaging with their domestic natural environment to the same extent as their White British 'mainstream' counterparts (Jeffries, 2005; John, 2004; John, 2005; Prasad, 2004;).

Influenced by the researcher's humanities and arts experience, whilst seeking to employ the social science research practice, this study explores the engagement between ethnic minorities and environmental conservation destinations. The investigation compromised of ten interviews with key stakeholders within the conservation and environmental industry, to gain their perspective and experiences on this issue.

The conservation industry provides an interesting sphere to study the issue of widening consumer engagement. For many, the environmental conservation industry struggles with a balancing act of both people engagement and preservation of natural habitats (Newsome et al., 2005: Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Suckall et al, 2009:). In contrast to many other tourist operators, who simply look to expand their consumer base, the conservation industry has to consider aims other than simply profitability and consider the preservation of the natural environment (Newsome et al., 2005: Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001; Suckall et al, 2009:). Effects of tourism such as littering, and the building of facilities for increased visitors, can potentially jeopardise the long-term future of the natural environment and in turn the core competency of the business itself (GhulamRabbany et al., 2013; Isaacs, 2000, Shackley, 1996). However, the reverse debate argues that tourist interaction with such destinations encourages environmental concern and can generate revenues to fund further conservation (GhulamRabbany et al., 2013; Wilson & Tisdell, 1999).

Certainly, people engagement can generate income but an additional focus on an intangible asset that of spreading a conservation message, may explain the lack of private stakeholders operating within the industry. Instead, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and the government appear to dominate the industry: the government funded National Park Authority operates national parks across the country (National Parks, 2014a). The main stakeholders operating publically accessible environmental sites across the UK are the National Trust, The Wildlife Trust and The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (RSPB), all of which are registered conservation charities (National Trust, 2014a; RSPB, 2014; Wildlife Trust, 2014). The involvement of state money within the industry and the charitable status of many of the actors within the industry, may explain why the diversity of its consumer base has come under particular scrutiny (Suckall et al., 2005).

The East Midlands, has been selected as the area of exploration, although stakeholders with a national focus have not been overlooked. The East

Midlands compromises of the counties of Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, Rutland and most of Lincolnshire (East Midlands Tourism, 2014). Three of the top four, admission-free attractions for tourists in the area in 2009 were sites which engage in environmental conservation; Rufford Abbey and Country Park had "442,000" visitors, Sherwood Forest Country Park had "337,360" and Attenborough Nature Reserve had "266,640" visitors in that year (Visit England, 2009: 1). To the North of the region, the county of Derbyshire holds large parts of the Peak District National Park. The Peak District National park has an estimated "8.4" million visitors a year, who spend an estimated combined total of "£356m" a year (STEAM reports, 2009 cited in National Parks, 2014b: web source). Moreover, the conservation industry employs "2,900" people in "120" business across the area (Lantra, 2011: web source). Consequently, the conservation tourism industry appears an important aspect of the region's economy.

Furthermore, parts of the East Midlands particularly Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire hold high levels of ethnic diversity, which make it an interesting study for this project (BBC 2012a; RaceCard, 2014). In fact, after the 2011 census, the city of Leicester was described as the nation's most "ethnically diverse city", with only half of residents self-defining their ethnicity as White British, compared to an national city average of "80" per cent (BBC, 2012; web source). Around 35 per cent of residents in Nottingham City do not define themselves as White British (2011 census cited in RaceCard, 2014: web source).

2.1 Definitions

Environmental conservation tourism: Writing in 1991, Lindberg states there is "no standard definition of nature tourism", but believes that nature tourism is distinguished from other forms of tourism by being less developed and less crowded (1991:4). Possibly due to the infant nature of eco-tourism literature the author views nature tourism and eco-tourism as synonymous (Lindberg, 1991:4). However, eco-tourism is a highly loaded and disputed term, with varying definitions assigning varying levels of

environmental and social responsibility to the tourist and tourist provider (Miller & Kaae 1993 figured in Orams, 1995: Campbell, 1999):

For instance, Shackley defines eco-tourism as being "sustainable" providing the visitor with "a unique and outstanding experience", and "maintain[ing] the quality of the environment [of which it is located]" (1996:6). Whereas the International Ecotourism Society (TIES) believes eco-tourists also have a responsibility to have a positive effect on the "well-being of local people" (TIES, 1990 cited on TIES, 2014: web source).

Consequently, this study will avoid the loaded term of eco-tourism and will explore specifically environmental conservation tourism destinations. Such areas will be defined as destinations, open to the general public centred on observations of natural scenery or non-captive wildlife. In addition, to fulfil the 'conservation' aspect of the term those operating this destination (not necessarily the visitors) must also be committed to ensuring the future preservation of the natural environment.

Ethnic minorities: Askins choses to refer to what this study terms as 'ethnic minorities' as "visible communities" believing that it better portrays "power inequalities endemic in English society, which are commonly grounded in perceptions of inferiority and threat attached to visible difference from a white 'norm'" (2009:367). Similarly, NGO the Black Environment Network (BEN) uses the term 'black' within its name despite working will all ethnic minorities but argues "that the black communities are the most visible of all ethnic groups" (BEN, 2014a: web source). However, due to heavy use of interviews within this study, it was decided that the frequently used term 'ethnic minorities' would be used for ease of communication between researcher and participants.

Ethnicity has been defined as:

"An ethnic group is a collectivity within a larger population having real or putative common ancestry, memories of a shared past, and a cultural

focus upon one or more symbolic elements which define the group's identity, such as kinship, religion, language, shared territory, nationality or physical appearance." (Bulmer 1996 cited in Afkhami, 2012: 7).

As ethnicity largely involves finding commonalties between groups of people, Burton et al. states; "The concept of ethnicity can be approached in a number of ways – as commonalities within a group or as differences from 'other' groups" (2008: abstract). The term 'ethnic minorities' encompasses an incredibly diverse body of cultures, heritages and customs (Gentin, 2011). In terms of Burton (2008) we are exploring 'minorities' and as such we are exploring those who hold differences from the host countries traditional collective traits. In turn, 'ethnic minorities', in this study covers anyone who would not self-define themselves as White British. Due to the majority of people living in Britain (80.5 per cent in 2011) defining themselves as 'White British', this section of society may be referred to during the study as 'mainstream society' (BBC, 2012b).

Ethnic minorities hold a rich history in the UK. The first mass immigration of ethnic minorities was in the 1950s when the UK government encouraged members of the Commonwealth to migrate to Britain to supply the economic boom that followed the end of the Second World War, with many choosing to settle and build families in the country (Giggs, 2006). The decades that followed were a troubled period for race relations; in the East Midlands city of Nottingham race riots involved up to 1000 people in 1958 (Giggs, 2006). However, more recently governmental legislation and popular consensus has promoted race equality: the introduction of the Equality Act (2010) provided a legal framework to ensure equal opportunities regardless of race, religion and gender (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2014). Likewise, in 2006 it became illegal to incite religious and racial hatred (CPS, 2014). In popular culture, the once White dominated British sport of football, now promotes a strong anti-racism campaign in "Show Racism the Red Card" (Srtrc.org, 2014). Such policies and campaigns suggest that the British society is following a policy of embracing ethnic diversity.

2.2 The Research Questions:

This study will explore the connection between ethnic minorities and environmental conservation destinations, with a focus on the East Midlands. To enable this, the topic will be broken down into four main research questions. As this research is highly exploratory, questions are designed to allow a fluid approach to further analysis:

1. From participants' experience, are ethnic minorities underrepresented as environmental conservations consumers?
2. What are the incentives for ethnic minorities to visit environmental conservation destinations?
3. What are the incentives for tourist providers to undertake campaigns to encourage a greater proportion of ethnic minority visitors?
4. From your experience what is/are acting as barriers to prevent ethnic minorities from visiting environmental conservation sites?

First, this paper will explore the existing literature surrounding ethnic minorities' connection with environmental tourism destinations, whilst also exploring more widely the debate of ethnicity and engagement with nature. Second, the methodology will outline the thematic nature of the study and justify the use of interviews as a research method. Third, a thematic analysis will be undertaken to find trends within the oral evidence provided, and these themes are outlined in the findings section. The implications of these findings are subsequently considered in the discussion.

The paper argues that many of the barriers stated by participants as deterring ethnic minorities from environmental conservation destinations, frequently need to be considered in conjunction with other "profile" segmentations, particularly the 'urban deprived' (Jobber, 2010:264). The barriers stated are often most pronounced for ethnic minorities living in urban deprived areas or are simultaneously held by those residing in such

areas, regardless of ethnicity. Moreover, considering the incentives for tourist providers and barriers for urban deprived consumers, this study judges that initiatives to engage with the most under-represented of consumers is best suited to more urban rather than rural environmental destinations.

3.0 Literature Review

The absence of ethnic minorities as visitors to environmental destinations and publicly accessible green space is an expanding body of work (Askins, 2006, 2009; Elmendorf et al., 2000; Floyd, 1999, 2001: Taylor et al., 2011 etc). A correlation between a growing UK governmental equality agenda and research highlighting the lack of ethnic minority involvement in the domestic environment can be observed (Jay et al., 2010). Initially, this literature review will briefly explore the prominent debates within environmental tourism. However, this study will also side step from the sphere of tourism and draw on the work of psychologists, sociologists, historians and geographers, to explore wider considerations that may hold repercussions for ethnic minorities as environmental tourists. Consequently, this analysis will survey debates including psychological engagement with nature, access to open spaces, and feelings of discrimination in environmental areas, with the aim of providing a holistic view of the environmental tourism destination's ethnic minority appeal.

3.1 *Environmental Tourism*: As discussed in the introduction, debates in environmental tourism literature often focus on the interplay between tourist providers, tourists and their effects on the local economy, native residents and environmental sustainability (Lindberg, 1991;Shackley, 1996; Isaacs, 2000; Newsome et al, 2001). Possibly due to growing concern of the effects of tourism on animals (Isaacs, 2000), Newsome et al. argue that a "shift", particularly in the domestic environmental tourism industry, has occurred amongst wildlife consumers who now hold a preference for viewing animals in the wild as opposed to captivity (2005:9). Curtin & Wilkes have also noted a movement in wildlife tourism in recent decades; the industry is moving from a "highly specialised market" for avid nature fans towards a "more general market" for those with a "general interest" in wildlife (2005: 475).

Considering this trend, Reynolds & Braithwaite's (2001) model of wildlife tourism aims to provide a framework, which balances the demands of tourist operators to provide a marketable experience with the demands

for environmental sustainability. Wildlife tourism activities that score highly on the "effects to the environment" criteria such as "group hunting" call for greater environmental management (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001: 39). Wildlife activities that score highly on "richness of experience" should charge a higher fee than less rich experiences to exploit the greater demand for these pursuits (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001: 39). In addition, wildlife activities that score highly on "effects to the environment" should also charge a higher entry fee to consumers than less damaging pursuits; this is to deter this type of consumption and to create revenue to fund conservation efforts (Reynolds & Braithwaite, 2001: 39).

The unique and strong contextual factors that often form the appeal of specific nature and wildlife tourist destinations has often led to the environmental tourism business model being referred to as "monopolistic" (Isaacs, 2000; Lindberg, 1991). However, as Cloke argues (1993) environmental tourist operators, in a bid to increase consumers, are engaging in the "society of the spectacle" (1993: 63). The author argues that additional and highly replicable features such as exhibition centres, cafes and themed events have "commodified" countryside areas of interest and "are unrelated to the specific reality of a place, its landscape and its history" (Cloke, 1993: 65). Clearly the ever-changing environmental tourist industry is closely monitored for its impacts.

3.12 ***Benefits of environmental recreation:*** Reynolds and Braithwaite argue that there is a "need" to recognise the benefits to human well-being of environmental recreation to establish "the social and economic benefit" of wildlife tourism, which this next section aims to uncover (2001:31). Close connection between the natural environment and societal wellbeing is not a new phenomenon; during the Victorian era tourism to natural environments was promoted as offering "refreshment" to the harsh realities of the industrialised urbanity of the cities (Cherry, 1993: 23). Middle-class evangelicals promoted open-air "rational" recreation as an alternative to recreational areas such as the pub, which discouraged self-sufficiency and hard work (Taylor, 1997: 2).

Monograph *Biophilia* argues that individuals demand to view wildlife is "innate" and that humans hold a "tendency to focus on life and lifelike process" (Wilson, 1984: 1). Certainly the mental health benefits have been noted by academics: Psychologists Ulrich et al. exposed "120 volunteers" to a distressing video, and then showed videos of either an "urban" or "natural" environment (1991: 210). The study found "recuperation was more complete when subjects were exposed to the natural settings" (Ulrich et al., 1991: 222). Similarly, Kaplan believes the natural environment has a positive effect on psychological "restorative experiences" (1995: 169). Even simply viewing nature has been deemed to have positive effects on attention capacity (Tennessen & Cimprich, 1995).

The psychological benefits for children of engaging with nature are raised by Moss (2012). Moss refers to a lack of child involvement as "Nature Deficit Disorder" (2012: 4). Moss (2012) believes active involvement in the environment during childhood is a positive precursor to active involvement in the environment during adulthood. As a result, at present the author believes that the conservation tourist industry may struggle to survive in future years if it continues to fail to attract younger members (2011).

Certainly, ethnic minorities can benefit from the above universal benefits. Nevertheless, Jay & Schraml, (2009) argue that society as a whole can benefit from greater involvement of ethnic minorities in green spaces because such areas are complimentary to encouraging socialisation and integration with the wider society. Yet, Elemendorf et al.'s survey of Black and White citizens living in Atlanta, US and Philadelphia, US found that "Blacks were statistically less likely than Whites to perceive urban parks and forest as providing benefits" (2005; 321). Such research suggests that marketing campaigns, regarding the promotion of environmental recreation may need adapting to resonate with ethnic minorities (Winter et al, 2004). For instance, Winter et al.'s study of Asian American's participation in outdoor recreations suggests that tour operators need to

consider advertising through specific "ethnic media" channels and varying languages to portray their message (2004; 133).

3.13 ***Profiling the Environmental Tourist:*** The environmental tourism industry has often been depicted to attract a very specific market segment (Warren et al., 2014). Ballantine & Eagles (1994), surveyed 120 Canadian travellers to Kenya, a country whose tourism attractions revolve heavily around the natural environment to profile the eco-tourist. The authors study found that such tourists held socio-demographic factors that were usually "older", "highly educated", "well-off financially" and also psychographic factors such as a "strong interest in nature" (Ballantine and Eagles; 1994: 212-213). The comfortable income of the environmental traveller (Ballantine & Eagles, 1994) is in line with post-materialism theory that argues concern and interest for nature and the environment (intangible goods) occurs more frequently in those that have high "socio-economic security" (Inglehart, 1990 cited in Hassler, 2006:2).

Within these broad profiles, distinctions between environmental tourists are often made by the level of raw engagement that nature consumers wish to embark on. Duffus & Dearden suggest that increased levels of "supportive infrastructure" are needed for the "wildlife generalists" compared to the experienced and knowledgeable "wildlife specialist" (1990: 222). Lindberg creates further distinction and believes there are four types of nature tourist, defined by their intensity of visitation: "hard-core", "dedicated", "mainstream", and "casual nature" (1991: 4).

Very recently, Dorceta Taylor has highlighted the absence of ethnic minorities working in environmental organisations in the US has led to an "overwhelmingly white" "Green Insiders' Club" (2014:1). The report found that despite ethnic minorities comprising 36 per cent of the US population, such sections of society never formed more than "16" per cent of any of the "191" environmental organisations assessed, (Taylor, 2014:1). This suggests that ethnic minorities are very absent as employees of the environmental industry and may hold repercussions to the extent the industry is able to create initiatives that resonate with ethnic minorities.

3.2 ***Domestic Environment as a symbol of nationalism:*** The connection between nature and evoking nationalistic feeling is an area explored in environmental literature. Jay & Schraml (2009) believe that forests offer "strong symbolic identification" for the nationalistic image of Germany. Environmental author and broadcaster Stephen Moss (2011), explores a nations connection with birds. Moss argues that the British hold a "unique relationship" with birds (2011: 8). As such Moss' (2011) argument suggests that nationality plays an important part in connection to wildlife. With quotes from leading figures in the wildlife industry, Moss (2011) believes the special British relationship has evolved throughout history. The importance of history in the British relationship with birds, has meant that certain birds have become symbolic of 'Britishness': quoting Kate Humble on the decline of the Puffin "we would be losing a part of our heritage, a part of what makes Britain, Britain" (cited in Moss, 2011: 169)**.**

The nationalisation of the domestic environment goes further with Neal & Agyeman believing that it is the British rural environment, which embodies a "timelessness" which creates the image of the domestic countryside holding "notions of nation and national belonging" (2006: 108) rather than the urban environment that speaks to the "notion of un-Englishness" (2006: 106). In addition, the authors suggest a level of conflict between the rural and urban areas exists; such conflict was demonstrated by the 2004 fox-hunting ban where support for the ban was largely from urban areas and opposition from rural areas (Neal & Agyeman, 2006: 105-106). This in turns suggests a polarisation between urban and rural.

The nationalistic symbolism of the domestic rural environment may hold unsettling ramifications for ethnic minorities and their desire to visit the countryside (Neal & Agyeman, 2006). Similarly Ling Wong (n.d) argues that within the environmental industry there is a general praise of native plant species and discouragement of foreign plant species. Such academic research may contribute to an explanation of why ethnic memories have

reported a "subliminal message" to not visit the countryside (Moss, 2004: 327)

3.3 ***Individual engagement with nature:*** The form in which various people psychologically engage with nature may hold invaluable insights for the environmental tourist marketing coordinator (Milfont et al, 2006). In a literature review of psychological engagement with wildlife, Newsome et al. suggested that four types of engagement had emerged: "dominionistic" focused on human supremacy over animals, the "utilitarian" view concentrating on the business and health benefits of wildlife tourism to humans, the "moralistic" which is concerned with "animal rights" and finally the "protectionist" view, which sees the major aim of wildlife tourism as future conservation (2005: 92-96). Yet the study made no reference to whether certain ethnicities leaned towards certain categories (Newsome et al., 2005).

Furthermore a study by the RPSB on children's connection with nature unveiled surprising results (RSPB, 2013). The study found that 21 per cent of urban children scored a score of 1.5 of more on the connection with nature scale devised by the researchers, whilst rural children scored unexpectedly lower at 20 per cent (RSPB, 2013: 9). Nevertheless, the study disclosed little information about other socio-demographic features of the participants such as their parents income, ethnicity or how they were recruited for the study, all of which may hold great repercussions for such research (RSPB, 2013).

Increasingly, studies are focusing on ethnicity and psychological engagement with nature (Jay & Schraml, 2009; Milfont et al. 2006; Parker & McDonough, 1999). Jay & Schraml's (2009) explorative study investigated the connection and use of Germany's forest areas by Turkish, Russian Germans and Balkans ethnic minorities. Through the use of questionnaires, the study found that varying ethnicities perceived forests differently (Jay & Schraml, 2009). Whether participants were first, or second generation immigrants also affected perception of the forest (Jay & Schraml, 2009). The study found that media images from ethnic

minorities' country of origin proved to influence perceptions of the forest (Jay & Schraml, 2009). The generality of this study should be approached with caution; the sample of total of 30 ethnic minorities was small and some participants were recruited using "convenience sampling", suggesting that a wide scope of ethnic minority views may have been omitted (Jay & Schraml, 2009: 286).

Specifically environmental concern has been analysed to explore humans' connection with nature and wildlife. Milfont et al. (2006) explore if motives for environmental concern differs between Asian New Zealanders and European New Zealanders. The research finds that Asian New Zealanders were motivated highly by "egotistic concern" (what the environment does for oneself) factors; whilst European New Zealanders were motivated by "biospheric concern" (the health of the whole planet) reasons (Milfont et al, 2006:745). Similarly, Parker & McDonough (1999) explore differences of environmental concern between African and European Americans. The authors found that African Americans showed high levels of concern for tangible issues of environmental concern, whilst European Americans showed higher concern "about abstract concepts" (Parker & McDonough, 1999: 19). Consequently, the existence of African American environmental concern, has led the authors to reject any assertions that internal culture determines the existence of any trace of environmental concern (Parker & McDonough, 1999). Instead a "barrier" "of feeling powerlessness" has meant that African Americans may fail to connect with more abstract environmental concern matters (Parker & McDonough, 1999: 173). Complementing the recent research of Dorceta Taylor (2014), Parker & McDonough (1999) that such inability to act, may stem from the lack of proactive participation amongst African Americans in environmental groups. Such research arguably has repercussions for what aspects of issues environmental groups should bring to the forefront of emotive marketing material for different ethnicities (Milfont et al, 2006).

However, increasingly researchers are arguing that it is too simplistic to explore the level of environmental concern with just the variability factor

of ethnicity (Newell & Green, 1997, Taylor, 1989). Newell & Green (1997) argue that level of education and income has a role in determining the level of environmental concern. In contrast to Milfont et al.'s (2006) contributions, material promoting increased environmental concern should not treat ethnic minority groups as a "homogenous group of consumers" and instead acknowledge the variation within ethnic communities (Newell & Green, 1997: 66).

3.4 ***Ethnicity and Access to Green space:*** Several works have covered accessibility to green space with the definition of green space being wide; including cemeteries, parks and school playing fields (Barbosa et al, 2007; Comber et al, 2007). Rather than looking simply at specified environmental destinations, this all-encompassing definition of natural space is a likely result of most studies being concentrated in urban areas, where vast green spaces are frequently limited.

Barbosa et al. (2007), use the case study of Sheffield to explore government agency English Nature's (now Natural England) recommendation that no one should be more than 300m from green space (Natural England: 23). The study found that only 18 per cent of Sheffield's residents lived within the recommended limit (Barbosa et al, 2007). Those who held the greatest access to such spaces were "the least affluent and the elderly", yet no distinction was made in terms of ethnicity (Barbosa et al., 2007: 194). Comber et al, (2008) however, did use ethnicity as their determining variable for research of access to green space. Considering the issue of ethnicity, it is unsurprising that Comber et al's (2008) study was based in the UK's most ethnically diverse city; the East Midlands city of Leicester (BBC News, 2011). With a similar methodology to the Barbosa et al (2007) study, Comber et al. (2008) found the ethnic communities defined as "Indian" and the religious groups defined as "Sikh" and "Hindu" had the least access to green space and as such implying ethnic minorities are particularly detracted from nature (Comber et al., 2008:109).

Concurring with Comber et al (2008) a case study of Lincoln Park, Chicago uncovered that ethnic minorities travelled further than non-ethnic minority users of the park (Gobster, 2002). The study highlighted the methodological difficulties of data collection from ethnic minorities, by undergoing translation of the questionnaire into Spanish for non-English speaking American-Hispanic participants (Gobster, 2002). In addition, two surveys had to be undertaken because of the lack of ethnic participants available to take part in the first survey (Gobster, 2002).

Bucking a trend of access to designated environmental space, David Lindo (2013) believes that nature is everywhere in urban spaces, city dwellers simply need to look for it. Lindo's mantra is simple; "look up" (2013: 18). However, Lindo (2013) who will be interviewed for this study appears to hold an innate connection with nature and thus in practice engaging in nature may not be so simple for others.

3.41 ***Ethnic minorities as Visitors to National Parks****:* The history of the formation of the UK's national parks holds social inclusion at its core (Hill, 1980). Driven by the hardship and conditions of urbanity, created by the industrial revolution many had a desire for rural recreation in the form of rambling during the first half of the nineteenth century (Hill, 1980). However, this desire was supressed by the landed gentry and their punishments to trespassers (Hill, 1980). In 1949 the government eventually responded to this demand for public access to the domestic countryside with the "National Parks and access to the Countryside Act [which] oversaw that establishment of ten national parks areas" (Neal and Agyeman, 2006: 103).

However, 'Transport and Tourism Officer' for the North Yorks Moors, Bill Breakwell (2002) believes that the very sections of society that encouraged the inception of the UK's National Parks are no longer visiting. Breakwell (2002), through a survey of North York Moors visitors believes that the provision of public transport is a necessity to encourage visitors from less affluent demographics. We could assume that Breakwell's (2002) decision to focus on transport accessibility, rather than an

exploration of multiple factors influencing park attendance, is a result of his job role.

Floyd (1999, 2001) is the seminal author on ethnic minority involvement in US national parks. Being one of the primary authors in this field, Floyd (1999, 2001) simply calls for greater attention and exploration of the lack of ethnic minority national park visitors. Floyd (1999,2001) reviews a number of prominent exclusion theories and the lack of decisive conclusion may be due to the absence of a systematic methodology to collate primary research. Pendergast (2006) offers a similar insight on this topic from a UK perspective, exploring the Peak District National Park. The author calls for ethnic minorities to be exposed to greater information about national parks so as to make an educated decision as to whether to visit such places (Pendergast, 2006)

Suckall et al. (2005) look to directly address the absence of both 'working-class' and ethnic minorities in the Peak District Park. Unlike Breakwell (2002), little evidence was found to suggest that lack of transportation formed a barrier for ethnic minorities, yet it must be noted that the two studies were exploring different national parks (Suckall et al. 2005). Instead Suckall et al. (2005) recommended that removing the dominant discourse that nature should be only be considered in the same way as the White English Romantics observed it, would allow those who do not share these traits a greater feeling of accessibility.

Other profile features in conjunction with ethnicity have also been raised as influential: Askins believes "socio-economic position was a key factor" for ethnic minorities on the decision to visit national parks (2006: 161). This importance of wealth as an influencer of ethnic minorities decision to visit national parks is raised because "visible communities [ethnic minorities] are over-represented in the lower classes" (2006:155). Askins' study, which questioned ethnic minority visitors to the Peak District and North Yorkshire Moors National Parks, found participants viewed such environmental tourism destinations as middle-class spaces" (2006:150).

The research indicated that cost was one of the main deterrents to visitors (Askins, 2006). In addition concurring with Floyd's (1999) findings, for female visitors Askins found a "lack of confidence to" to visit rural areas on their own influenced their decision to visit national parks (2006:157).

In the US, Taylor et al. (2011) found that African Americans and Hispanic Americans held the lowest attendance to national parks. The findings found that Asian Americans were least likely to focus their trip around open-air attractions and focus on attractions such as visitor centres (Taylor et al., 2011). The authors found that "lack of knowledge" of the countries national parks and activities was the biggest cited reason for White non-Hispanic lack of visitations (2011: 19).

3.42 ***Culture and Recreation Preferences****:* Washburn's (1978) "Ethnicity/subculture theory" is based on the premise that "recreation behaviours can be attributed to different norms, value systems and socialization practices adhered to by racial and ethnic groups independent of socioeconomic factors" (cited in Floyd, 1999:3 also explained in Stanfield et al, 2005:248; Byrne and Wolch, 2009:749; Gramann, 1996:23). As such the theory suggests that varying cultures may affect recreation preference (Floyd, 1993:3). Geert Hofstede's continuously influential works on culture has suggested to social scientists that those within different national cultures hold varying degrees of outlined traits "power distance" "uncertainty avoidance", "individualism" and "masculinity" all which shape culture (2014; web source). In terms of relevance to tourist providers, Nwankwo and Lindridge argue, "understanding the ethno-cultural values is a necessary step to reaching ethnic minority markets" (1998:205).

Echoing with post-materialistic theory, Shackley believes that western tourists can appreciate animal wildlife particularly in LDCs because of a "cultural gap" (1996:9). This is because unlike native inhabitants, western tourists are not "competing [with wildlife] for food or land" (Shackley, 1996:9). For the purpose of this study, Shackley's (1996) conclusions may hold repercussions for first-generation immigrants from LDCs and

their desire to engage with UK wildlife. Numerous studies conducted in western countries have found that ethnic minorities hold a preference for more managed natural environment landscapes, with greater man-made facilities (Buijs et al. 2009; Gobster, 2007; Floyd, 1999; Elmendorf et al. 2005). For Muslim-Dutch ethnic minorities, Buijs reasons this preference for more managed landscapes as that within "Islam there is a divine task for humans to manage nature and bring wild areas into culture" (2009: 121). Equally, Johnson proposes the idea of "collective memory" and argues that the associations of wildlife with "socio historical factors such as slavery, sharecropping and lynching" may explain a lack of interest in environmental recreation by African-Americans in America (1998: 11).

Unlike other literature on this topic Askin's (2009) work considers the views of environmental destination facilitators with regards to barriers to entry. The author's results stated that environmental industry figures believed that low uptake by ethnic minorities of environment-based destinations was due to ethnic minorities holding a different culture to "the majority white culture" and an absence of environmental recreation in ethnic minorities' culture (2009:4).

However, despite the seminal use of Hofstede's (2014) work, Li et al. (2007), believe that group labels based on ethnicity obscure the prevalent culture variety within these communities. After surveying Anglos, Hispanics and Asians cultural preferences, the authors found little consensus between groups labelled by ethnicity (Li et al, 2007). Likewise, when considering studies on "acculturation" (the process by which a minority culture begins to adopt the culture of the host country) national culture as a concept for judging tourism preferences, could be viewed as over-simplification (Nwankwo and Lindridge, 1998: 205). Particularly with second or more generation immigrants, or those that have spent a lengthy period in the United Kingdom, assimilation with British culture may be apparent (Segal & Sosa, 1983 cited in Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998:206-207). Despite measurement difficulties, acculturation questions assumptions made about culture preferences, when simply an ethnic

minorities' country of origin defines the cultural traits we expect (Nwankwo and Lindridge, 1998).

3.43 ***Environment, Ethnicity and Discrimination:*** The "discrimination theory", suggests that ethnic minorities are deterred from visiting open green areas because it is believed that they will be discriminated against (outlined in Byrne & Wolch, 2009:749; also outlined in Floyd, 2005; Stanfield et al. 2005). Floyd (1999) stated that his findings showed that discrimination influenced ethnic minorities' use of urban parks.

One of the industry's harshest critics Lohmann (2000) believes such discrimination is more than just perceived. Lohmann states that although individual members of the conservation movement are not "racist" the industry as a whole is (2000: 21). He believes that the issue of racism is largely unspoken; with few industry members brave enough to broach the issue (Lohmann, 2000). Lohmann holds a particular grievance with boundaries and controls placed on once public areas, by conservationists: "that conservationists often unwittingly behave a little like Norman Tebbit when they insist on certain human/nature boundaries" (2000:5).

Increasingly, works are exploring 'rural racism' in areas of the UK (Connolly, 2006; Robinson & Gardner, 2006; Dhillon, 2006). Such studies may hold repercussions for feelings of discrimination amongst ethnic minorities looking to connect with nature in the countryside or visit environmental tourism sites frequently located in outer city areas. Connolly's case study of Northern Ireland concludes racism "is a problem that can also be found in rural areas with predominately white populations" (2006:38). However Robinson & Gardner's case study of rural racism in Wales is "distinctive" from the rest of the UK, shaped by contextual factors specific to Wales (2006:69). Dhillion discusses the formation of NGOs such as the "Rural Anti-Racism Project (RARP)" (2006:218) are proactive steps to address the issue, but believes much further work by both NGOs and "DEFRA" is needed (2006:235). Stanfield et al. showed "predominantly white" participants pictures of parks with varying levels of visual ethnic minorities in and asked participants to rate

their level of comfort (2005;249). Photographs that contained only black visitors attracted the least level of comfort from participants (Stanfield et al., 2005).

Reports of ethnic minorities feeling that they are intruding in an area 'not meant for them', is an issue that appears in the literature (Moss, 2004; Askins, 2009). Second generation Jamaican immigrant birdwatcher, Lindo (2013) who often states that when he was birding in British nature reserves with his white British friends, it was often assumed by environmentalist and other environmental consumers, that it was his White friends who were the birding experts. Such anecdotal evidence suggests an unconscious belief; both in the environmental industry and wider public arena; that bird watching at advance level is the preserve of the white British. Furthermore, explicit discrimination has been explored by Gobster, whose study of ethnic minorities use of Urban Parks found that "one in 10 respondents said they had been discriminated against in the park; reports were highest amongst Blacks" (2002:151). Unenforced segregation, in terms of the dominance of certain races in particular sections of society was also noted (Gobster, 2002). Certainly, several researchers have found that ethnic minorities hold a preference for visiting green spaces in groups (Elmendorf et al, 3005; Floyd, 1999), yet it has not been clarified if this is a result of perceived discrimination.

Washburn's (1978) marginality hypothesis proposes that external discrimination, outside of recreational space also influences leisure pursuits. The marginality hypothesis argues that ethnic minorities have been discriminated against in terms of "education and the labour market", this has then affected employment prospects and income and thus their disposable income", which in turn prohibits their ability to engage in recreation (cited in Floyd, 2001:43, also explained in Stanfield, 2005:248 Byrne and Wolch, 2009: 749; Gramann, 1996:23: Lo and Jim, 2010). As we have previously discussed, works such as Askins (2006) strongly consider that the prevalence of low-income households among ethnic minorities and how this may influence their tourism preferences. Likewise, Elmendorf et al. state "gender, age, education and income were all found

to influence aspects of urban park and forest participation" (2005:323). Yet neither study has asserted that they believe these socio-economic variables are results of discrimination (Askins, 2006; Elmendorf, 2005).

3.5 *Solutions and Challenges* Floyd says "a major challenge to reaching this ideal [greater involvement of ethnic minorities in nature and wildlife destinations] is an improved understanding" (1999:19). Past research, greatly helps to remedy this challenge, yet greater knowledge is simply a first hurdle and little has been offered in terms of challenges of implementable solutions for tourist providers from academics. The BEN holds several small sections on the 'publications' part of their website related to guidance for tourist providers working with ethnic community groups but academic frameworks appear sparse (BEN, 2014b).

3.6 *Further exploration*: Whilst this study is primarily an exploration into the business of tourism this literature review has explored other educational disciplines to gain a greater understanding of what may influence ethnic minorities' connection to environmental tourism destinations. Much of the findings in this chapter have been derived from the use of questionnaires towards green space visitors and whilst this offers invaluable insights into the preferences of ethnic minority visitors, the room for in-depth exploration becomes restricted (Jay & Schraml's, 2009; Johnson, 1998; Elmendorf et al., 2005; Stanfield et al., 2005; Buijs et al., 2009; Milfont et al., 2006; Gobster et al., 2002). Much work exploring ethnic minorities as environmental tourism consumers has been explored in National Parks, but the literature is lacking on studies on non-governmental owned environmental destinations (Pendergast, 2005; Askins, 2006; Breakwell, 2002). In addition fee-paying environmental destinations have also been virtually unexplored. Few works have considered the opinions of tourist providers or those actively encouraging a wider client base, possibly because most studies are exploring from more of a sociological perspective rather than that of a business. As such, the opportunities that ethnic minorities provide as consumers, or the practical viability of implementing strategies to encourage a more diverse consumer base have not been greatly explored.

4.0 Methodology

The nature of this study was deemed to be highly explorative and a methodology was designed accordingly to reflect this. Qualitative methods were seen as the most appropriate technique to explore the issue in depth, particularly because there are few comprehensive statistics on the issue to facilitate an in-depth quantitative study. In addition, qualitative research is a method I am familiar with from my previous historical background. The research process of this highly inductive and highly interpretive study involved 10 in-depth semi-structured interviews that were conducted with stakeholders in the domestic conservation industry (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The study was influenced in part by a phenomenological element. Furthermore a thematic analysis was taken to compile the findings.

4.1 Use of Interviews

As stated in the literature review, much of the previous research regarding environmental tourism preferences and ethnicity has used questionnaires (Jay & Schraml's, 2009; Johnson, 1998; Elmendorf et al., 2005; Stanfield et al., 2005; Buijs et al., 2009; Milfont et al., 2006; Gobster et al., 2002). Whilst this research has provided invaluable insight into the tourism habits of ethnic minorities, questionnaires which are often constrained by set categories are "usually not particularly good for exploratory" research (Saunders et al., 2009). A purely ethnographical study was considered difficult to facilitate and a difficult way to tackle the crux of the issue (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Instead, interviews with industry experts were perceived to be the most suitable way to explore the issue in-depth (Daniels & Cannice, 2004; Krishnaswami & Satyaprasad, 2010). A number of interview questions were designed prior to interview (Appendix 1). However, interviews were intended to be highly exploratory and the pre-prepared questions were used only as a guide. This allowed participants influence in directing the flow of the interview. The fluid nature of the interviews also allowed

"inductive probing", which is where the researcher can ask the interviewee for further clarification, which in turn can help gain a more accurate understanding of the information provided (Guest et al., 2013:13).

Naturally, there are limitations to conducting interviews: First, arranging, conducting, transcribing and then analysing the interviews is costly in terms of time, and as a result only a small sample of ten could be feasibly interviewed for this study (Krishnaswami & Satyaprasad, 2010). Second, the level of articulation of the interviewee can arguably affect the quality of responses (Krishnaswami & Satyaprasad, 2010). However, as most the participants were educated professionals in this field this did not appear to pose an issue in practice. Third, the information that interviewees chose to disclose is very much left to their discretion and as such an accurate portrayal may not be achieved (Creswell, 2014). Fourth, there is the potential for my personal biases to become apparent to the participant in the way I frame questions of respond to information they provide, and as such I may unconsciously lead the findings (Saunders et al., 2009)

4.2 Selection of Participants

Due to time restraints and limited accessibility of participants, purposeful sampling was used. As Silverman argues "purposive sampling demands that we think critically about the parameters of the population we are studying" (2013:148). Consequently, the criteria, of which participants only had to satisfy one, are outlined below:

1. Works within an environmental conservation destination which had at least part of its jurisdiction based in the East Midlands
2. Has been part of an initiative to encourage ethnic minorities to engage with domestic wildlife
3. Has held a public-profile role in the environmental industry

The Peak District National Park covers parts of Yorkshire and the West Midlands, but due to its heavy presence in the county of Derbyshire,

participants with a professional affinity to this destination were considered.

Ethnic minorities, unless they fulfilled one of the above criteria were not approached to be part of this study. Two main reasons led to this decision: first, research has outlined the potential difficulties in gaining access to ethnic minority groups (Altinay & Wang, 2009; Wendler et al, 2005). First, it can be a time consuming process to establish trust between the researcher and the participant through informal processes (Altinay & Wang, 2009). Second, much of the existing research has already explored environmental connections from the perspective of the ethnic minorities (Gobster et al., 2002 Buijs et al., 2009;Milfont et al.,etc). Instead the perspective of the industry stakeholders towards this issue has been left largely unexplored in comparison and thus became the basis for this study (explored partially by Askins, 2006).

Responses to initial contact were slow, out of 22 enquires for participants, 45 per cent of those contacted agreed to be interviewed. Consequently, 'convenience sampling' and simply accessibility influenced the final sample (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Indeed, the sampling method has several limitations. The sample is not large and thus the generalizability of the conclusions is limited. In addition, whilst there are a variety of stakeholders holding vastly different roles, not all positions have been covered and thus the generalizability of the study becomes questioned (Saunders et al., 2009)

Most participants were given the option of either a face-to-face, if their location was easily accessible, or a telephone interview. Participants are all currently active in the conservation industry and due to both time constraints and the ease of accessibility only two interviews, that of Lucy McRobert and Tim Mackrill, were conducted face-to face. Naturally, this difference of interview scenario may have an effect on the evidence provided (Holbrook et al, 2003). One deductive study found that telephone interviews in comparison to face-to-face interviewees, were more likely to be "less co-operative and engaged", "more suspicious" and

"more likely to present themselves in a socially desirable way" (Holbrook et al, 2003:79). As such, the varied settings of the interviews may hold repercussions for the consistency of the data.

Information sheets were distributed in advance to participants prior to the interview and participants were asked if they needed any details of the study clarified before the interview began (Appendix 2). The information sheet outlined the aims of the study, the use of the data and the data collection process. This transparency was seen as important considering that ethnicity may be seen as a complex topic to talk about formally. Interviewees were informed that interviews would last no longer than an hour (Appendix 2). Participants were informed prior to the interviews that they would be recorded (Appendix 2).

Furthermore participants were asked to consider whether they wanted to be identified in the study in advance (Appendix 2). Participants are key stakeholders and as such a completely anonymous study was not proposed before interviewing. This is because participants were asked to talk of their experiences and perceptions and due to the uniqueness of participants' roles in the industry much of the evidence provided would have had to be discarded, as participants would become easily identifiable. Furthermore, identification allows the study to put participants' responses in to context. At the start of the interview, participants were asked if they would like to be named or remain anonymous; all but two participants were happy to be identified in the study. They will be referred to throughout the study as Participant 1 and Participant 2 and only limited information about their job role will be disclosed. The data was stored securely on a password locked computer.

4.3 Outline of Participants

As outlined below, participants hold various and wide-ranging job roles in the environmental industry. Being influenced by phenomenology, having an understanding of the participant's job role becomes important in constructing appropriate questions for the study and understanding participants' responses.

The two nature reserves operating on Rutland Water reservoir provided four participants for this study. The Leicestershire and Rutland Wildlife Trust operate two nature reserves on the reservoir; the nature reserve based in Lyndon and the Anglian Bird Watching centre based at Egelton There is a small charge to enter the reserve (Rutland Water Nature Reserve, 2014). The nature reserves have national recognition amongst birdwatchers, due to the osprey project that has been running for eighteen years (Osprey Project, 2014). Rutland reservoir is easily accessible by A-roads from major cities such as Leicester and Peterborough. However, the immediate area in which it sits is predominately rural, with little ethnic diversity (Rutland Census Report, 2011)

- Participant 1 works at one of the Rutland Nature Reserves.
- Lucy McRobert is the 'Outreach Officer' for Rutland Water Nature Reserve Team specialising in engaging local schools with the reserve (Rutland Ospreys, 2014; web source).
- Tim Mackrill is the 'Senior Reserve Officer' at the Rutland Water Nature Reserve. (Rutland Ospreys, 2014; web source).
- Joelle Bryan at the Anglian Bird Watching Centre at Rutland Water responsible for organising educational child-friendly events (Rutland Water Nature Reserve, 2014; web source).

Despite this high concentration of participants from the Rutland nature reserve, this study chose not to concentrate on a case study method. Case studies can provide an in-depth exploration within a given context, yet many researchers highlight the difficulty of asserting the generality of their findings from such research (Silverman, 2013). Due to the highly exploratory nature of the study, and ambitions to gain a holistic perspective from those working in the environmental industry, further interviews were taken with others proactive in the environmental industry.

Outside of the nature reserves located at Rutland Water, other active individuals in the wider environmental industry discussed their experiences:

- Stephen Moss is an environmental author. He is also a nature and wildlife television producer for the BBC.
- David Lindo is an author, television presenter and bird watching expert. Lindo is otherwise known as the 'Urban Birder' and specialises in viewing birds and wildlife in the city environment.
- Participant 2 works for the Peak District National Park.

Three NGO leaders specifically active in encouraging a greater connection between ethnic minorities and the natural environment were also interviewed:

- Judy Ling Wong is the President of the Black Environment Network (BEN). The BEN is a NGO that aims "to enable full ethnic participation in the built natural environment" (BEN, 2014c; web source).
- Sarah Wilson is the Project Manager for the Mosaic Project. The Mosaic Project aims to encourage "people who are new to National Parks to get to know and enjoy them" (CNP. 2014a:web source). The Mosaic Project is a subsection of the charity Campaign for National Parks. Currently, the Project is running a three-year initiative in Wales to encourage ethnic minorities to National Parks (CNP, 2014b). As part of a Mosaic Project volunteers often from the targeted group are recruited and named 'Community Champions'.
- Dr Chamu Kuppuswamy is a 'Community Champion' for the Peak District National Park. In conjunction with the Hindu Samaj community group in Sheffield, Kuppuswamy has devised a walk that combines Hindu teachings and engaging with the natural beauty of the Peak District. The walk is named 'Elephant Walk in the Park', and is focused on the story of Ganesh, the Hindu God. Kuppuswamy was named volunteer of the year in 2013 for her work (Roberts, 2013).

4.4 Research Influences

Participants were asked about their experiences of consumers to environmental destinations as well as more specifically their experiences of ethnic minorities as consumers, and as such the study held a phenomenological influence. For example:

"*From your experience do you feel ethnic minorities are underrepresented as consumers at environmental destinations?* To Rutland reserve team

Phenomenological research can be defined as:

"the participants' perceptions, feelings and living experiences that are paramount, and that are the object of the study" (Guest et al, 2012: 13).

This approach has several benefits: first, this method allows the researcher to explore in depth an issue (Guest et al, 2012; Lester, 1999). Second, there is an increased likelihood that more detailed responses will be provided to questions that have relevance to the participants (Krishnaswami and Satyaprasad, 2010). However, there are several limitations of this approach. First, with the variety of occupations and thus experience, there is likely to be a limited consistency within the interviews, which then makes it far more difficult to acknowledge themes within the data. Second, as the participant's responses are deemed heavily driven by context, it then becomes difficult to argue the "direct generalisation", of the findings from the study (Lester, 1999: 2).

This study was influenced by phenomenology but not confined by this research approach. Participants were also asked questions which were not focused on lived experiences, and instead perceptions, feelings, future hopes and beliefs were also asked to gain a holistic view.

4.5 Conducting the Interviews

All participants were interviewed individually. Interviews were held for varying lengths between 15 minutes and 54 minutes. In one case the participant stated at the interview that he was unable to talk for the full hour due to other commitments. Often participants, particularly those more confident with the research process pre-empted questions and provided answers without prompting, which added to the fluidity of the process.

The four broad-ranging research topics were addressed in all interviews, but phrased in a way for individuals to relate to their own experience and thus all interviewees were not asked the same questions. For example:

"What are the main barriers deterring ethnic minorities from visiting environmental tourist destinations?"

Was rephrased for the anonymous national park representative as:

"From your experience, do you think there are any barriers specific to ethnic minorities visiting national parks?"

During telephone-interviews I found myself giving many reassurance fillers, to indicate that I was engaged with the conversation and we were not experiencing any technical difficulties. In addition, at some points it became difficult to judge if the participant had finished answering or was simply pausing, before I proceeded to ask the next question. The existence of visible pragmatic features in the face-to-face interviews meant that this was not an issue.

4.6 Analysing the Evidence

From the recordings, the interviews were then transcribed, to make data analysis easier. During the editing process the context in which the participants constructed their experiences was considered (King, 1994).

A thematic analysis approach was applied towards the data. As part of this, a casual open coding process was then undertaken, simply to find themes (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Guest et al., 2012). The four research questions became the basis to which codes would be assigned and themes discovered. The interview transcripts were analysed for codes, of which similar codes were assigned a larger category. If a category appeared prominent within the transcript the number of the category was assigned next to the participants' names (Appendix 3). Categories, which appeared multiple times by numerous participants, were denoted as themes. Naturally, the open coding process was influenced by the main themes that appeared in the literature review, but as in any qualitative research, aimed to be largely led by the data itself (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Transcripts were read several times, to ensure that a holistic interpretation of the interview was gained and themes were correctly identified from the wider context (Hyncer, 1985). Quotes, which represented the main themes, were then assigned to a code, and selections of these are detailed in the findings.

Naturally, the coding process has limitations, particularly because the researcher has great influence on how the codes are defined (Guest et al., 2012). As such researcher bias and personal history may largely deem the codes and themes identified. Consequently, the themes that appear in the findings are largely subjective to the researcher's judgement (Guest et al., 2012). In addition, by assigning large categories to codes there is the danger of "losing the context of what is said" (Bryman & Bell, 2011: 588) and thus obscuring the clarity of the data.

A rigid coding-process to find themes was not undertaken and frequency of themes was not viewed as essential for inclusion within the findings: first, all participants were not asked the same questions due to their varying experience and such comparison became difficult. Second, participants had very different experiences and as such the scope of answers was so varied it would obscure the diversity of the sample to focus simply on frequency.

4.7 Role of the Researcher

As with any qualitative study, the influence of the researcher must be considered (Creswell, 2014). As stated by Krishnaswami and Satyaprasad "the interaction between the interviewee and respondent depends on how they perceive each other", it thus becomes important to outline relevant details about the researcher (2010:102).

I am a White British university educated student. Certainly, Gentin (2011) has argued that often those who investigate the topic of ethnic minorities' involvement in the domestic environment tend not to be classified as ethnic minorities themselves. As such I have only observational insight into the thoughts, culture and perceptions of ethnic minorities.

In terms of my attitude to environmental conservation destinations, I do hold an interest in such places but visit them only casually. I had never met any of the participants prior to interview. Pendergast (2004) emphasises that researchers need to be careful to not to impose their views that environmental destinations as important sites for visitors, when studying this issue. Instead, researches should be more concerned that ethnic minorities have the ability to make an "informed choice" and proactively execute that choice (Pendergast, 2004: 6).

The majority of my previous research has not been in the social science sphere. Instead, my undergraduate degree was in history and this may influence my decision to not use a highly rigid analysis method. My undergraduate dissertation was also focused on oral history evidence provided by five participants, which provided in depth phenomenological evidence, as such I am not only familiar with conducting interviews but believe they are an effective method to provide in-depth analysis. In turn, my history degree emphasised the importance of context and as such may explain this tendency to consider the experiences of the participants and how these affect their responses. Furthermore, my history degree taught me to embrace the inevitable influence of the researcher in qualitative research rather than focus on a highly systematic presentation of findings.

5.0 Findings

Thematic coding was applied to the findings and the main themes derived from the interviews are outlined below. Participants are either mentioned by full name or surname within the sentence or their initials placed in brackets at the end of the sentence where they provided the relevant information. All research was completed it 2014 and thus this is not included in the text.

5.1 *Ethnic minorities the missing dimension?*

Ethnic minorities: Participants from the two Rutland nature reserve sites were asked; 'from your experience to what extent do ethnic minorities make up your consumer base?'. All four of the Rutland reserve staff believed that ethnic minorities were underrepresented as a proportion of their conservation destination's consumer base. However, different staff expressed this with varying levels of conviction. The three participants that agreed to be named from the East Midland's destination answered strongly that ethnic minorities formed a limited proportion of their consumer base; Joelle Bryan stated, "certainly not at the nature reserve", Tim Mackrill claimed "its limited", and Lucy McRobert estimated that ethnic minorities formed "probably less than one or two per cent of the people" who visited Lyndon nature reserve. The participant who wished to remain anonymous expressed that "anecdotally possibly there are slight fewer visitors from minority ethnic groups". As a result, Lyndon senior reserve officer stated that "if an Indian family or Pakistani family come in the centre, that's quite notable really" (T.M).

Without specific questioning, three out of the four staff from the Rutland nature reserves believed that ethnic minorities formed a much larger proportion of visitors to the wider reservoir compared to the Lyndon and Egelton Nature Reserves (T.M, L.M, P1). McRobert states they formed a "surprisingly high percentage", of the general reservoir consumer base.

Participant 2 stated "probably", when asked if ethnic monitories were underrepresented as national park consumers. Although it would be worth noting that the interviewee later discussed in detail the difficulties of collating visitor demographics in the open and unmonitored environment of a national park, and as such may explain such tentativeness (P.2). Stephen Moss and David Lindo were asked more generally of their experience at environmental destinations across the UK. Both believed that ethnic minorities formed either a limited part of environmental conservation sites consumer base, or were underrepresented as part of that consumer base (S.M, D.L). One respondent also stated that appreciation and engagement with wildlife is often a "very western Protestant luxury" (S.M). Supporting this analysis McRobert stated that visitors of this profile were sometimes from Germany and America, both western Protestant nations and thus concurring with ideas of purposeful recreation (Cherry, 1993).

Interestingly, two members of the NGOs involved in encouraging ethnic minorities' connection with domestic nature suggested the profile feature of economic affluence should be taken into consideration (C.K, J.L.W). Certain participants' evidence suggested that 'middle-class' ethnic minorities were more greatly engaged with environmental tourist destinations in the UK, than less economically prosperous ethnic minorities (C.K, J.L.W). Judy Ling Wong suggested that middle-class ethnic minorities engaged with such destinations much the same as the mainstream population. Wong argues that tourist providers looking at engaging with middle-class ethnic minorities should consider that for this socio-demographic, "it's more a matter of liking the experience and being willing to pay for the experience like everyone else". Chamu Kuppuswamy, who devised the 'Elephant Walk in the Park' at the Peak District, in conjunction with the Hindu Samaj project, implied that middle-class ethnic minorities had a greater involvement with the environment. Kuppuswamy stated that the majority of the proactive Hindu Samaj community group were highly trained professionals. This suggests this more economically affluent section of the Hindu community appear to have connected to some extent with environmental destinations.

Urban: A theme emerged from the data that suggested that when exploring the issue of underrepresented groups at environmental tourist destinations that it was particularly the profile feature of living in an urban location that held strong repercussions for environmental destination attendance. Ling Wong believed that the issue regarding lack of involvement of ethnic minorities in domestic environmental destinations was instead an "urban issue of which ethnic minorities are a big part of". Self-defined ethnic minority David Lindo explained that his parents, who settled in London in the late 1950s, choose to settle in the city rather than the countryside, because they believed rural England "was the bastion of Englishness" where "you'd be ostracised", this supports Neal and Agyeman's (2006) views that the UK holds strong connotations of nationalism. Moss stated, "Black and ethnic minority people are one group who are underrepresented, but they overlap with other groups", "who include in some cases urban". Similarly, the Peak District National Authority representative believed that "there are a lot of urban people who do not use the national parks".

Deprived: In addition, a more specific sub-section of the urban population based on income surfaced as particularly under-represented, and thus supporting to some extent 'Post-Materialism Theory' (Hassler, 2006) as well as Newell and Green's (1997) and Askins' (2009) study on the importance of further profile features. Moss believed that particularly bird watching sites held appeal beyond the middle-classes to include parts of the working-class. However, Moss and several other participants explicitly suggested that such destinations had particularly failed to reach out to the most economically and socially vulnerable sections of society (P.2, S.W, J.L.W). Sarah Wilson believed "this isn't actually just about BME people but it's about anybody who lives in fairly deprived urban areas, [they] don't visit the national parks". Wilson believes that "the most disadvantaged parts of Sheffield and Manchester", contribute limited numbers of visitors to the Peak District. Participant 2 believes that "you'll get people in council estates in urban areas not visiting national parks" (P.2). Ling Wong views poverty as an important factor inextricably linked

with the issue of urbanity, and those living in deprived urban areas hold often the weakest connection with nature: "it's a matter of poverty".

Other: Other participants were less explicit in specifying the wider groups of society that they felt were underrepresented. Instead participants stated their typical customers, which then implied that underrepresented groups were much greater than just ethnic minorities. When Mackrill was asked whether he believed any other sections of society were underrepresented in the wildlife industry he replied, "I think you could almost say it for other groups other than white-middle class". When asked to profile the typical paying Lyndon reserve visitor Mackrill stated it was often "white middle-class" and "often retired". This is in line with the several of the profile features found by Ballantine & Eagles (1994).

5.2 *Incentives for Consumers*

Participants for this research question were asked reasons to engage with nature generally, or reasons to engage with the specific environmental destination that they were affiliated with, to tailor questions to their experiences. Consequently, the results are structured in a way to reflect this. The section 'ethnicity specific' is not location bound. This section was seen as important to the research, particularly stemming from Elmendorf et al. (2005)'s study that stated Black citizens in America did not recognise the benefit of parks compared to White citizens. By outlining the perceived benefits of environmental destinations, these can be linked to barriers that may prevent ethnic minorities from realising these benefits.

Rutland Reserves and Reservoir

Wildlife: All staff believed that wildlife was the main attraction of the two Rutland reserves. Unsurprisingly, two of the staff interviewed emphasised that the ospreys were a major draw for tourists (T.M, L.M). Mackrill believed that this rare bird of prey has "that potential to reach out to a different group of people", suggesting the ospreys appeal extended beyond serious birdwatchers. McRobert estimated that the ospreys helped

attract visitors, which reach between "20,000-25,000 people a year". From the Egelton site, Bryan stated that the bird watching centre attracted "keen birders" and a "rare bird" had the potential to greatly increase visitors.

Knowledge: In addition, gaining a greater knowledge of the natural setting and wildlife was also perceived as a motivation for visitors by two Rutland staff (P.1, J.B).

Activities at Rutland: The activities or attractions on offer also appeared as a driver of demand for consumers. McRobert stated that the osprey cruises were incredibly popular "we have had completely 100 per cent sell out with the cruises". Participant 1 concurred and said that "guided walks" and the "camera inserted in one of the artificial sand martin nests", appealed to visitors.

Participants from Rutland also made observations about the wider reservoir, which has been perceived to attract a greater number of ethnic minorities. The most prominent pull of the reservoir appeared to be the activities on offer, particularly cycling (L.M, P.1, T.M).

Scenery: The scenery of the reservoir was also suggested as a draw to the wider reservoir (J.B, L.M). McRobert believes that the massive body of water at the reservoir often led visitors "to describe this [the reservoir] as being an inland sea", particularly a draw because the East Midlands location is far from any coastlines.

National Parks

Health Benefits: For the participants involved with national parks the health benefits of being in open green space was suggested (S.W, P.2). Wilson stated it has a "good effect on your wellbeing".

Scenery: Participant 2 emphasised the scenery as a particular draw for visitors: it was the "wow factor" and enjoyment of the "spectacular and beautiful setting".

Possibly because activities are frequently run by private operators and are distributed unevenly across the vast national parks, the draw of activities did not appear as a theme.

General Benefits of Interaction with Nature

Health: Participants, who were not affiliated with a specific environmental destination, were asked simply to explain the benefits of a greater connection with nature (J.L.W, D.L) For several of these participants, health benefits both mental and physical also were cited as reasons to engage with the natural environment (D.L. J.L.W).

Ethnicity Specific: All the above motivations for visiting environmental tourist destinations are not ethnicity bound. Participant 2 stated that the benefits of visiting national parks "fall within the range of benefits that everyone has". The interviewee stated that he knew of no "religious" or "peculiar reasons for visiting the countryside" amongst ethnic minorities (P.2). However, some participants did outline ethnicity bound benefits of engaging with the domestic natural environment.

All of the participants that mentioned this, worked specifically on initiatives to encourage a greater connection between nature and ethnic minorities, and had thus had the opportunity to observe this process first-hand. The motivation of gaining knowledge for Ling Wong and Kuppuswamy was seen very much from the perspective of ethnic minorities. For Kuppuswamy the 'Elephant Walk in the Park', holds its appeal in conveying "the environmental messages in Hinduism, through doing something practical attached to the Ganesh festival". For Ling Wong, going out into the countryside gave a greater "understanding of what the landscape is about, what nature is about in this country". As such a greater connection between ethnic minorities and nature begins to "integrate them [ethnic minorities] with the mainstream" and enables a

"claiming of that national life" (J.L.W). Such statements are in line with Jay and Schraml's (2009) study on green spaces encouraging integration. In addition, Wilson reiterated the social integrative benefits of being involved in the domestic natural environment: increased involvement makes citizens "more..dare I say it British" (S.W). Wilson also argued that particularly for first generation immigrants, exposure to the British countryside can "remind people of home" and provide an "emotional link to home and to this country".

5.3 *Incentives for Tourist Providers*

Marketing campaigns and increasing infrastructure amongst other targeted initiatives are all costly endeavours and as such there needs to be an incentive for tourist providers to undertake such measures. The themes stated below may initially appear as contrasting. However, on further inspection they instead represent the peculiarities of the conservation industry.

Financial: Several participants believed that a financial incentive, particularly for the supportive business infrastructure surrounding environmental conservation destinations, such as hotels, activity centres and restaurants could benefit from environmental destinations greater appeal to ethnic minorities: business are "now beginning to recognise the green pound amongst more affluent ethnic minorities" (P.2). Due to the central nature of the Peak District, Participant 2 believes that many chose not to make an overnight stay when visiting the national park and as such there is a financial incentive for Bed and Breakfast's "to start thinking how to increase their consumer base". Likewise, one respondent mentioned, "there is quite a lot of money around in certain [ethnic] communities" (S.W). Such statements place the issue in a more traditional business formula, or encouraging more consumers for more revenue. However, it is worth noting here that the incentive is for external supportive business, rather than the environmental destinations operators themselves.

The incentive of public grants appeared as an aspect of the data but was not prominent theme mentioned by only two participants (J.LW, L.M). One of the participants stated that they were aware there are grants available for engagement with citizens defined as "disadvantaged" (L.M). McRobert went on to say that most of Rutland reserves funding comes from grants. Ling Wong stated that "you had huge funding streams like the Big Lottery..called 'Access to Nature". This is unsurprising an response from Ling Wong as the BEN website states that grants are available for encouraging diversity (BEN, 2014c). However, none of the tourist providers mentioned the importance of this funding scheme (L.M, P1, P2, J.B, T.M). Yet, considering the experiences of many of the participants, and with many of the participants not dealing with the financial funding of the destinations it is foreseeable that this did not appear as a prominent theme.

No Financial (private): However, there appeared no private financial incentive for the staff at Rutland to devise special initiatives to diversify their consumer base (J.B, T.M, L.M, P1). Mackrill and McRobert both stated that most of their membership fees came from the county of Rutland which offers little in terms of ethnic diversity: "Rutland is hardly the most multi-cultural place in the country" (T.M). As such McRobert states, "we don't have to engage with ethnic minorities because of a financial incentive". Likewise, the success at generating funds from the existing consumer base leads Mackrill to judge that "there is a certain amount of complacency" in regards to widening Rutland's consumer base. Bryan argued, "we have 800,000 visitors a year… so obviously there is a lot of people out there who want to come and visit us" when asked if she believed that the issue of ethnic minorities attracted too much attention. Complimenting this evidence, Moss believes there is a level of "inertia" in the wildlife industry "because they are doing well", and as such there is not an urgency of a financial incentive to make efforts to appeal to ethnic minorities. However, McRobert stated that for "city centre Wildlife Trusts it's a big deal for them, because ethnic communities make up a high proportion of their potential membership". Furthermore, despite the nationally renowned nature of the ospreys' project, this attitude suggests

that such destinations tend to focus on local consumers rather than tourists from further afield.

Form the provider's point of view the financial risks associated with the campaign acted as a deterrent. For some tourist providers, the perceived barriers deterring visits from ethnic minorities are so great that investments in initiatives are foreseen as too risky: "Probably it's not worth throwing a massive proportion of resources at, because the cultural barrier, it's a big thing and we're not goanna win that on 5 year development plan" (L.M). Likewise another respondent stated that those in the industry may invest much time and effort in attempting to engage interest from ethnic minorities "but not a single person turns up" (S.M). In turn, it may appear to tourist providers that concentrating on such a campaign may not be the best use of resources.

Struggle to Balancing Conservation: The struggle within the conservation industry between increasing the number of consumers, and the potential of this to jeopardise conservation efforts was displayed in the data (Suckall et al, 2009: Newsome et al., 2005: Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001). Participant 2 believed that unlike mainstream business, the Peak District has to be aware of "managing the numbers, it's not like we don't have enough people". Similarly one tourist provider stated, "our priorities are to mainly protect the area and to enhance it for the wildlife" (P1). However, Participant 1 continued to say, "Increasingly, people engagement is really important". Moss concurs and believes that compared to several decades ago, people engagement has become increasingly a priority for conservationists.

Conservation Message: For most participants increased people engagement was not viewed as detrimental to conservation aims, instead people engagement is seen as vital to the conservation industry's sustainability: Participant 1 stated "we have to engage people's interest, for the longevity of the protection of the site". Moss believed that encouraging a wider consumer base of domestic nature was "crucial" and that it is important to "encourage more and more people to care for

wildlife and the environment". Likewise, Mackrill stated "if we are engaging with a small percentage [from the UK population]. ..from the same old background, then that's hardly going to be sustainable in the long-term". Such results reflect the importance of intangible aims of the conservation industry (Wilson & Tisdell, 1999; GhulamRabbany et al., 2013).

5.4 *Barriers to ethnic minorities*

Participants provided wide-ranging examples as to what they believed acted as barriers to ethnic minorities' decision to visit environmental conservation destinations.

Culture: A theme from the staff at Rutland nature reserves was that a difference in "culture" meant that ethnic minorities did not view the domestic natural environment as an arena for recreation or conservation (T.M, L.M,J.B, P.1). Hesitantly, Participant 1 mentioned that "I don't know it is a cultural factor as well. I don't know if its identifying with kind of.. emblems of wildlife". McRobert suggests that ethnic minorities do not have a cultural connection appreciating the aesthetic value of nature and wildlife within their heritage which British people hold: "we had a romantic movement we had a cultural connection with nature". Instead, ethnic minorities hold a different connection with nature, derived from practicalities within their country of origin, which makes viewing wildlife for recreation more difficult; "wildlife is genuinely dangerous in India, it isn't here [UK]" (L.M). Bryan stated "It is not the kind of activity that they culturally do". Such comments are in line with the many works that argue that connecting with nature is a cultural habit not held by all ethnicities (Moss, 2011; Washburn, 1978 cited in Floyd, 1999; Shackley, 1996, Askins 3009). Likewise, National Park ranger, Kuppuswamy did not explicitly state culture but implied that for ethnic minorities' engaging with nature is "not something that they have grown up doing and therefore it's not something that they then want to do".

Lack of Infrastructure: Participants from NGOs suggested that both environmental tourism destinations and their supportive local business failed to accommodate for specific religious dietary requirements (C.K., J.L., S.W. Participant 2). Kuppuswamy suggested that "even if you didn't have anything particularly Indian but you could have something more vegetarian", to cater for the diet of Hindus. Concurring, one respondent stated, "even if you don't have halal food its fine, but you need to mention that it isn't halal" (S.W).

Perception of the Conservation Industry as Exclusive: The perception of environmental destinations as exclusive spaces appeared as a prominent theme, in line with Moss (2004) and Askins (2009). Ling Wong suggests that particularly immigrants of the first streams of migration in the 1950s, where she believed racism was more prominent, were more likely to be affected by a lack of confidence to explore the British countryside. Ling Wong states, "when you first come in this country you are marked by your first experiences". However, the President of BEN believes that attitudes to ethnic minorities generally have greatly improved since the outcry of injustice of the case of "Stephen Lawrence" (J.L.W). However, apprehension about being stared at when visiting natural beauty spots is particularly prominent with ethnic minorities from, "poorer community" as "you tend to have less confidence" (J.L.W). Ling Wong was keen to acknowledge that is it is important to "segment the different community types" within the term ethnic minority, for instance within "asylum seekers" you will find "even more isolation". Moss suggests that a feeling of being in the minority must affect ethnic minorities choice to visit environmental destinations; "if they [ethnic minorities] go out to a reserve, they don't see people like themselves and that must be an issue". Likewise, McRobert believed that a school visit from an inner city school in Leicester, which held a high proportion of Asian children, those children did "not see this reserve as being for them".

However, Lindo emphasises from his experience that any feeling of being made to feel different is something that is perceived before a visit rather

than a reality of visiting environmental tourist destinations. From his experience he states "no matter where I have been and whom I have met I have never ever had nothing but friendliness and helpfulness from any kind of white birders" (D.L). Participants were divided over this issue of exclusion. Wilson believes that tourist providers can often overstate the barrier that the Black and Minority Ethnic feel that it is not a place for them: "even for a lot of BME communities it is not even.. [sic] they don't even perceive that that is an issue".

Lindo and Moss, suggested a perception of exclusivity of the environmental industry might be accentuated by the lack of ethnic minorities as public faces of nature. Certainly, Jay & Schraml (2009) raised the importance of the media shaping perceptions of nature. Relating this concept back to women who previously formed limited wildlife tourists, Moss believes the use of presenters such as Kate Humble, Michaela Strachan and Ellie Harrison, who are "unashamedly really into wildlife" and "fashionable", has encouraged more women to become interested in wildlife. Similarly, Lindo believes that the environmental industry is a "very white middle-class orientated industry for want of a better phrase. Especially in the broadcast area". Lindo strongly believes that the crux of how you get people engaged is the manner in which you "bring the message [of how interesting nature can be] to people", to engage with them and want to become involved. More generally, McRobert believes that the media shows the conservation industry as holding extreme opinion, and thus deterring those with a casual interest; "in the media, you only have to think of something such as the badger cull, where it is completely divided opinion". The above results suggest that the environmental industry is suffering a public image struggle outside of its traditional audience.

Similarly, three participants highlighted the importance for tourist providers to make connections with underrepresented groups pre-existing knowledge (J.L.W,L.M, C.K). This is something McRobert believes "we are [conservation industry] not very good at forming and joining the dots". Ling Wong, believes the global nature of elements of wildlife such as the

"barn owl", can cause excitement "by seeing a bird in Britain that is actually present in their country of origin". The participant states the BEN's consultancy service aims to help tourist providers understand "the psychology of ethnic minorities, which make them more enthusiastic and more keyed into nature, by linking into what they know" (J.L.W). Likewise, Kuppuswamy's Elephant Walk works on the premise of "revisit[ing] stories", from the Hindu faith.

Although, not mentioned by other participants, McRobert, who is also an environmental journalist, strongly believed that the terminology of the environmental industry was exclusive to those not highly knowledgeable about the conservation movement: "the language is so exclusive, it's so elitist". For example, "reserve means enclosed, reserve means set aside not for us" and "permit that is a negative word, you have to have permission" (L.M). Once again such discussion asks the researcher to consider the abstract public image of the industry, rather than just physical barriers.

Limited Pre-connection with Nature: Many participants chose to view barriers to ethnic minority tourists, as general barriers acting upon all underrepresented groups in the industry, particularly those that emphasised the missing element of the urban or disadvantaged environmental consumer. Generally, the urban environment appeared as a barrier to gaining an initial positive connection with a nature, which may hold negative repercussions for such citizens to engage with environmental tourist destinations (D.L, J.L.W). Lindo believes that the urbanity forms a barrier, because the city can offer so many "distractions" that allow nature and connecting with nature to be pushed aside. Ling Wong states that for those on "council estates" green space is of the "lowest quality" and thus not incentivising citizens to engage with nature. This problem is particularly perpetuated for ethnic minorities because they rarely have relatives in the countryside, which they can visit and become accustomed with natural Britain (J.L.W). As such the benefits of engaging with nature discussed previously are not recognised.

Furthermore, McRobert implied that bureaucracy has the potential to impinge on less economically affluent children's engagement with nature generally. Bureaucracy in the form of "legislation or health and safety for schools", reinforces and restricts school children from connecting with nature (L.M). McRobert believes this is particularly prevalent amongst state school children: private school "teachers are far more flexible and far less worried because they have got better relationships with their parents anyway, they've got the money if something happens".

Financial: Cost and transport for rural locations appeared as a barrier for underrepresented groups in more rurally located destinations (S.W, P.2, J.L.W). Participant 2, was asked what he believed acted as barriers to ethnic minorities he stated, "Transport but that's not just an ethnic minority, issue, that's probably the key issue" in concurrence with Breakwell (2002). However despite Rutland reserves rural location, Mackrill implies that transport difficulties cannot simply explain the absence of diversity at the two centres; "those [ethnic minority] people are travelling from Leicester to the reservoir every weekend", yet they seem not to be engaging with the reserves.

Lack of Information: Lack of effective marketing appeared among many participants as a potential barrier to ethnic minorities and other underrepresented groups (J.B, Participant 2, S.W, J.L.). This echoes the works of Winter et al, (2004). Bryan believed that "in theory there are no barriers" as such "I guess it would just be if they don't know about these places then they're not going to come and visit". Wilson believes that "there is a huge amount of people who don't know [that national parks are open to everybody'. Kuppuswamy believes that advertisements should "include more people from ethnic minorities actually using the space". Kuppuswamy also believes that the information provided for visitors about manoeuvring environmental destinations needs to be simplified for new users; "the information they give there [environmental destination's] is not perhaps properly useful for certain groups".

Lack of information works two-fold, with tourist operators not having enough knowledge regarding ethnic minorities and may explain the lack of successful initiatives within the industry. The participants from Rutland, with the staff suggesting that the staffs at Rutland are not fully informed to deal with this issue (L.M, T.M). McRobert states, "we just don't get it". Naturally, this may be a result of the lack of ethnic minorities working within the industry, with Mackrill stating those that work in the industry are often "white middle class" and thus complimenting Taylor's (2014) recent study.

Language: The lack of accommodation of non-English speaking residents was mentioned but did not appear as prominent barrier (J.B,S.W,P.2). Sarah Wilson believed that the East Asian communities were particularly "disengaged, they tended to have less speakers". Although mentioned, the subject was often partially grappled with and no one asserted that this was the crux of the issue. For example participant 2 stated: "I mean language sometimes, but again in the countryside you don't need to say a lot".

5.6 Summary of Findings

Although not the foreseen direction of this study, the theme that appeared was that the absence of ethnic minorities as environmental consumers should be viewed in conjunction with another underrepresented group the 'urban deprived'. Health benefits, activities, and the opportunity to view wildlife and natural scenery were perceived as the biggest attractions of domestic environmental destinations. Two participants, both active in initiatives to encourage ethnic minorities stated that environmental attractions held positive integration. For tourist providers, it was the chance of spreading a conservation message rather than a financial incentive, which formed the motivation for appealing to a wider consumer base. Barriers limiting the diversity of the environmental tourism clientele, were numerous, far-reaching and following the unexpected trend of the research not always specific to ethnic minorities.

6.0 Discussion

Much publicity has surrounded the absence of ethnic minorities at domestic environmental conservation sites, and the findings from this study appear to confirm that ethnic minorities as a whole are underrepresented as consumers of such destinations (Countryfile, 2009; Prasad, 2004; Jeffries, 2005; John, 2004; John, 2005). However, several other profile features, frequently held by ethnic minorities appeared to be influential rather than simply ethnicity itself; participants suggested that being deprived and living in an urban location correlated negatively with environmental destination attendance (Askins, 2006; Elmendorf et al, 2005; Newell and Green, 1997; Washburn 1978 cited in Floyd, 2001). Initially, this paper may appear in juxtaposition with the RSPB (2013) report that stated that urban children had a greater connection with nature than more rural children. However, it is specifically the 'deprived' segment of urban society that this study suggests is particularly disconnected from environmental destinations. Jeffries very briefly raised the importance of depravity in ethnic minority visitations to the environment in her (2004) *Guardia*n article.

The UK government uses seven main criteria to assess deprivation: "Income Deprivation, Employment Deprivation, Health Deprivation and Disability, Education Skills and Training Deprivation, Barriers to Housing and Services, Living Environment Deprivation, and Crime", (Communities and Local Government, 2010: 12). The City of Nottingham scores worst for overall deprivation in the East Midlands, (One East Midlands, 2014:web source). Research into poverty supports the assertion that in terms of UK populations, proportionally those from BEM communities are more likely to hold such profile features and to live in deprived sections of society than White British citizens (Barnard, 2014; Joseph Rowntree Foundations, 2007). In 2007, the Joseph Rowntree Foundation found that the poverty rate was 20 per cent for White British people whilst amongst ethnic minorities the poverty rate was 40 per cent (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2007). Those from the Bangladeshi communities and Pakistani communities appeared to be the worst deprived communities,

with a poverty rate of "65" per cent and "55" per cent respectively (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, 2007; web source). Furthermore, an analysis of the 2011 census found that ethnic minorities "remain clustered in certain diverse urban areas" (Duffy & Frere-Smith, 2014:6).

This study did not choose to explore the assertions that the prevalence of ethnic minorities within the least affluent sections of society was a result, as Washburn (1978) asserts, of discrimination in wider society (cited in Floyd, 2001). The focus of prevalent and influential socio-demographic features within ethnic minorities echo's the works of Askins (2006) Elmendorf et al (2005) and Newell & Green (1997) Washburn (1978 cited in Floyd, 2001). This study, however, will bring this socio-demographic aspect to the forefront of conclusions. This paper argues that many of the barriers deemed to prevent ethnic minority visitation to environmental destinations are most severe when considering a further profile segmentation, that of the 'urban deprived', of which studies show many ethnic minorities hold (Barnard, 2014; Joseph Rowntree Foundations, 2007). Moreover, many of the stated barriers can also be barriers to the urban deprived group, regardless of ethnicity. In turn, by attempting to address the barriers of the 'urban deprived' this should simultaneously remove many of barriers deterring ethnic minorities and vice versa. Furthermore, viewing the issue of ethnic minorities through the lens of the 'urbanely deprived' provides more financial incentives through grants for tourist providers (Access to Nature, 2014). Whilst keeping the issue of ethnic minorities at its core, this discussion explores more generally how the environmental industry can expand its clientele beyond the "white" "middle-class" the participants believed were so prevalent as consumer (T.M, L.M, D.L).

First, this discussion will explore in depth the barriers stated by participants and their relevance within the framework of the 'urban deprived'. Second, this discussion will explore the viability of any action plans to create a demand for under-represented groups to visit environmental tourist destinations.

Several tourist providers deemed that a difference in "culture" amongst ethnic minorities compared to mainstream society formed a barrier (T.M, L.M, P1), in concurrence with Shackley's (1996) and Washburn's (1978) cultural argument. Many participants believed that viewing nature for recreation was simply something that ethnic minorities did not do. One participant suggested practical implications such as the danger of wildlife in their country of heritage (L.M) has meant ethnic minorities have not been able to enjoy the natural environment for recreation. Furthermore, Moss stated the natural environment as a theatre for recreation is a very "Protestant" heritage trait, stemming from the ideas of purposeful use of free-time, something not shared by all nations. Of course, arguments of "acculturation" question the legitimacy of such suggestions (Nwankwo, and Lindridge, 1998; 205), but the argument may hold particular relevance for first generation immigrants.

However, the lack of imbedded environmental recreation within citizens' culture may not be confined to simply ethnic minorities. The argument that mainstream British citizens hold a cultural connection with nature (not shared with ethnic minorities), by implication suggests that mainstream British citizens hold a homogenous cultural heritage. One participant suggested the "romantic movement" was our cultural connection to nature (L.M). This concurs with Suckall's (2005) argument that the Romantic Movement is the dominant discourse of British cultural environmental recreation. However, it was poets such as William Wordsworth, and other members of the British upper middling sort who almost exclusively composed the Romantic Movement; and as such this discourse of natural environment appreciation is dominated by the highly educated and wealthy (Burgam, 1941). As such, the ability to appreciate nature in the manner of the Romantics was arguably post-materialism in its infant stage (Hassler, 2006). Furthermore it was the middle-class evangelicals that pushed a top down idea of rational recreation upon the less affluent classes (Taylor, 1997)

Accordingly, we should judge cautiously to what extent less economically affluent mainstream British citizens view environmental recreation

through this dominant discourse as part of their cultural heritage (Suckall, 2005). Furthermore, for ethnic minorities living in urban deprived areas, they may never be exposed to "acculturation' (Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998:205) towards environmental recreation as the mainstream society surrounding them may not necessarily view this form of recreation as part of their heritage.

The lack of ethnic minorities within the media, particularly as presenters, or experts on nature programmes was also raised as an ethnic minority specific barrier (D.L., S.M). Unsurprisingly, the two participants who work within the visual media raised this issue, Lindo and Moss. Programmes such as Springwatch attract huge audience figures (Telegraph, 2007). However, as Moss states domestic nature programmes "look very middle England don't they". The conations of 'middle England" suggest that the domestic environmental television programmes portray a 'middle-class' very British rural image (Adams, 2005). The public image of the environmental industry thus appears to portray exclusivity to anyone who is not white British middle-class.

Certainly, the perception of the countryside as an exclusive space may be an important barrier to the many ethnic minorities who are not considered urbanely deprived, in line with Moss (2004) and Askins (2009). Despite the works exploring the concept of 'rural racism' (Connolly, 2006; Robinson and Gardner, 2006; Dhillon, 2006: de Lima, 2006) it is worth reiterating that a feeling of exclusion is largely believed to be perceived, in terms of staff, volunteers or other visitors acting in an unwelcoming manner at environmental destinations, rather than a reality (D.L). Yet, despite the wide influence of this barrier Ling Wong believes that the issue is most heavily pronounced in ethnic minorities from urban deprived areas, who often "lack confidence", to overcome any feelings of exclusion. By considering this issue from the perspective of those for whom the barrier is most potent for is likely to simultaneously soften the barrier for those who find it a lesser issue.

Furthermore, a less explicit cause of exclusivity can be perpetuated by the use of terminology (L.M). Technical terms such as 'biodiversity' are exclusive to anyone not previously accustomed with environmental terminology (L.M). Additionally, from an ethnographical perspective from visiting bird watching sites, I would suggest that there is an unspoken etiquette, which can also reduce the accessibility of environmental tourist destinations. For example, visitors tend to be silent in the bird watching hides, yet this is not signposted on the way to the hides, and as such has the potential to cause embarrassment for the unknowledgeable visitor (pers. obs, 2014). Naturally, exclusive language and etiquette have the potential to deter anyone regardless of ethnicity or income, who is not accustomed with these practices. However as our findings have discovered, the urban deprived appear to be the most disengaged from a pre-existing connection with nature (J.L.W). Consequently, it can arguably be assumed the urban deprived have limited opportunity to become accustomed with terminology and protocol. Moreover the government definition includes limited "education skills" as a factor of depravity, which may influence the ability to acquire such jargon (Communities and Local Government, 2010: 12).

Once again a feeling of exclusiveness is perpetuated by the absence of links between the environmental destination's features and what potential consumers already know (J.L.W, L.M, C.K). The results from two participants highlighted the importance of finding how the attractions within nature destinations have relevance to potential consumers' everyday life and sense of identity, to incentivise visitors (J.LW, L.M). By failing to engage potential consumers, by this method the environmental consumer base has the potential to become very insular. Consequently the benefits of nature such as health, beauty and mental stimulation (S.W, C.K, D.L, L.M) can thus only become recognised by those have can discover the relevance of nature to their lives themselves.

Furthermore, the theme of the urban environment being a deterrent in allowing people to recognise the benefits of engaging with nature emerged (D.L, J.L.W, P.2, S.W). Positive connections with nature were

seen as pre-cursors to embarking on trips further afield to visit destinations such as Rutland (T.M). The literature raised that in some cases UK urban citizens have limited access to green space, (Barbosa et al., 2007) and in Leicester those suffering from poor access were concentrated amongst ethnic minorities (Comber et al, 2008). However, it was the quality of this green space that was raised as a possible barrier by this study (J.W). Ling Wong believed particularly that space within urbanely deprived areas was of the "lowest quality".

Supporting Ling Wong's argument, government body Public Health England states that green space is "significantly worse in deprived areas than in affluent areas" and there is a particular concern towards "crime and safety" within these green areas (Public Health, 2014: web source). More interestingly, the government body believes that "over half of people living in deprived areas would take more exercise if green spaces were improved" as such the benefit of improved health is not recognised (Public Health, 2014: web source). Arguably, if this urban green space is of such a low quality it provides less strength to divert attention away from the many distractions of the city, and the many benefits of nature become overlooked (D.L),. However, the unpleasant nature of green space in urban deprived areas is working as a deterrent to gaining a positive connection with nature (J.W).

For fee paying destinations cost was briefly mentioned. In the context of Rutland McRobert stated, "the vast people that we find on our cruises are white middle-class people. Its £20 a pop, it is not cheap". Ling Wong believed that it was vital for tourist providers to make clear to urban ethnic minorities what they are "proposing the cost of it [visiting the attraction] be". In similar fashion and concurring with Breakwell (2002), transport appeared as a barrier to access, like Breakwell this point was emphasised heavily by an individual working in the context of national parks (P2). This is obviously only a pronounced barrier for the least economically affluent ethnic minorities and naturally anyone who is considered economically deprived.

However, Mackrill argues transport is not necessarily an issue, as he believes many ethnic minorities travel from Leicester to visit the wider reservoir. Certainly, there is an ever-growing emerging wealthy body of ethnic minorities (P2, S.W), whom Ling Wong believes act much the same as mainstream middle-class tourists. For the middle-class barriers many of the barriers are less potent; naturally the barriers based on wealth are diminished and the green space that is in their locality is likely to be of a higher quality than that of those living in deprived areas (Public Health England, 2014). For these ethnic minorities the real barrier appears to be simply be not knowing about such destinations (S.W, T.M, J.L.W, P.2, J.B). However, the necessity for an increased marketing message is something apparent in most business models.

Naturally, overcoming all of these barriers will not encourage everyone to visit environmental conservation destinations, but as Pendergast argues it is about making an "informed choice" (2005: 1) and being able to act on that choice. From the above discussion, it is evident that those living in urbanely deprived areas are at a distinct advantage to make such an "informed choice" (Pendergast, 2005:1) and to proactively pursue a choice to engage in nature.

In terms of the incentives for visitors to tourist provider's raised health benefits, wildlife and natural scenery are the biggest drivers of demand for visitors (P.2, P.1, J.B, T.M, L.M, S.W). However, the barriers of the urban environment (D.L), particularly in deprived areas (J.L.W) arguably obstruct those within these areas to realise these positive interactions with nature. As Participant 2 said with regards to the National Parks "You have to experience it, to experience it you either have to, somebody has to tell you or somebody has to take you". As such there is a difficulty for tourist providers to convey the benefits of visiting environmental tourist destinations, particularly to those who have had little positive experience of embracing nature previously.

Despite the many challenges for engaging with a more diverse audience, many believed that it was important to make efforts to engage with a

greater diverse audience (S.M, T.M, L.M, P.1, S.W, C.K, J.L.W). Unsurprisingly for the admission-free national parks financial incentive was not mentioned, only potential spill-over opportunites for local businesses (S.W,P.2). Nevertheless, even for the two Rutland nature reserves, which charges an admission fee and sells membership to the wider Wildlife Trust, the incentive to appeal to a more diverse audience for further financial gains was not expressed (T.M, L.M, J.B, P1). The location of Rutland Nature Reserve was believed to play an important role in this conclusion; Rutland Water staff believed that the local area, which contributed the majority of membership, lacked diversity (L.M, T.M). Statistical evidence supports this perception: a summary of the 2011 census found that 97 per cent of residents in Rutland were White (Rutland Census Report, 2011). The Rutland Census Report (2011), also suggested that the area was indeed wealthy in terms of the social grade "A,B", which compromises "higher and intermediate managerial / administrative / professional occupations", was 31 per cent. This is significantly higher than national score of 23 per cent and the East Midland average of 20 per cent (Rutland Census Report, 2011: 16).

However, McRobert believes that there is greater incentive for more inner-city nature reserves, where more diverse sections of society form a greater population of the "potential membership". For instance, conservation sites such as Attenborough Water, which is located only six miles from Nottingham City Centre, may see a greater incentive to encourage a more diverse clientele (Attenborough Nature Reserve, 2014).

Such statements indicate the importance of making a distinction between rural and urban environmental destinations when exploring this issue. Certainly, middle-class ethnic minorities can have the potential to offer a financial incentive as consumers. However, the urban deprived is by definition a section of society without a large disposable income (Communities and Local Government, 2010: 12): as McRobert states the disadvantaged have been "affected the worst by the recession and they're the people that aren't recovering, so we can't go in and ask them for a membership fee". Consequently, making efforts to attract the urban

deprived, would appear in the first instance, to offer little financial incentive.

Nevertheless, exploring the issue of ethnic minorities in terms of the urban deprived could provide a financial incentive for tourist providers in the form of grants. Ling Wong raised that the National Lottery funded 'Access to Nature', was an important funding scheme for encouraging engagement with nature. For instance, Nottinghamshire Wildlife Trust was awarded a grant for £402,706 for a scheme named 'Wildlife in the City' (Access to Nature, 2010; web source). The premise of the scheme was to encourage connections with the city's residents and the local natural environment (Access to Nature, 2010). In turn the project aimed to "encourage a greater number and diversity of people, who live in deprived wards of Nottingham, to access their local natural green spaces" (Natural England, 2014a; web source). Reviewing the 59 awarded grants by 'Access to Nature' in 2010, eight of these explicitly focused on encouraging a connection with nature in an urban or city environment (Access to Nature, 2010; web source). Moreover, seven funding schemes were for projects, which targeted "deprived" citizens (Access to Nature, 2010; web source). As with any funding, recipients are subject to targets and proof of success to receive further funding (L.M). Arguably more urban destinations due to the proximity of the targeted group would be better positioned than rural destinations to demonstrate the potential of this funding. Whilst, this scheme is now closed (Natural England, 2014), it demonstrates the relevance of targeting the urban and deprived to gain funding.

Interviewees reflected the complexity of aims within the conservation industry. Participant 2 emphasised that one of the biggest concerns was limiting numbers to preserve the core element of the attraction. This assertion is in contrast to the multiple business models that aim to cater for the most consumers' possible, but representative of the conservation industries balancing act between environmental protection and people engagement (Suckall et al, 2009: Newsome et al., 2005: Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001).

Nevertheless, many participants believed that people engagement was an important part of the industry (T.M, L.M, P1). Mackrill believed that a strong engagement with places such as Rutland was "absolutely crucial" to acquiring a greater environmental concern. Consequently, many participants thought it was vital to extend their appeal to spark environmental concern among a wider group of people (T.M, P.1, S.M). Here the conservation industry is distinguished from financially driven tourist destinations by placing great emphasis on an intangible asset.

6.1 Managerial Implications

Considering the incentives, benefits and barriers of both ethnic minorities and the urban deprived, it becomes logical to make a distinction between rural and urban environmental destinations. This study has mainly focused on out-of-city destination such as Rutland Nature Reserves and National Parks. However, there are increasingly many inner-city conservation sites operating in the East Midlands, such as Attenborough Nature Reserve near Nottingham. Reflecting on the potency of barriers in urban environments and grant incentives it appears logical for any proactive campaigns to encourage the diversity amongst consumers to be focused in the urban area for four main reasons:

First, the barrier of lack of transport (Breakwell, 2002) is less of an obstacle. For those visiting from the local area, the expense of transport may not be necessary and for those further afield public transport is often more frequent in the city.

Second, for a more urban reserve the barrier of perceived exclusiveness should theoretically be reduced, as the destination is set within a more familiar environment. Considering the numerous studies on rural racism (Connolly, 2006; Robinson & Gardner, 2006; Dhillon, 2006: de Lima, 2006) and comments from Lindo which stated his parents saw the countryside as the "the bastion of Englishness", it's unsurprising that ethnic minorities may visit the countryside with apprehension. Madeline

Bunting argues that the middle-classes have "hijacked the countryside" (2007; web source) as such we could assume that the countryside may evoke a similar feeling of exclusion for the 'urban deprived'. Unlike more rural conservation sites such as Rutland nature reserves, the more familiar setting of the urban environment should reduce feelings of apprehension.

Third, the issues raised by many of the community leaders regarding the lack of amenities such as cultural food would have less potency in a city environment. This is because such facilities are more likely to be in close proximity than of a rural destination.

Fourth, there appears to be a general trend within funding streams towards city and urban projects (Access to Nature, 2010). Consequently, the financial backing to initiate any diversity scheme is more likely to be available at urban destination rather than rural destinations.

This study makes no assertion that rural destinations should abandon launching initiatives to encourage greater diversity amongst their clientele. Of course, the incentive of encouraging greater environmental awareness across all segments of society was stated by the employees at the rural Rutland reserve. However, investments of both time and money are likely to prove most fruitful when initially concentrated on urban destinations. This is because barriers to under-represented groups are less potent and more funding is available to materialise initiatives. In addition, to sustain funding, projects need to be seen to be having a positive effect (L.M) and thus it becomes logical to initiate these in areas where obstacles are not so intense.

Nevertheless, the rural conservation destination should not be viewed in isolation from the urban destination and can potentially benefit from any diversity initiatives. As Ling Wong states many urban deprived and subsequently many ethnic minorities have a lack of access to pleasant green space (J.L.W). However, urban tourist providers can provide a pleasant green space, in which under-represented groups can participate

with the attractions of the site. Having this positive engagement with nature may incentivise under-represented groups to visit more rural attractions.

Urban conversation operations should take note of the three main areas raised by participants where proactive steps could be taken to encourage greater diversity:

1. **Marketing to change perceptions** – The findings suggested that the conservation industry is suffering from a public perception problem outside of its tradition consumer base. Tourist providers themselves have limitations on how they can affect the media portrayal of the conservation industry, but operators do have control over their own marketing material. The results indicate that several participants (C.K, J.B, T.M) believed that lack of information was an issue for under-represented groups, concurring with Pendergast (2005) and Taylor et al (2011). Participants from Rutland stated that most information about upcoming events is either on their social media pages, or website (T.M, L.R, P1); all mediums require a knowledge of the destination previously. Consequently, advertising through new media channels should be considered (Winter et al., 2004).

Existing marketing campaigns were also criticised for showing few ethnic minorities in promotional photographs (C.K). By using ethnic minorities within promotional material, it could promote the domestic natural environment as inclusion of BME communities. Furthermore, the use of ethnic minorities may also help the urban deprived to question any exclusive perceptions of the conservation industry. Taking into consideration Milfont et al.'s warning to not market to ethnic minorities as a "homogenous group", it may instead be more suited to tailor diversity material campaigns to the urban deprived (1997:66).

2. **Demonstrating links and relevance** – The results show that engaging with under-represented groups largely entails finding the

relevance of the main attractions to the lives of the individuals (J.LW, L.M, C.K). The 'Elephant Walk in the Park', was deemed by its creator replicable "anywhere in any outdoor space where you still have the natural features there" (C.K). This may hold particular relevance for conservation destinations in Leicestershire and Rutland, where there is a high population of Hindu's in the city of Leicester (Welcome to Leicestershire; 2014). However, this may be a challenge for the industry to find such links, Mackrill believes the "white, middle-class" are the dominant profile of the staff working in the industry.

3. **Joint Ventures with community leaders**- Ling Wong believes the BEN can assist tour providers to find links between the relevance of attractions and ethnic minorities. The BEN offers providers a consultancy service (BEN, 2014b), which deals primarily with educating the staff to understand the "psychology" of ethnic minorities (J.L.W)

In addition, several of the participants had an involvement through Mosaic (S.W, C.K). As part of this "community champions" from the targeted group for inclusion were selected to work on the projects (S.W). In turn, this infiltration into often-closed communities is then hoped to have a snowball effect, to encourage other members of the community to join; Mosaic estimate that "at least 28,000 people have been introduced to the National Parks by the Community Champions during the life of the project" (CNP, 2014).

7.0 Conclusion

Although, this paper focused on the East Midlands, many of the findings may have repercussions for environmental tourist destinations across the country. The findings reaffirmed that ethnic minorities were underrepresented as environmental conservation consumers. However, two other profile features that of living in an urban area, and area that is considered deprived appeared influential. This was particularly important consideration when exploring the issue of ethnic minorities because research demonstrated ethnic minorities, compared to their 'mainstream' citizens frequently hold these profile features (Banard, 2014; Joseph Rowntree Foundations, 2007: Duffy & Smith, 2014).

Naturally, not all ethnic minorities can be classified as urban deprived. However, many perceived barriers suggested by participants either did not exist or were less severe when not considering urbanity and depravity. Viewing the issue of lack of ethnic minorities as consumers of environmental tourism, within a framework of urban depravity, had three main advantages: First, by viewing barriers in their most severe form it can ensure the issue is tackled for all. Second, many of the deterrents stated as being applicable to ethnic minorities, also apply to the urban deprived irrespective of ethnicity. This framework may help tourist understand why a wider section of consumers, those considered deprived and living in urban areas, fail to engage with such destinations. Third, by viewing what may deter the urban deprived as visitors closely to what may deter ethnic minorities, there becomes a financial incentive to encourage diversity. Many grants are often awarded to those targeting the urban deprived as opposed to initiative specialising with ethnic minorities (Access to Nature, 2010).

Considering the barriers, demand drivers, and incentives for tourist providers to engage ethnic minorities with environmental conservation destinations the study advised a distinction between rural and urban environmental destinations. The study suggested that urban destinations would be at an advantage compared to more rurally located sites to meet criteria to gain grant funding. This is because many of the barriers were

seen as less prolific for urban destinations. From the findings, three main areas were flagged for particular attention: marketing to change the perception of the domestic natural environment as exclusive to the white-middle classes, find relevant links of the environmental destination to non-traditional consumers and joint ventures with community groups to help staff relate to underrepresented groups.

With regards to the wider, literature this study concurs with those that argue socio-demographic features need to be considered when exploring ethnic minorities' absence from domestic natural sites (Askins 2006; Elmendorf et al 2005; Newell & Green, 1997; Washburn 1978 cited in Floyd, 2001). However, this study specified the additional profile of the urban deprived should be considered when exploring ethnic minorities and the environment. Many participants agreed that integration into nature provided mental health benefits (Ulrich et al., 1991) and several suggested the integrative opportunities for ethnic minorities (Jay & Schraml, 2009). Incentives for environmental tourist providers to launch campaigns to encourage ethnic minorities have been virtually unexplored in academic literature. Many of the barriers found by the study concurred with works on barriers to national parks (Askins, 2006; Breakwell, 2002; Pendergast, 2005). Specifically, participants seemed to support the works, which explored limited green space in the urban environment for certain sections of society (Comber et al., 2008; Barbosa at al 2007), but linked this to environmental destination attendance.

This study has several limitations. As with any qualitative study the influence of the research is great, particularly in the thematic coding approach that was used to outline the findings (Crewsell, 2014). Furthermore, my undergraduate degree influenced a thematic and open coding process, as opposed to a rigid systematical study. Additionally, the term 'ethnic minorities' is a wide-ranging term and future studies may consider segment dealing with a specific culture, to gain insight in further depth (Gentin, 2011). This study, did not recruit any stakeholders from urban destinations, instead much information about urban sites came

anecdotally from other participants and as such creates a possible further avenue of study.

More widely, Moss and Lindo believed that a lack of ethnic minorities in public positions within the environmental industry was perpetuating a feeling of exclusivity. There are several notable ethnic minority faces in the industry for example Cindy Forde is the Managing Director of the Blue Marine Foundation and Sanjida O'Connell who is an environmental author, journalist and presenter, but these are very much the exception (BMF, 2014; O'Connell, 2014). The need for more role models was raised by former BBC environmental correspondent Sarah Mukherjee, who holds South Asian heritage at the State of Nature Conference (2014). Furthermore she reflected on her own childhood cultural detachment from nature stating: "the countryside was something that you drove through to get to something more interesting" (State of Nature Conference, 2014).

There are signs that the conservation industry is critically assessing its consumer base; the National Trust has recently launched a TV and radio campaign named a "50 things to do before you're 11¾" aimed at engaging children with nature (National Trust, 2014b;web source). Hopefully, the industry can continue campaigns to appeal to wider demographics to include ethnic minorities, and the urban deprived who often do not reap the many rewards of the British natural environment.

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8.1 Appendix 1

Can you please explain your role at x?

From you experience, are ethnic minorities underrepresented in x tourist attraction?

What do you feel may act as barriers to ethnic minority attendance at environmental attractions?

Does the attraction provide any specific initiatives to encourage visitors from ethnic communities?

What do you believe are the main opportunities for ethnic minorities visiting x attraction?

Do you believe there are any incentives for tourist providers to engage in initiatives to encourage ethnic minorities?

What do you think are the main challenges for tourist providers looking to design/implement diversity initiatives?

Are there any other (if believe ethnic minorities are) groups in society that you feel are underrepresented as consumers to environmental tourist destinations?

What do you feel environmental tourist operators could do to encourage a more diverse consumer base?

8.2 Appendix 2

Information for Participants

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the project. Your participation is voluntary, and you may change your mind about being involved, or decline to answer a particular question or questions at any time and without giving a reason.

This information sheet is designed to give you full details of the project, its goals, and what you will be asked to do as part of the research. If you have any questions that are not answered by this information sheet, please ask.

Title: The connection between ethnic communities and environmental nature conservation tourism projects in the East Midlands

Project researcher: Victoria Shepherd

The research aims to explore the connection between ethnic minority communities and environmental tourism. In turn, the research aims to provide insight into the aspects of environmental tourism that both appeal and do not appeal to ethnic minority communities, and from this practical implications for the environmental tourism industry will aim to be derived.

Other participants: ethnic community leaders, environmental tourist providers and those active in the wildlife/nature industry.

Role of participants: Participants will be asked to discuss the perceived role of ethnic minority groups as consumers in the environmental tourism industry, and possible industry initiatives to increase the consumer base amongst ethnic community groups. For those undertaking a spoken interview, participants may be asked to be voice recorded. If desired, participants may remain anonymous. Interviews will last no longer than an hour.

Data storage: Data will be stored on a password locked computer.

Use of data: The data will form part of the body of research for a 20,000 word dissertation that will contribute to a MSc International Business postgraduate degree at the University of Nottingham.

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Complaints and governance procedure:
If you wish to complain about the way in which the research is being conducted or have any concerns about the research then in the first instance please contact Victoria Shepherd or Dr Rob Lambert or the School's Research Ethics Officer:

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8.3 Appendix 3

1. From participants' experience, are ethnic minorities underrepresented as environmental conservations consumers?

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Other\ than\ White\ middle\ classes\ (implication) \\ Least\ wealthy \\ Urban \end{matrix}\right] \begin{matrix} \} \\ \} \\ \} \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} Ethnic\ minorities \\ Urban\ Deprived \end{matrix}$$

2.What are the incentives for ethnic minorities to visit environmental conservation destinations?

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Natural\ Features\} \\ Views\} \end{matrix}\right) Scenery$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Ospreys\} \\ Ducks\} \\ Sparrows\} \end{matrix}\right) Wildlife$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Grounding\} \\ Mental\ well-being\} \\ Physical\ fitness\} \end{matrix}\right) Health$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} \text{Visitor centre}\} \\ \text{Cycling}\} \\ \text{Fun days}\} \\ \text{Cruises}\} \end{matrix}\right) \text{Activities}$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Expert\ Guide\} \\ Learn\ about\ heritage\} \end{matrix}\right) Knowledge$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Enjoyment\} \\ Day\ out\} \end{matrix}\right) Undefined\ recreation$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Integration\} \\ Reminds\ of\ home\ landscape\} \end{matrix}\right) Ethnic\ minority\ specific$$

3.What are the incentives for tourist providers to undertake campaigns to encourage a greater proportion of ethnic minority visitors?

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Growing\ middle\ ethnic\ minority\ market\} \\ Grants\} \\ Local\ Business\} \end{matrix}\right\} Financial$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Local\ membership\} \\ "doing\ well"\} \end{matrix}\right\} No\ financial$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} People\ engagement\} \\ Future\ sustsainability\} \end{matrix}\right\} Conservation\ Message$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} People\ management\} \\ Primary\ focus\ preservation\} \end{matrix}\right\} Struggle\ to\ balance\ conservation$$

4.What is/are acting as barriers to prevent ethnic minorities from visiting environmental conservation sites?

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Don't\ identify\ with\ British\ nature\} \\ Not\ what\ usually\ do\} \end{matrix}\right\} Culture$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Ticket\ price\} \\ Transport\} \end{matrix}\right\} Financial$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Lack\ of\ variety\ of\ food\} \\ Accomodation\} \end{matrix}\right\} Supportive\ infrastructure$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} No\ links\ or\ relevence\ to\ BEMs\} \\ Coutryside\ as\ white\} \\ Lack\ of\ public\ wildlife\ BEM\ experts\} \\ Language\} \end{matrix}\right\} Perception\ of\ exclusion$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Don't\ know\} \\ Lack\ of\ understandable\ material\} \end{matrix}\right\} Lack\ of\ information$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix} Education\ does\ not\ facilitate\} \\ Urban\ environment\} \\ Access\ to\ nice'landscapes\} \end{matrix}\right\} existing\ connection\ with\ natue$$

Coding framework concept (Bryman & Bell, 2011:588)