



ecotourism

second edition david fennell

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Ecotourism, second edition

As arguably the largest and fastest-growing industry, the potential impacts of tourism are considerable. Devised by social and natural scientists, ecotourism can be an effective way to safeguard local communities and prevent new destruction of the natural world. Responding to increased interest and global competition, the tourism industry has not been slow to appropriate the term to describe a host of different experiences, markedly different from its origins.

The revised and updated edition of *Ecotourism* provides a broad introduction, including:

- The relationship of ecotourism to the broader tourism literature;
- History, definition and typologies of ecotourism;
- Social and ecological impacts of tourism;
- Role of tourism policy, regulation, certification, accreditation and professionalism;
- Economics, marketing and management of ecotourism;
- Ecotourism programme planning;
- Ecotourism and international development and the role of community development;
- The role of ethics.

The second edition incorporates new material on eco-labelling, environmental management and guiding. A new chapter has been added on programme planning and coverage of environmental impacts, and community-based management has been strengthened. The book also incorporates new developments stemming from the 2002 World Ecotourism meeting in Quebec. New case studies and examples have been added throughout, as well as annotated further reading.

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Ecotourism

An introduction

Second edition

David A. Fennell



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To my family

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Preface

This book came to be written for three main reasons. The first of these was to address what might be considered ‘inconsistencies’ in the philosophical basis of ecotourism, and the development and implementation of ecotourism products in a wide variety of destinations. For example, in a sobering account of her travel experience in the Peruvian rainforest, Arlen (1995) writes that ecotourism has reached a critical juncture in its evolution. She speaks graphically of instances where tourists endured swimming in water with human waste; guides capturing sloths and caiman for tourists to photograph; raw sewage openly dumped into the ocean; mother cheetahs killing their cubs to avoid the harassment of cheetah-chasing tourists; and an ecotourism industry under-regulated with little hope for enforcement. Similar experiences have been recorded by other writers including Farquharson (1992), who argues that ecotourism is a dream that has been severely diluted. She writes that whereas birding once prevailed, ecotourism has fallen into the clutches of many of the mega-resorts like Cancún: The word [ecotourism] changes color like a chameleon. What began as a concept designed by ecologists to actively prevent the destruction of the environment has become a marketing term for tourism developers who want to publicize clean beaches, fish-filled seas and a bit of culture for when the sunburn begins to hurt (Farquharson 1992:8). These scenarios appear to be worlds apart from the evolution of ecotourism in the not too distant past, where, as outlined by Farquharson, it was seen as a haven for birdwatchers and scientists alike. Clearly ecotourism is a thriving economic enterprise in both developed and less developed countries around the world. However, while scientists occupy one end of the ecotourism continuum, in other cases this form of tourism has come to represent a completely different type of experience, with the industry clamouring to take advantage of a larger and softer market of ecotourists, as a result of increased interest and competition. According to some (Budowski in Arlen, 1995), ecotravellers at this softer end of the continuum have learned to expect a type of experience much like what one might get in Hawaii or Cancún. The industry involvement is just one of many facets of the ecotourism industry discussed in this book. Others include government involvement in ecotourism, aboriginal interests, partnership and training, tourist demand, structural differences between developed and developing countries, policy and regulation, ethics and responsibility, and so on.

Second, the book was undertaken to demonstrate the fact that there is a vast amount of ecotourism material that is currently available in the literature. Literally hundreds of articles have been written on ecotourism—academic and non-academic—many of which have surfaced in the past seven or eight years. It was felt that an introductory book would address at least some of this literature in addition to many key issues related to the field.

Finally, a review of literature made it clear that few texts of this nature are currently available to help students in their understanding of the topic area. A significant body of literature cited in the book, especially in regard to tourism and recreation, falls outside the realm of ecotourism research. This is intentional, as it

indirectly suggests that in many cases much valuable tourism research is neglected by ecotourism writers and researchers. Because of the infancy of ecotourism research there are many 'unknowns' that may be partially addressed by the general tourism literature and literature from other disciplines.

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Outside of academia, and most importantly, I wish to acknowledge my family, who provided endless support and encouragement throughout the writing of this book (and in all other endeavours of my life). My parents and brothers continue to be strong influences in my life, as are my wife, son and daughter who make each day better than the one before it.

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1

The nature of tourism

In this chapter the tourism system is discussed, including definitions of tourism and associated industry elements. Considerable attention is paid to attractions as fundamental elements of the tourist experience. Both mass tourism and alternative tourism paradigms are introduced as a means by which to overview the philosophical approaches to tourism development to the present day. Finally, much of the chapter is devoted to sustainable development and sustainable tourism, including sustainable tourism indicators, for the purpose of demonstrating the relevance of this form of development to the future of the tourism industry. This discussion will provide a backdrop from which to analyse ecotourism, which is detailed at length in [Chapter 2](#).

Defining tourism

As one of the world's largest industries, tourism is associated with many of the prime sectors of the world's economy. Any such phenomenon that is intricately interwoven into the fabric of life economically, socio-culturally, and environmentally and relies on primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of production and service, is difficult to define in simple terms. This difficulty is mirrored in a 1991 issue of *The Economist*:

There is no accepted definition of what constitutes the [tourism] industry; any definition runs the risk of either overestimating or underestimating economic activity. At its simplest, the industry is one that gets people from their home to somewhere else (and back), and which provides lodging and food for them while they are away. But that does not get you far. For example, if all the sales of restaurants were counted as travel and tourism, the figure would be artificially inflated by sales to locals. But to exclude all restaurant sales would be just as misleading.

It is this complex integration within our socio-economic system (a critical absence of focus), according to Clawson and Knetsch (1966) and Mitchell (1984), that complicates efforts to define tourism. Tourism studies are often placed poles apart in terms of philosophical approach, methodological orientation, or intent of the investigation. A variety of tourism definitions, each with disciplinary attributes, reflect research initiatives corresponding to various fields. For example, tourism shares strong fundamental characteristics and theoretical foundations with the recreation and leisure studies field. According to Jansen-Verbeke and Dietvorst (1987) the terms 'leisure', 'recreation' and 'tourism' represent a type of loose, harmonious unity which focuses on the experiential and activity-based features that typify these terms. On the other hand, economic and technical/statistical definitions generally ignore the human experiential elements of the

concept in favour of an approach based on the movement of people over political borders and the amount of money generated from this movement.

It is this relationship with other disciplines, e.g. psychology, sociology, anthropology, geography, economics, which seems to have defined the complexion of tourism. However, despite its strong reliance on such disciplines, some, including Leiper (1981), have advocated a move away in favour of a distinct tourism discipline. To Leiper the way in which we need to approach the tourism discipline should be built around the structure of the industry, which he considers as an open system of five elements interacting with broader environments: (1) a dynamic human element, (2) a generating region, (3) a transit region, (4) a destination region, and (5) the tourist industry. This definition is similar to one established by Mathieson and Wall (1982), who see tourism as comprising three basic elements: (1) a dynamic element, which involves travel to a selected destination; (2) a static element, which involves a stay at the destination; and (3) a consequential element, resulting from the above two, which is concerned with the effects on the economic, social, and physical subsystems with which the tourist is directly or indirectly in contact. Others, including Mill and Morrison, define tourism as a system of interrelated parts. The system is 'like a spider's web—touch one part of it and reverberations will be felt throughout' (Mill and Morrison 1985:xix). Included in their tourism system are four component parts, including Market (reaching the marketplace), Travel (the purchase of travel products), Destination (the shape of travel demand), and Marketing (the selling of travel).

In recognition of the difficulty in defining tourism, Smith (1990a) feels that it is more realistic to accept the existence of a number of different definitions, each designed to serve different purposes. This may in fact prove to be the most practical of approaches to follow. In this book, tourism is defined as the interrelated system that includes tourists and the associated services that are provided and utilised (facilities, attractions, transportation, and accommodation) to aid in their movement, while a tourist, as established by the World Tourism Organization, is defined as a person travelling for pleasure for a period of at least one night, but not more than one year for international tourists and six months for persons travelling in their own countries, with the main purpose of the visit being other than to engage in activities for remuneration in the place(s) visited.

Tourism attractions

The tourism industry includes a number of key elements that tourists rely upon to achieve their general and specific goals and needs within a destination. Broadly categorised, they include facilities, accommodation, transportation, and attractions. Although an in-depth discussion of each is beyond the scope of this book, there is merit in elaborating upon the importance of tourism attractions as a fundamental element of the tourist experience. These may be loosely categorised as cultural (e.g., historical sites, museums), natural (e.g., parks, flora and fauna), events (e.g., festivals, religious events), recreation (e.g., golf, hiking), and entertainment (e.g., theme parks, cinemas), according to Goeldner *et al.* (2000). Past tourism research has tended to rely more on the understanding of attractions, and how they affect tourists, than of other components of the industry. As Gunn has suggested, 'they [attractions] represent the most important reasons for travel to destinations' (1972:24).

MacCannell described tourism attractions as 'empirical relationships between a tourist, a site and a marker' (1989:41). The tourist represents the human component, the site includes the actual destination or physical entity, and the marker represents some form of information that the tourist uses to identify and give meaning to a particular attraction. Lew (1987), however, took a different view, arguing that under the

conditions of tourist-site-marker, virtually anything could become an attraction, including services and facilities. Lew chose to emphasise the objective and subjective characteristics of attractions by suggesting that researchers ought to be concerned with three main areas of the attraction:

- *Ideographic*. Describes the concrete uniqueness of a site. Sites are individually identified by name and usually associated with small regions. This is the most frequent form of attraction studied in tourism research.
- *Organisational*. The focus is not on the attractions themselves, but rather on their spatial capacity and temporal nature. Scale continua are based on the size of the area which the attraction encompasses.
- *Cognitive*. A place that fosters the feeling of being a tourist, Attractions are places that elicit feelings related to what Relph (1976) termed 'insider' 'outsider', and the authenticity of MacCannell's (1989) front and back regions.

Leiper (1990:381) further added to the debate by adapting MacCannell's model into a systems definition. He wrote that:

A tourist attraction is a systematic arrangement of three elements: a person with touristic needs, a nucleus (any feature or characteristic of a place they might visit) and at least one marker (information about the nucleus).

The type of approach established by Leiper is also reflected in the efforts of Gunn (1972), who has written at length on the importance of attractions in tourism research. Gunn produced a model of tourist attractions that contained three separate zones, including (1) the nuclei, or core of the attraction; (2) the inviolate belt, which is the space needed to set the nuclei in a context; and (3) the zone of closure, which includes desirable tourism infrastructure such as toilets and information. Gunn argued that an attraction missing one of these zones will be incomplete and difficult to manage.

Some authors, including Pearce (1982), Gunn (1988) and Leiper (1990), have made reference to the fact that attractions occur on various hierarchies of scale, from very specific and small objects within a site to entire countries and continents. This scale variability further complicates the analysis of attractions as both sites and regions. Consequently, there exists a series of attraction cores and attraction peripheries, within different regions, between regions, and from the perspective of the types of tourists who visit them. Spatially, and with the influence of time, the number and type of attractions visited by tourists and tourist groups may create a niche; a role certain types of tourists occupy within a vacation destination. Through an analysis of space, time, and other behavioural factors, tourists can be fitted into a typology based on their utilisation and travel between selected attractions. One could make the assumption that tourist groups differ on the basis of the type of attractions they choose to visit, and according to how much time they spend at them (see Fennell 1996). The implications for the tourism industry are that often it must provide a broad range of experiences for tourists interested in different aspects of a region. A specific destination region, for example, may recognise the importance of providing a mix of touristic opportunities, from the very specific, to more general interest experiences for the tourists in search of cultural and natural experiences, in urban, rural and back-country settings. ('Back' regions are defined on p. 34.)

Attractions have also been referred to in past research as sedentary, physical entities of a cultural or natural form (Gunn 1988). In their natural form, such attractions form the basis for distinctive types of

tourism which are based predominantly on aspects of the natural world, such as wildlife tourism (see Reynolds and Braithwaite 2001), and ecotourism (see Page and Dowling 2002). For example, to a birdwatcher individual species become attractions of the most specific and most sought-after kind. A case in point is the annual return of a single albatross at the Hermaness National Nature Reserve in Unst, Shetland, Scotland. The arrival of this species prompts birdwatching tourists immediately to change their plans in an effort to travel to Hermaness. The albatross has become a major attraction for birder-tourists, while Hermaness, in a broader context, acts as a medium (attraction cluster) by which to present the attraction (bird). Natural attractions can be transitory in space and time, and this time may be measured for particular species in seconds, hours, days, weeks, months, seasons, or years. For tourists who travel with the prime reason to experience these transitory attractions, their movement is a source of both challenge and frustration.

Mass and alternative tourism: competing paradigms

Tourism has been both lauded and denounced for its ability to develop and therefore transform regions into completely different settings. In the former case, tourism is seen to have provided the impetus for appropriate long-term development; in the latter the ecological and sociological disturbance to transformed regions can be overwhelming. While most of the documented cases of the negative impacts of tourism are in the developing world, the developed world is certainly not an exception. Young (1983), for example, documented the transformation of a small fishing farming community in Malta by graphically illustrating the extent to which tourism development—through an increasingly complex system of transportation, resort development, and social behaviour—overwhelms such areas over time.

These days we are more prone to vilify or characterise conventional mass tourism as a beast, a monstrosity which has few redeeming qualities for the destination region, their people and their natural resource base. Consequently, mass tourism has been criticised for the fact that it dominates tourism within a region owing to its non-local orientation, and the fact that very little money spent within the destination actually stays and generates more income. It is quite often the hotel or mega-resort that is the symbol of mass tourism's domination of a region, which are often created using non-local products, have little requirement for local food products, and are owned by metropolitan interests. Hotel marketing occurs on the basis of high volume, attracting as many people as possible, often over seasonal periods of time. The implications of this seasonality are such that local people are at times moved in and out of paid positions that are based solely on this volume of touristic traffic. Development exists as a means by which to concentrate people in very high densities, displacing local people from traditional subsistence-style livelihoods (as outlined by Young 1983) to ones that are subservience based. Finally, the attractions that lie in and around these massive developments are created and transformed to meet the expectations and demands of visitors. Emphasis is often on commercialisation of natural and cultural resources, and the result is a contrived and inauthentic representation of, for example, a cultural theme or event that has been eroded into a distant memory.

Admittedly the picture of mass tourism painted above is outlined to illustrate the point that the tourism industry has not always operated with the interests of local people and the resource base in mind. This was most emphatically articulated through much of the tourism research that emerged in the 1980s, which argued for a new, more socially and ecologically benign alternative to mass tourism development. According to Krippendorf (1982), the philosophy behind alternative tourism (AT)—forms of tourism that advocate an approach opposite to mass conventional tourism—was to ensure that tourism policies should no



Plate 1.1 Tourist development at Cancún, Mexico

longer concentrate on economic and technical necessities alone, but rather emphasise the demand for an unspoiled environment and consideration of the needs of local people. This ‘softer’ approach places the natural and cultural resources at the forefront of planning and development, instead of as an afterthought. Also, as an inherent function, alternative forms of tourism provide the means for countries to eliminate outside influences, and to sanction projects themselves and to participate in their development—in essence, to win back the decision-making power in essential matters rather than conceding to outside people and institutions.

AT is a generic term that encompasses a whole range of tourism strategies (e.g. ‘appropriate’, ‘eco-’, ‘soft’, ‘responsible’, ‘people to people’, ‘controlled’, ‘small-scale’, ‘cottage’, and ‘green’ tourism), all of which purport to offer a more benign alternative to conventional mass tourism in certain types of destinations (Conference Report 1990, cited in Weaver 1991). Deroi (1981) illustrates that the advantages of AT will be felt in five ways:

- 1 There will be benefits for the individual or family: accommodation based in local homes will channel revenue directly to families. Also families will acquire managerial skills.
- 2 The local community will benefit: AT will generate direct revenue for community members, in addition to upgrading housing standards while avoiding huge public infrastructure expenses.
- 3 For the host country, AT will help avoid the leakage of tourism revenue outside the country. AT will also help prevent social tensions and may preserve local traditions.
- 4 For those in the industrialised generating country, AT is ideal for cost-conscious travellers or for people who prefer close contacts with locals.
- 5 There will be benefits for international relations: AT may promote international-interregional-intercultural understanding.

Table 1.1 *Potential benefits derived from an alternative tourism strategy**Accommodation*

- Does not overwhelm the community.
- Benefits (jobs, expenditures) are more evenly distributed.
- Less competition with homes and businesses for the use of infrastructure.
- A larger percentage of revenues accrue to local areas.
- Greater opportunity for local entrepreneurs to participate in the tourism sector.

Attractions

- Authenticity and uniqueness of community is promoted and enhanced.
- Attractions are educational and promote self-fulfilment.
- Locals can benefit from existence of the attractions even if tourists are not present.

Market

- Tourists do not overwhelm locals in numbers; stress is avoided.
- 'Drought/deluge' cycles are avoided, and equilibrium is fostered.
- A more desirable visitor type.
- Less vulnerability to disruption within a single major market.

Economic impact

- Economic diversity is promoted to avoid single-sector dependence.
- Sectors interact and reinforce each other.
- Net revenues are proportionally higher; money circulates within the community.
- More jobs and economic activity are generated.

Regulation

- Community makes the critical development/strategy decisions.
- Planning to meet ecological, social, and economic carrying capacities.
- Holistic approach stresses integration and well-being of community interests.
- Long-term approach takes into account the welfare of future generations.
- Integrity of foundation assets is protected.
- Possibility of irreversibilities is reduced.

Source: Weaver (1993)

More specifically, Weaver (1993) has analysed the potential benefits of an AT design from the perspective of accommodation, attractions, market, economic impact, and regulation (Table 1.1). This more sensitive approach to tourism development strives to satisfy the needs of local people, tourists, and the resource base in a complementary rather than a competitive manner.

Some researchers, however, are quick to point out that as an option to mass tourism, full-fledged alternative tourism cannot replace conventional tourism simply because of mass tourism's varied and many-sided associated phenomena (Cohen 1987). Instead, it is more realistic to concentrate efforts in attempts to reform the worst prevailing situations, not the development of alternatives. Butler (1990) feels that mass tourism has not been rejected outright for two main reasons. The first is economic, in that it provides a significant amount of foreign exchange for countries; the second is socio-psychological and relates to the fact that



Plate 1.2 Alternative tourism can take many forms, including recreational fishing enterprises that maintain local control and small-scale design

many people seem to enjoy being a mass tourist. They actually like not having to make their own travel arrangements, not having to find accommodation when they arrive at a destination, being able to obtain goods and services without learning a foreign language, being able to stay in reasonable, in some cases considerable comfort, being able to eat reasonably familiar food, and not having to spend vast amounts of money or time to achieve these goals.

(Butler 1990:40)

Sustainable development and tourism

The measurement of development (i.e. a nation's stage of socio-economic advancement) has conventionally been accomplished through the implementation of a number of key economic indicators. Among others, these include variables such as protein intake, access to potable water, air quality, fuel, health care, education, employment, GDP and GNP. The so-called 'developed' world (countries like Australia, the USA, Canada, and those of Western Europe) therefore is defined by the existence of these socio-economic conditions, whereby those with more are considered more highly developed (more on development in [Chapter 8](#)). Furthermore, one's level of development, either objectively or subjectively, is often equated or synonymous with one's perceived stage of 'civilisation', whereby progress (usually economic) is a key to the relationship between who is civilised and who is not. The *Oxford English Dictionary* defines civilisation as an 'advanced stage of social development', and to civilise as to 'bring out of barbarism, enlighten'. The point to be made is that perhaps our perception of what is developed and what isn't, what is civilised and what isn't, is a matter of debate and one that our more recent approaches to development need to better address. For example, it has been noted that the most developed 20 per cent of the world's population (those in the 'West') are thought to use some 80 per cent of the world's resources with which to achieve

development. If it is our goal to have the entire world 'developed' according to this Western paradigm, the planet will be in serious jeopardy. Perhaps in a hundred or two hundred years *Homo sapiens* will look back at Western civilisation as the most barbaric time period in recorded history.

Deming (1996) shares the view that humanity needs to take a good long look at civilisation. She writes that people have an insatiable hunger to see more and more of the planet, and to get closer and closer to its natural attractions. This behaviour surfaces continually in tourism as the tentacles of the tourist seek to push the fine line that exists between acceptable and unacceptable human-wildlife interactions. For example, animal harassment regularly occurs in Point Pelee National Park in Ontario, Canada, as thousands of birders converge on the spring migration of birds in the park. Despite posted warnings, tourists continue to venture off the designated paths in identifying and photographing species. Deming asks: in the face of global warming, diminishing habitat, and massive extinctions, what can it mean to be civilised? Her response is a plea for limits, both social and ecological, in facing the enemy within:

As Pogo said during the Vietnam War, 'We've seen the enemy and it is us.' Suddenly we are both the invading barbarians and the only ones around to protect the city. Each one of us is at the center of the civilized world and on its edge.

(Deming 1996:32)

Milgrath (1989) talked of values as fundamental to everything we do (see also Forman 1990). He argues that humans have as a central value their personal desire to preserve their lives. This naturally evolves into a concern and value for other people—a social value. Milgrath suggests that it is inappropriate to elevate the preservation of each human life to a central concern because every person dies and this social preservation can never be realised. He feels instead that we should value the preservation of our ecosystems over society. Beyond the socially oriented values of society, Milgrath says we have given top priority to economic development, the result being that society will not be able to sustain itself over the long term.

Such a focus on instrumental values (something valued as a means to an end), takes us away from the perspective that non-human entities have value in and of themselves, and should exist in their own right. This 'ethic of nature' perspective is one which is more broadly intrinsic and ecocentric (Wearing and Neil 1999).

Sustainable development has been proposed as a model that can have utility in creating the impetus for structural change within society, one that ventures away from a strictly socio-economic focus to one where development 'meets the goals of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (World Commission on Environment and Development 1987:43). As such, the principles of ecology are essential to the process of economic development (Redclift 1987), with the aim of increasing the material standards of people living in the world who are impoverished (Barbier 1987). Even more fundamentally, though, it would seem more inspiring to hope that sustainable development would increase the moral standards of people living everywhere, which might naturally spill over into the realm of economics, which we know is critical to our viability. Tourism's international importance as an engine for economic growth, as well as its potential for growth, makes it particularly relevant to sustainable development. Consequently there is a wealth of literature emerging that is directly related to the sustainability of tourism, however broadly defined.

One of the first action strategies on tourism and sustainability emerged from the Globe '90 conference in British Columbia, Canada. Here, representatives from the tourism industry, government, non-governmental

organisations (NGOs), and academia discussed the importance of the environment in sustaining the tourism industry, and how poorly planned tourism developments often erode the very qualities of the natural and human environment that attract visitors. The conference delegates suggested that the goals of sustainable tourism are (1) to develop greater awareness and understanding of the significant contributions that tourism can make to environment and the economy; (2) to promote equity and development; (3) to improve the quality of life of the host community; (4) to provide a high quality of experience for the visitor; and (5) to maintain the quality of the environment on which the foregoing objectives depend. Although their definition of sustainable tourism development was somewhat non-committal (i.e. 'meeting the needs of present tourist and host region while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future'), a number of good recommendations were developed for policy, government, NGOs, the tourism industry, tourists, and international organisations. For example, the policy section contains 15 recommendations related to how tourism should be promoted, developed, defined, in addition to a series of regional, interregional, and spatial and temporal implications. One of the policy recommendations states that 'sustainable tourism requires the placing of guidelines for levels and types of acceptable growth but does not preclude new facilities and experiences' (Globe '90 1990:6).

From the perspective of financial prosperity and growth, there is an economic rationale for sustainability; as McCool (1995:3) asserts, 'once communities lose the character that makes them distinctive and attractive to nonresidents, they have lost their ability to vie for tourist-based income in an increasingly global and competitive marketplace'. In addition, McCool quotes Fallon in suggesting that sustainability is all about the pursuit of goals and measuring progress towards them. No longer is it appropriate to gauge appropriate development by physical output or economic bottom lines; there must also be consideration of social order and justice (see also Hall 1992 and Urry 1992). McCool feels, therefore, that in order for sustainable tourism to be successful, humans must consider the following: (1) how tourists value and use natural environments; (2) how communities are enhanced through tourism; (3) identification of tourism's social and ecological impacts; and (4) management of these impacts.

Accordingly, many researchers and associations have initiated the process of determining and measuring impacts. As outlined above, Globe '90 was one of the initial and integral forces in linking tourism with sustainable development. This was followed by Globe '92 (Hawkes and Williams 1993) and the move from principles to practice in implementing measures of sustainability in tourism. Even so, it was recognised in this conference that there was much work to be done in implementing sustainable principles in tourism, as emphasised by Roy (in Sadler 1992:ix):

Sustainable tourism is an extension of the new emphasis on sustainable development. Both remain concepts. I have not found a single example of either in India. The closest for tourism is in Bhutan. Very severe control of visitors—2000 per year—conserves the environment and the country's unique socio-cultural identity. Even there, trekking in the high altitudes, I find the routes littered with the garbage of civilization.

Although many examples exist in the literature on tourism and sustainable development (see Nelson *et al.* 1993), few sustainable tourism projects have withstood the test of time. An initiative that has received some exposure in the literature is the Bali Sustainable Development Project, coordinated through the University of Waterloo, Canada, and Gadjahmada University in Indonesia (see Wall 1993; Mitchell 1994). This is a project that has been applied at a multisectoral level. Tourism, then, is one of many sectors, albeit a prime

Table 1.2 *Core indicators of sustainable tourism*

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Specific measures</i>
Site protection	Category of site protection according to IUCN index
Stress	Tourist numbers visiting site (per annum/peak month)
Use intensity	Intensity of use in peak period (persons/hectare)
Social impact	Ratio of tourists to locals (peak period and over time)
Development control	Existence of environmental review procedure or formal controls over development of site and use densities
Waste management	Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment (additional indicators may include structural limits of other infrastructural capacity on site, such as water supply)
Planning process	Existence of organised regional plan for tourist destination region (including tourism component)
Critical ecosystems	Number of rare or endangered species
Consumer satisfaction	Level of satisfaction by visitors (survey-based)
Local satisfaction	Level of satisfaction by locals (survey-based)
Tourism contribution to local economy	Proportion of total economic activity generated by tourism
<i>Composite indices</i>	
Carrying capacity	Composite early warning measure of key factors affecting the ability of the site to support different levels of tourism
Site stress	Composite measure of levels of impact on the site (its natural/cultural attributes due to tourism and other sector cumulative stress)
Attractivity	Qualitative measure of those site attributes that make it attractive to tourism and can change over time

Source: Consulting and Audit Canada (1995)

one, that drives the Balinese economy. Wall (1993) suggests that some of the main conclusions from his work on the project are as follows:

- 1 Be as culturally sensitive as possible in developing a sustainable development strategy.
- 2 Work within existing institutional frameworks as opposed to creating new ones.
- 3 Multi-sectoral planning is critical to a sustainable development strategy and means must be created to allow all affected stakeholders to participate in decision-making.

(See also the work of Cooper (1995) on the offshore islands of the UK and the work of Aylward *et al.* (1996) on the sustainability of the Monteverde Cloud Forest Preserve in Costa Rica as good examples of tourism and sustainability.) The integration of tourism with other land uses in a region has also been addressed by Butler (1993:221), who sees integration as ‘the incorporation of an activity into an area on a basis acceptable to other activities and the environment within the general goal of sustainable or long-term development’. Butler identified complementarity, compatibility, and competitiveness as variables that could be used as a first step in prioritising land uses, where complementarity leads to a higher degree of integration and competitiveness leads to segregation of the activity relative to other land uses.

Other models have been more unisectoral in their approach to the place of tourism within a destination region. These have tended to identify a range of indicators that identify a sustainable approach or unsustainable approach to the delivery of tourism. Examples include Canova’s (1994) illustration of how tourists can be responsible towards the environment and local populations; Forsyth’s (1995) overview of

Table 1.3 *Ecosystem-specific indicators*

<i>Ecosystem</i>	<i>Sample indicators^a</i>
Coastal zones	Degradation (percentage of beach degraded, eroded) Use intensity (persons per metre of accessible beach) Water quality (faecal coliform and heavy metals counts)
Mountain regions	Erosion (percentage of surface area eroded) Biodiversity (key species counts) Access to key sites (hours' wait)
Managed wildlife parks	Species health (reproductive success, species diversity) Use intensity (ratio of visitors to game) Encroachment (percentage of park affected by unauthorised activity)
Ecologically unique sites	Ecosystem degradation (number and mix of species, percentage area with change in cover) Stress on site (number of operators using site) Number of tourist sightings of key species (percentage success)
Urban environments	Safety (crime numbers) Waste counts (amounts of rubbish, costs) Pollution (air pollution counts)
Cultural sites (built)	Site degradation (restoration/repair costs) Structure degradation (precipitation acidity, air pollution counts) Safety (crime levels)
Cultural sites (traditional)	Potential social stress (ratio average income of tourists/locals) In season sites (percentage of vendors open year round) Antagonism (reported incidents between locals and tourists)
Small islands	Currency leakage (percentage of loss from total tourism revenues) Ownership (percentage foreign ownership of tourism establishments) Water availability (costs, remaining supply)

Source: Manning (1996)

Note:

^a These ecosystem-specific indicators are merely suggested, and act as supplements to core indicators

sustainable tourism and self-regulation; Moscardo *et al.*'s (1996) look at ecologically sustainable forms of tourism accommodation; and Consulting and Audit Canada's (1995) guide to the development of core and site-specific sustainable tourism indicators (see also Manning 1996). Table 1.2 identifies the core indicators identified in this document. These core indicators (e.g. site protection, stress, use intensity, waste management, and so on) must, according to the report, be used in concert with specific site or destination indicators. This report identifies two categories of this latter group of indicators: (1) supplementary ecosystem-specific indicators (applied to specific biophysical land and water regions), and (2) site-specific indicators, which are developed for a particular site. Table 1.3 provides an overview of some of these 'secondary' ecosystem indicators.

Some publications have discussed tourism and sustainability from the perspective of codes of ethics (codes of ethics are discussed at length in Chapter 9). While indicators are variables that are identified and used to measure and monitor tourism impacts, codes of ethics or conduct are lists designed to elicit a change in behaviour of particular stakeholder groups; a form of compliance for acceptable behaviour at a tourism

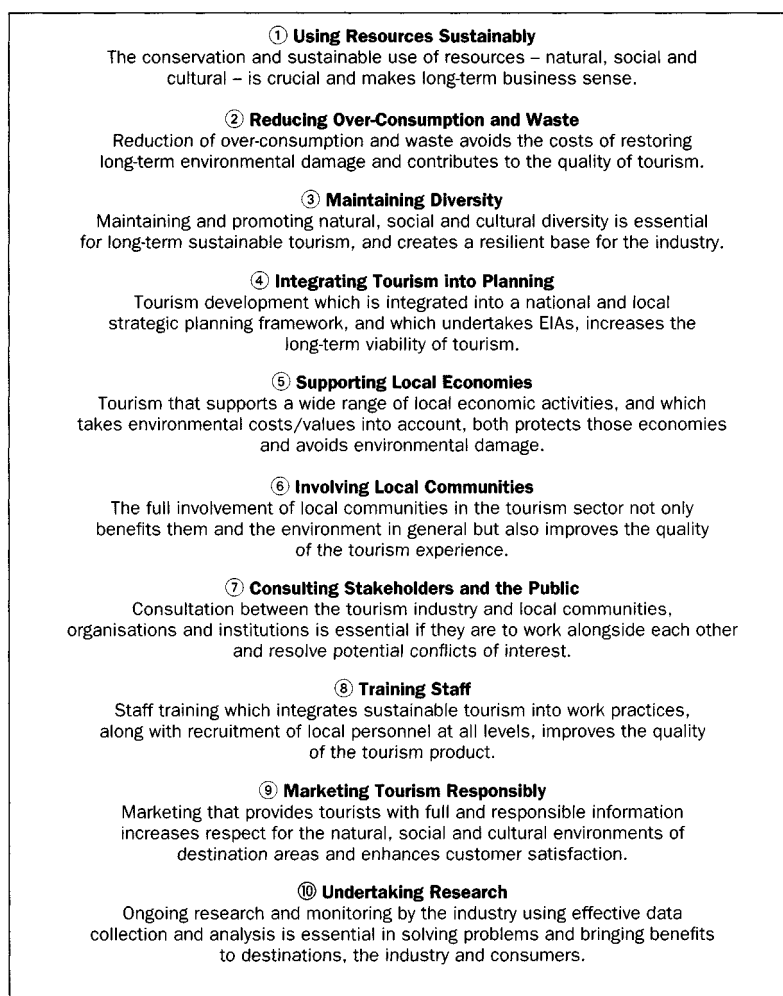


Figure 1.1 Principles for sustainable tourism

Source: Tourism Concern (1992)

setting. The *Beyond the Green Horizon* paper on sustainable tourism (Tourism Concern 1992) is a good example of this form of education. To Tourism Concern, sustainable tourism is:

tourism and associated infrastructures that, both now and in the future: operate within natural capacities for the regeneration and future productivity of natural resources; recognise the contribution that people and communities, customs and lifestyles, make to the tourism experience; accept that these people must have an equitable share in the economic benefits of tourism; are guided by the wishes of local people and communities in the host areas.