

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The literature related to the examination of nature-based tourists in natural areas, their impacts and sustainable tourism development is presented in this chapter. The chapter is organized in four major sections:

1. Sustainable Tourism Development in Protected Areas
 - a) Protected Areas
 - b) Sustainable Tourism Development
2. Nature-based Forms of Tourism
 - a) Adventure Tourism
 - b) Agri-Tourism
 - c) Wildlife Tourism
 - d) Ecotourism
3. Impacts of Tourism in Protected Areas
 - a) Economic Impacts
 - b) Environmental Impacts
 - c) Social-Cultural Impacts
4. Summary

2.1 Sustainable Tourism Development in Protected Areas

“To illustrate how difficult communication can be internationally, here is an example from outside of conservation. If you walk into a Starbucks in America and ask for a café grande, they will give you a medium-sized cup of coffee. If you ask for a café grande in Mexico, they may give you a bowl of coffee and a quizzical look. Ask for a café grande in Venice, and they will direct you to a shop on the Piazza Indipendenza. To understand parks and protected areas globally, we have to have a common language” (Mitchell, 2007, p.1).

In order to address the problem of misconception, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) created a classification system for protected areas which will be presented in the following. Further, the idea of sustainable tourism develop-

ment will be defined to allow a comprehensive understanding of its relevance for protected areas.

2.1.1 Protected Areas

According to the *Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories* by the IUCN, Dudley (2008) specifies a protected area (PA) as “a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values” (p. 8). The term encompasses a wide variety of designations, such as nature reserve, wilderness area, national park or protected landscape that can be land, inland water, coastal or marine areas, or a combination thereof. Different aims and restrictions apply to every IUCN protection category. However, all categories pursue the principle of conserving biodiversity and maintaining diversity of landscape or habitat (Dudley, 2008).

In total, the IUCN classified protected areas into six categories with each having different management objectives to “reflect recognition that conservation is not achieved by the same route in every situation” (Dudley, 2008, p. 3). Table 1 gives an overview of the different categories and their characteristics, based on the IUCN guidelines (2008).

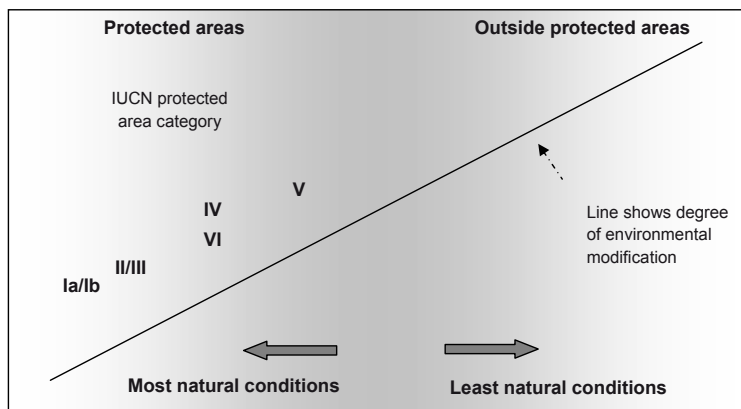
Table 1 IUCN Management Categories of Protected Areas

Category	Description
Ia. Strict nature reserves	- strict control and limitation of human visitation, use and impacts - managed mainly for scientific research
Ib. Wilderness areas	- usually large unmodified or slightly modified areas - focus is on preservation of the areas' natural character without permanent or significant human habitation
II. National parks	- large natural or near natural areas - managed mainly for ecosystem protection, education and recreation
III. Natural monument or feature	- generally quite small areas with a huge visitor value - managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features (e.g. submarine cavern, cave, landform)
IV. Habitat/species management areas	- managed mainly for protection of particular species or habitats through management interventions
V. Protected landscapes/seascapes	- areas of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value - formed by high interaction of people and nature - managed mainly for conservation and recreation
VI. Protected areas with sustainable use of natural resources	- generally large areas - managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems and conservation of cultural values

Source: Adapted from Dudley, 2008, p. 13-22

As can be noticed from the descriptions above, the extent of human intervention differs in every category. However, this classification system does not automatically imply a gradation in the areas' naturalness in order from I to VI, as illustrated in Figure 2.1(Dudley, 2008).

Figure 2.1 Naturalness and IUCN Protected Area Categories



Source: Adapted from Dudley, 2008, p. 24

It should be noted, however, that all designations of each of the IUCN categories are not fixed. The classification is rather “a framework to guide improved application of the categories” (Dudley, 2008, p. 3) and it is up to individual countries to determine which category and term describes their protected areas best. For example, the term ‘national park’ existed long before the IUCN category system and many national parks worldwide pursue different aims than those defined under the guidelines’ category II. Therefore, some national parks are categorized under other IUCN categories (see Table 2).

Table 2 Various Categories for ‘National Park’

Category	Name	Location
Ia	Dipperu National Park	Australia
II	Yellowstone National Park	USA
III	Gross Barmen Hot Springs National Park	Namibia
IV	Ethniko Parko Schinia Marathona National Park	Greece
V	Fuji-Hakone-Izu National Park	Japan
VI	Koroyanitu National Heritage Park	Fiji

Source: Adapted from World Database on Protected Areas, 2012a-f

Regardless of the category, according to Stolton (2009, p. 13), all protected areas serve a variety of purposes along with biodiversity, conservation and have their main benefits in providing a basis for:

- “Recreation
- Health and well-being, quality of life
- Environmental education
- Sustainable tourism and transport
- Sustainable land-use (agriculture, forestry, fishery, hunting)
- Sustainable development of rural areas
- Regional and national identity
- Regional marketing
- Integrated regional development (including economic impacts)
- Employment (including economic impacts).”

If a protected area is managed in an environmentally sound way to aim for these benefits and the principle of conservation is pursued, it may be used economically for sustainable tourism development.

2.1.2 Sustainable Tourism Development

Increasing tourist numbers worldwide have led to the recognition of an urgent need “to promote sustainable tourism development to minimize its environmental impact and to maximize socio-economic benefits at tourist destinations” (Neto, 2003, p. 218). As mentioned at the beginning of this thesis, uncontrolled tourism development can lead to destruction and exploitation of nature and thus, a destination may lose its original appearance, identity and resources.

The concept of sustainable development was popularized by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in its 1987 report entitled *Our Common Future*, also known as the *Brundtland Report* (Tosun, 1998), that defined sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987, IV.1). Five years later, the Rio Earth Summit adopted *Agenda 21*, a blue print to secure the concept of sustainability and to address environmental and development issues (Jafari, 2000). It should be noted that tourism was not included in *Agenda 21*. However, it pointed out that tourism could offer sustainable development opportunities.

As tourism as an industry grew more and more and its impacts on the environment emerged and were recognized by the industry’s key stakeholders, sustainability in

tourism gained in importance and resulted in the definition of the priorities of sustainable tourism and finally in the development of *Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry* by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) in 1995 (UN, 2001). The growing awareness of sustainability paved the way for a more sustainable approach to development of tourism and led to the publication of the *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism* by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in 1999, focusing the postulates of sustainable tourism to assist governments and diverse tourism organizations to achieve sustainable development. The guiding principles are highlighted in Table 3.

Table 3 Guiding Principles for Sustainable Development

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Travel and tourism should assist people in leading healthy and productive lives in harmony with nature. 2. Travel and tourism should contribute to the conservation, protection, and restoration of the earth's ecosystem. 3. Travel and tourism should be based upon sustainable patterns of production and consumption. 4. Nations should cooperate to promote an open economic system, in which international trade in travel and tourism services can take place on a sustainable basis. 5. Travel and tourism, peace, development, and environmental protection are interdependent. Protectionism for trade in travel and tourism services should be halted or reversed. 6. Environmental protection should constitute an integral part of the tourism development process. 7. Tourism development issues should be handled with the participation of concerned citizens, with planning decisions being adopted at the local level. 8. Nations shall warn one another of natural disasters that could affect tourists or tourist areas. 9. Travel and tourism should use its capacity to create employment for women and indigenous peoples to the fullest extent. 10. Tourism development should recognise and support the identity, culture, and interests of indigenous peoples. 11. International laws protecting the environment should be respected by the travel and tourism industry |
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Source: UNWTO, 1996, p. 34

The above-mentioned principles underpinning sustainable development in tourism are, however, not unique to tourism and can be applied to sustainable development in general. It is of paramount importance that tourism stakeholders cooperate with local authorities and environmental agencies to work towards a sustainable development and achieve the principles of sustainability. Due to varying interpretations and perceptions of sustainability, a holistic approach is therefore essential (Slee et al., 1997).

In 2004, the UNWTO defined “sustainable tourism development guidelines and management practices [as being] applicable to all forms of tourism (...), including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments” (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005, p. 11). The organization also highlighted that the principles of sustainable development in tourism must concern environmental, economic and socio-cultural issues in a suitable balance in order to ensure a long-term effect (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005). These issues will be described more closely in Chapter 2 (p. 32).

Finally, the UNWTO’s concept of sustainable tourism in the context of sustainable development refers to tourist activities “leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems” (UN, 2001, p. 3).

To tighten a holistic approach towards sustainable development and offer a common framework for sustainable practices in the tourism industry, the World Conservation Congress in Barcelona in 2008 announced for the very first time globally relevant sustainable tourism criteria (UNEP, 2008). The Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC) was established two years later to ensure the dissemination and application of the global sustainable tourism criteria. To date, the GSTC developed two sets of criteria: one for hotels and tour operators, and one for destinations. Both sets focus on the four main themes of maximizing tourism’s social and economic benefits to local communities; reducing negative impacts on cultural heritage; reducing harm to local environments; and planning for sustainability (GSTC, 2013).

To summarize, the term sustainability “implies steady life conditions for generations to come” (Zhenhua, 2003, p. 461) and can be considered state-focused. Sustainable development is more process-oriented and encompasses managed changes that aim at bringing improvement for those being involved. In the context of tourism, there are several forms that can contribute to sustainable development of destinations as long as its principles are pursued.

Most of all, fragile environments and protected areas are in need of sustainable development to preserve their natural resources and habitats, especially when there is a growing interest by locals and tourists. The impacts of human interference are inevitable but can be intentionally managed. A closer examination of impacts of tourism on protected areas will be given in section 3 of this chapter. Prior to that, several nature-based forms of tourism will be analyzed as they are considered as being *alternative tourism* which, according to Holden (2007, p. 232) “can be viewed as being synonymous with the concept of sustainable tourism development”. Additionally, the fol-

lowing characteristics of alternative tourism comply with the principles of sustainable development and the four main themes of the global sustainable tourism criteria:

- “Small scale of development with high rates of local ownership
- Minimised negative environmental and social impacts
- Maximised linkages to other sectors of the local economy
- Retention of the majority of the economic expenditure from tourism to local people
- Localised power sharing and involvement of people in the decision-making process
- Pace of development directed and controlled by local people rather than external influences” (Holden, 2007, p. 233).

2.2 Nature-Based Forms of Tourism

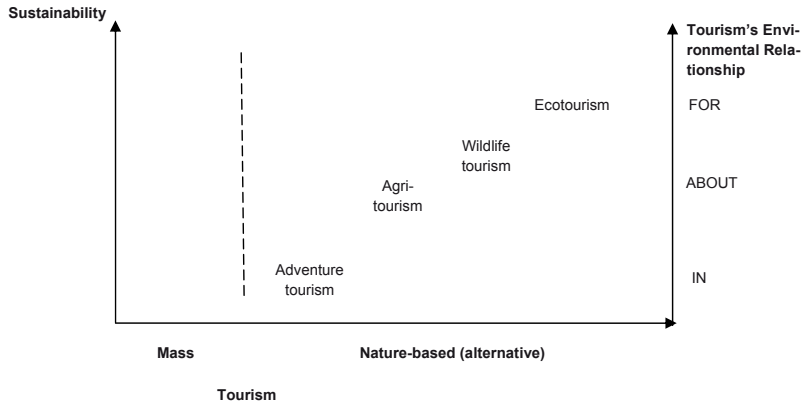
In the late 1980s (Weaver & Oppermann, 2000), nature tourism accounted for only 2% of all tourism whereas today, according to Buckley (2009a), it represents more than 20%. It is obvious that nature tourism nowadays is of high importance in the tourism industry due to its explosive growth over the last decades. Therefore, nature tourism on the one hand has a strong capability to change natural areas but on the other also tourism itself.

The terms nature tourism or nature-based tourism are used interchangeably in the literature (Kline, 2001; Newsome et al., 2002) and denote “all types of tourism that rely on relatively undisturbed natural environments or natural features” (Buckley, 2009a, p. 5). It can include activities based on: consumptive uses (such as recreational hunting and fishing); outdoor recreation and adventure; passive enjoyment of scenery, geology, flora and fauna; and non-consumptive activities for conservation and research (Coghlan & Buckley, 2012). Thus, nature tourism encompasses the following forms of tourism (Hall & Boyd, 2005):

- tourism in natural settings (e.g. adventure tourism)
- tourism about specific elements of the natural environment (e.g. wildlife tourism, agri-tourism)
- tourism developed to protect or conserve natural areas (e.g. ecotourism).

At first glance, this classification already reveals that nature-based tourism is a very diverse sector and has different levels of sustainability. Moreover, the environmental relationship differs, depending on the form of nature tourism as shown in Figure 2.2. Therefore, the four selected categories of nature-based tourism illustrated in Figure 2.2 will be examined more closely.

Figure 2.2 Nature-Based Tourism and Sustainability



Source: Adapted from Newsome et al., 2002, p. 13

2.2.1 Adventure Tourism

Adventure tourism as a form of nature-based tourism with focus on the environment and only little sustainable aspects is a worldwide industry with a global annual turnover of around one trillion US dollar, offering more than hundreds of thousands of individual products worldwide (Buckley, 2009b). According to the Adventure Travel Trade Association (ATTA, 2012), adventure travel is growing at a rate of 17% a year, and could be 50% of all reasons to travel by 2050.

Making use of today's technology and looking for adventure tourism on the search engine Google (see Appendix A), results show images of whitewater rafting, bungee jumping, horse riding, ballooning, hiking and climbing amongst others. Hence, the term adventure can be used for a variety of activities and therefore, a closer examination of its meaning in tourism is required. The term itself is relatively new in aca-

demographic research due to its obvious wide scope, including numerous categories of outdoor activities (Buckley, 2010).

According to the World Tourism Organization (1991), a leisure activity only qualifies as tourism if it includes an overnight stay outside of the participant's place of residence. Depending on the destination, the minimum threshold travel distance can vary between 40 km (e.g. in Australia) and 160 km (e.g. in Canada). However, many commercial adventure activities are offered as single-day tours. But, as most of the participants are vacationers who are already far away from home, they eventually qualify as tourists and thus, such adventure activity tours rank among tourism (Buckley, 2010).

Another important distinction that has to be taken into consideration is between adventure tourism and adventure recreation. In the case of adventure tourism, a client pays mostly a tour operator to provide an adventure experience (very often as an all-inclusive product, where equipment and specialist clothing are provided as well). Departure from a specified gateway and date are set and organized. Whereas, in the case of an adventure recreation, individual participants carry out the same activity on their own. Coupled with this, there is no general definition of the character of an adventure activity given that some are fixed-site and others are mobile activities. A dude ranch, for instance, has a fixed site, whereas a back-country horse ride tour is mobile (Buckley, 2009a). Millington et al. (2001) therefore suggest that adventure tourism could be divided into two types – activity-driven and destination-driven.

From the above mentioned facts, it can be already deduced that adventure tourism's focus is on action. Moreover, from a tourism management's perspective, the division allows to conclude that individual tourists traveling for adventure recreation make use of mass tourism transportation and accommodation to access public areas of land and water, such as forests and national parks. In contrast, commercial adventure tour operators may adapt their offer to the needs of their clients and can negotiate with transport and accommodation providers. Hence, it is difficult to tell in general whether a tourist being interested in adventure holiday is rather an independent or organized traveler.

As mentioned before, adventure tourism includes a broad range of activities and thus, Swarbrooke et al. (2003, p. xiii) argue "the concept of adventure is highly personal, and means different things to different people. Something that is quite everyday or mundane for one person can be rare adventure for another, depending on experience and personality". Buckley (2009b) adds a core characteristic of adventure to the previous statement by stating "what fills one person with fear fills another with boredom, and vice versa" (p. xvii). Below are some words listed that are generally

used in magazines and brochures to purvey adventure products (Swarbrooke et al., 2003).

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|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| • Thrill | • Adrenaline | • Excitement |
| • Fear | • Terror | • Risk |
| • Conquer | • Success | • Daring |

These associations show that adventure is very often related with an action or feeling being considered relatively extreme. But again, the definition of the extreme lies in the eye of the beholder. For one person an adventure might be spending some days with cloistered monks in silence whereas for another person adventure means jumping out of an airplane with a parachute.

For this reason, adventure tourism is often divided into soft and hard dimensions. Soft adventure vacations include biking, bird-or-animal-watching, hiking, horseback riding, rafting, scuba diving and snorkeling; and caving, climbing and trekking are ranked among the hard adventure activities (ATTA, 2010). Studies indicate that there has been a shift in classification. At the beginning of the 21st century, rafting and scuba diving were classified as hard adventure activities at that time (Travel Industry Association, 1998 as cited in Meyer et al., 2003). It seems as if nowadays these activities have lost some of its thrill and the adventure travelers are looking for something more risky, unusual and novel. According to Christiansen (1990), soft adventure activities are pursued by those tourists being interested in a perceived risk and adventure with little actual risk. As the example of bird-or-animal watching shows, soft adventure activities blend physical adventures (in this case, visiting the natural area) with enriching activities (learning from the birds' observation). On the contrary, hard adventure activities are known by both the participant and the service provider to have a high level of risk and involve more physically demanding activities as well as training and preparation.

Generally, the following core characteristics or qualities are regarded to be the basis of adventure activities (Ewert, 2001; Swarbrooke et al., 2002):

- involvement with a natural environment
- uncertain outcomes
- danger and risks
- challenge
- anticipated rewards
- novelty
- stimulation and excitement
- escapism and separation

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