

## REPORTS 108

# COMMUNITIES AS A PART OF SUSTAINABLE RURAL TOURISM – SUCCESS FACTOR OR INEVITABLE BURDEN?

PROCEEDINGS OF THE COMMUNITY TOURISM CONFERENCE,  
10<sup>TH</sup> – 11<sup>TH</sup> SEPTEMBER 2013 IN KOTKA, FINLAND

MERJA LÄHDESMÄKI JA ANNE MATILAINEN (EDS.)





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## FOREWORD

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Comcot (Competitive Community Tourism) was an international development project that brought together Estonian and Finnish tourism specialists, developers and entrepreneurs along with a team of development experts from the UK.

The project was initiated to help communities' better exploit the expanding Central Baltic tourism sector. While in many Finnish and Estonian rural areas tourism has developed to be a main income source, with this comes the need for new sustainable, high quality market orientated products, which are linked together locally, regionally and internationally. There is also a need to improve competitiveness, integration with related sectors, awareness of client expectations and the environmental impact due to increased tourism.

The Comcot project developed innovative and sustainable community based tourism with high local ownership. Expanding the opportunities for local level actors to develop competitive tourism by combining cross-border cooperation networks with joint community work at the local level. By creating new strategic thinking and innovative planning by communities and improved business skills, the project developed more competitive businesses and targeted products and services for existing and new clients while also helping entrepreneurs to improve their effectiveness to develop new innovative products. The project lead partner was the Estonian University of Life Sciences (project website <http://pk.emu.ee/en/comcot>).

Our conference set out to explore how communities are involved in community tourism and whether they could be considered a success factor or an burden when part of sustainable rural tourism.

The conference, run over two days in Kotka, Finland, drew together delegates from approximately 20 countries around the world. Our two keynote speakers were complemented by a number of case studies and many shorter presentations as part of the twin parallel sessions programme of workshops.

To set the local context Nina Vesterinen (Ministry of Employment and the Economy, Finland) introduced us to the concept of rural tourism in Finland and what this means in terms of communities and development nationally with some key definitions on the topic.

Jarkko Saarinen (University of Oulu, Finland) took us straight into the topic with a challenging presentation on the impacts of community tourism development strategies on rural communities. He demonstrated the need for clearly defined indicators which set out measurement criteria for the success (sustainability) of these strategies in terms of community development. Big questions remain however over whether these measure the benefits for communities or merely the development of the tourism industry itself!!

Diana Condrea (Sustainable tourism officer, PAN Parks Foundation, Hungary) gave us an interesting insight into the ups and down of the Pan Parks experience in working with communities across Europe and especially where things did not go exactly according to plan. She made a clear request that we do not try the "one size fits all" approach but that best results come from a contextually developed intervention.

Papers delivered in parallel sessions ranged widely across the topics of local attitudes and perceptions towards rural tourism, the development of stakeholder collaboration and partnerships and the ways in which community based tourism contributes to rural development. A key theme running through many presentations was the importance of capacity building for communities and the residents within them. Difficulties were identified in finding an entrepreneurial spirit among local residents; older people were less likely to be interested while younger generations lacked appropriate skills. As a consequence communities were slow in coming forward with products and services desired by visitors and in particular 2<sup>nd</sup> home owners. It was stressed that building sustainability is not a one-off event but a continuous process which experience has often shown often benefits from steady external project support and should

incorporate local residents and stakeholders active and involved in order to be successful. The benefits of volunteer tourism were highlighted as one means by which people can share their visions of sustainability.

The involvement of communities however is fraught with challenges not least of local competition between stakeholder groups, power relationships within tourism host communities and between communities and tourism developers. The development of community based tourism based on an area's uniqueness and greater ownership of developments can be more readily be achieved when communities are involved and contribute to the development of tourism product from the outset. The use of landscape analyses was highlighted as a benefit when considering protection plans.

The first day was brought to a conclusion with interesting insights into the issues associated with the development of Finnish community tourism based at the village level and the need for villages to be able to offer a relevant and coherent grouping of tourism products and services sufficient to satisfy the expectations of visitors by Tiina Perämäki (Project Manager, Lomalaidun ry., Finland). This was complemented by an examination of the possibilities (and challenges) for development of tourism in rural areas of Russia by young and dynamic rural entrepreneurs from Inna Kopoteva (Aalto University, Small Business Centre, Finland).

Parallel sessions continued on the second day where we heard of tourism developments which potentially disadvantaged rural communities in terms of impacting on their access to traditional grazing land (a ski development) and on their way of life (tourists lacking understanding of local community belief systems), for similar reasons we heard of in day 1 local residents had restricted access to the economic benefits from these developments. It was also proposed that where tourism is being developed in culturally delicate areas anthropological inputs might help in gaining a netter understanding of the situation

Cooperation and inclusion were key themes across many parallel sessions and we heard of these in three fishing related presentations. A significant range of tourism attractions are centred on the fishing industry both at sea and in rivers/lakes, it is highly participatory for tourists in terms of both catching fish and on board boats observing the fishing process. The increasing role of the Fisheries Local Action Groups (FLAGs) was highlighted and the importance of locally based joint activities in developing new products and services and promoting these. The theme of cooperation was also carried through workshops exploring the lessons learned from the LEADER programme. Key messages were that working together rural communities can be stronger, when cooperation is based on mutual values continuity of development is possible (sustainability) leading to the construction of longer term project chains. Trust was an important factor in community networking, through understanding each other and building connections especially between the public sector and entrepreneurs significant results can be achieved. Community based tourism development has also proved to be an excellent tool for activating and empowering communities and through learning about themselves people learn to appreciate their villages.

Professor Harold Goodwin (ICRETH, Leeds Metropolitan University, United Kingdom) highlighted the importance of income generation in creating sustainable community based tourism. "It is not tourism until it is sold" he stated in his presentation and then focussed on the range of factors influencing the success of community based projects especially those with significant external development support. Key to the sustainability of these enterprises was successful commercialisation and marketing, good management and strong links into the local community.

Community involvement in developing a sense of place, heritage conservation and community based tourism was the subjects of the rest of the day. Kate Lindley (PLANED, Wales) carefully explained how it can take many years for community groups to come together behind a development project, raise sufficient finance and eventually realize the project's aim. Significant external support is frequently needed often over extended periods and can range from expert assistance to information, network support, trust and not only finance.

Our final workshops looked at how the Comcot project supported communities to identify and articulate their development priorities. In rural development terms the time-scales for the project was quite short (3 years), yet it generated 6 community tourism development and action plans with numerous small local community initiatives. The 3D landscape theatre was a key innovative feature of the project enabling communities visualise their landscapes through a series of “flights” to see what tourism attractions they had in ways not previously possible. The empowerment of local communities was a central component of this project and other examples deriving from Kenya and Portugal. Tourism product development was supported through the development of the school system in Kenya whilst in Portugal studies in two areas have shown that local communities were not able to gain access to tourism developments. In spite of statements at national level that rural tourism is important the provision of tourist services was the preserve of large companies in these areas, with foreign ownership being part of the problem.

Our conference was closed with a look at future opportunities for EU funding in the new programming period. Nivelin Noev (European Commission, Directorate-General for Agriculture and Rural Development) outlined the new funding streams and emphasised the point that increased linkages between the different EU programmes would bring greater strength and coherence to the strategies and eligibility of activities available for the development of our rural areas

Roger Evans  
Evanter OÜ





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# TOURISM AS A TOOL OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT: CASE OF ABALI VILLAGE, VAN, TURKEY

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## ABSTRACT

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This study aims to determine the development of winter tourism in Abalı village in Van province and its contributions to the villagers. This village, which is mainly engaged in animal breeding, was an emigrant settlement until five years ago. More recently it has become a developing rural area by means of the establishment of a ski resort. This study investigates the village's development process through different methods and examines the process with the help of various variables. In order to undertake a resource evaluation of the village, expert evaluators were used. These revealed that the landscape quality and diversity of Abalı village are high, that the village is insufficiently accessible, and that its level of environmental degradation is low. In addition, a survey was conducted in order to find out the benefits of tourism development for the villagers and the perceptions of the villagers towards tourism. Although Abalı village is in the initial stage of tourism development, the ski resort has made a limited contribution to the social and economic development of the village. However, villagers do not sufficiently benefit from tourism development

in economic terms. The most important reason behind this is that the ski resorts are managed by entrepreneurs in Van city center. Some of the staff working in the ski resort are able to obtain a limited income from tourism business. In addition, it is estimated that the contributions of tourism development to villagers will continue to increase. The potential of the region for winter tourism and other rural tourism types and the tendency of the villagers to embrace all types of rural tourism activities support this expectation. Although the villagers who indicate that they will support the tourism industry and every type of tourism are partly aware of the contributions of tourism to rural development, they are unaware of the multidimensional nature of tourism and its economic, social, and cultural impacts. The natural and cultural richness of the village and its nearby areas indicate that the region has a significant potential for winter tourism as well as other types of tourism such as plateau tourism, agricultural tourism, farm tourism, and ecotourism.

**Keywords:** Rural Development, Rural Tourism, Tourism Potential, Abalı Village, Van Province

## INTRODUCTION

There are huge disparities between rural and urban areas in terms of income level and living conditions, and these are getting wider. This situation leads scholars and policy-makers to search for new models and approaches to facilitate rural development. Rural tourism has been adopted as a new approach in order to decrease rural–urban disparities, prevent rural-to-urban migration, and increase the quality of life and income levels of rural inhabitants (Esengün et al., 2002).

The changing travel motivations of tourists, their demand for new experiences and for peaceful and natural environments due to the increasing concretization and crowding in metropolitan areas, show that the importance of rural tourism is going to increase (Page and Getz, 1997). This is because rural tourism plays an important role in decreasing rural–urban disparities by contributing to rural development and the development of rural areas in terms of socio-cultural characteristics, landscape, and infrastructure. Rural tourism, which has particularly gained in significance in the last decade, is increasingly used as a tool in sustaining rural development. The “2020 Tourism Vision,” prepared by the World Tourism Organization, states that the products offered to rural tourists are relatively limited and envisions that rural tourism will have a high growth trend in the next decade, although no massive growth is expected (WTO, 2004:9). There is no doubt that various factors play a determining role in the use of rural tourism as a rural development strategy. Some of these factors are related to the local inhabitants and the environment in which rural tourism takes place, whereas others concern the participants in rural tourism and the urban areas in which they live. However, it is the latter variables that are more influential over the use of rural tourism in rural development. These variables might be listed as uncontrolled and rapid urbanization and industrialization, a busy schedule, the demands of urbanites to escape from crowds and air and environmental pollution, their desire for new experiences, the increasing interest in local cultures, and the urge to protect nature.

Rural areas, with their natural and cultural features, have met urbanites’ increasing needs for recreation for a long time. In particular, the attractiveness of the rural lifestyle, the absence of limitations and obligations that lead to stress and pressure, and an environment that makes people feel free attracts them to visit these areas either at weekends or during their annual vacations (Çakır et al., 2010:2).

Acknowledging its various definitions, the concept of rural tourism can be defined as follows: rural tourism is a type of tourism that is conducted in areas with low population densities to which tourists with expectations of the areas’ traditional, natural, and historical characteristics undertake visits (European Commission, 2003), and in which nature sports such as farm visiting, fishing, riding, and trekking and winter sports such as skiing are conducted. An analysis of the tourism literature on rural tourism reveals that concepts such as farm tourism, village tourism, plateau tourism, agricultural tourism, and ecotourism have been used to refer to rural tourism. The reason behind this is the absence of a shared agreement regarding the scope of rural tourism (Kurt, 2009:14; Esengün et al. 2001:31). According to the definition proposed by the European Union, rural tourism refers to the visits of people who enjoy the rural lifestyle to countryside areas in order to witness the rural legacy (European Commission, 2003). Accordingly, service providers of rural tourism help visitors to experience rural sites and rural products (Veer and Tuunter, 2005). As such, tourists who are accepted into daily rural life can learn about the local culture and have an active vacation (Çakır et al., 2010:2). According to another definition, rural tourism is a type of tourism in which tourists, with the aim of experiencing natural places and different cultures, visit and stay in rural areas and participate in activities unique to those places (Özkan, 2007:82). According to an OECD report, rural-based vacations include activities such as walking, climbing, and adventure holidays; canoeing, rafting, cross-country skiing, bird-watching, photography, hunting, cycling, and horse riding; rural heritage studies, landscape appreciation, small town/village touring, relaxation holidays requiring a rural milieu, small-scale conferences, rural festivals, river and canal angling, and orienteering (OECD, 1994:16).

Abalı village, which is the subject of this research, is a village that has become integrated with its natural environment in terms of both its geographical location and the site of its establishment. In addition to all types of sporting activities such as mountaineering, trekking, paragliding, riding, and participation in transhumance and other agricultural tourism can be organized in the village, and Abalı also has the potential for recreational activities, agricultural marketing, and day trips, including dining. It is 47 kilometers away from Van city center and its ski resorts make it suitable for winter sports (see Figure 1).

After the establishment of ski resorts in 2010, Abalı village faced an important transformation.

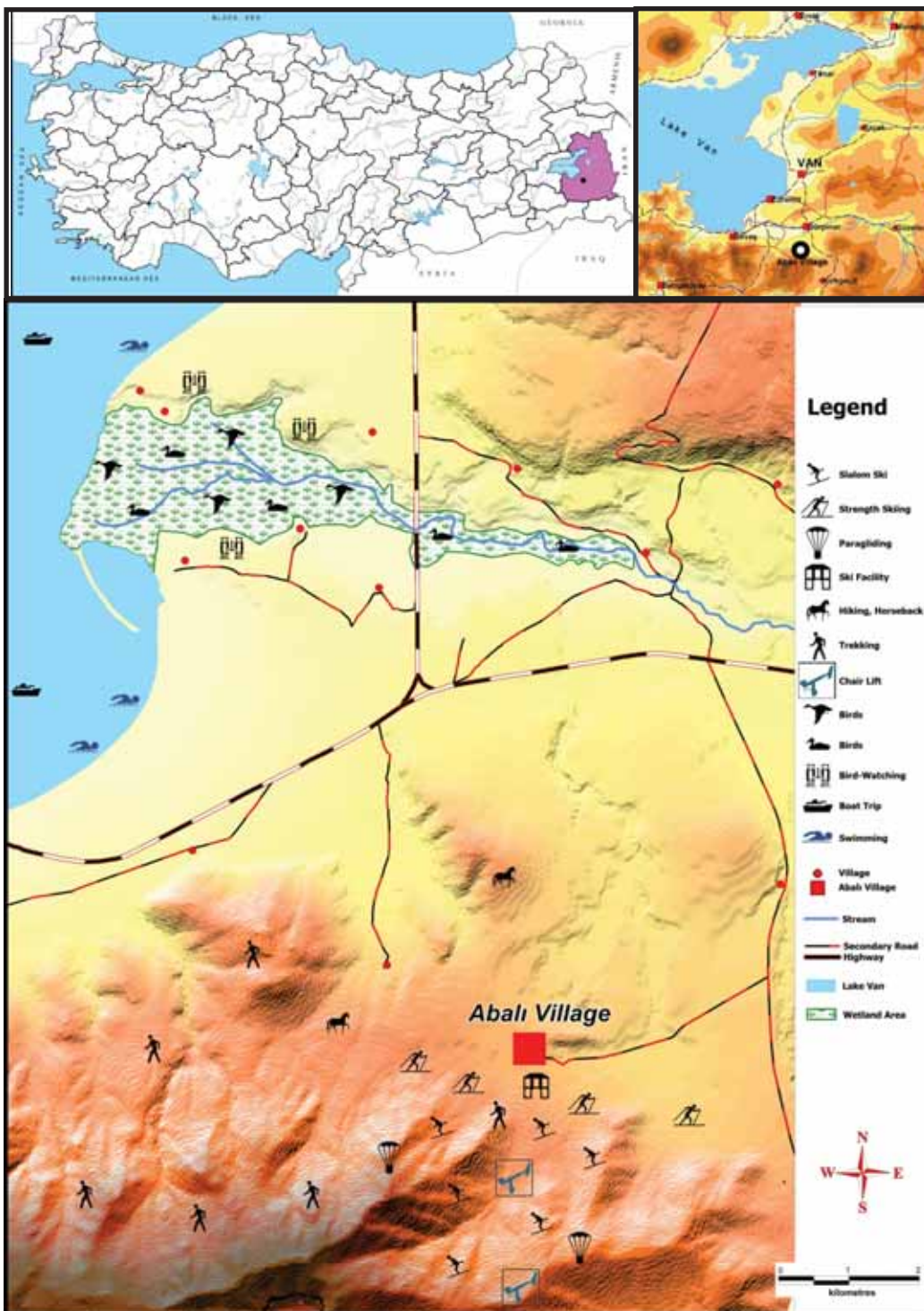


Figure 1. The location of Abalı village and its features

However, those in control of the five-star hotels and economic activities related to management of the tourist facilities were located in Van city center, which meant that local inhabitants obtained limited benefits from tourism development.

This research aims to reveal the process by which and the extent to which Abalı village has been influenced by the establishment of ski resorts and to what extent the village has benefited from tourism facilities. In addition, it also aims to shed light on the importance of local inhabitants in rural development by analyzing the problems they have faced during the process.

## METHODOLOGY

The research was composed of three stages that support each other. The first stage attempted to determine the valuation of tourism resources in the region through a method developed by scholars. The touristic development potential of Abalı village and its surroundings was evaluated in terms of categories including level of attractiveness, support from infrastructure, environmental degradation level, and accessibility. The attractiveness level was graded from 1 to 10 (1 = worst, 10 = best) and ranked into 10 subcategories. Infrastructure facilities include the basic infrastructure that is required for long-term and sustainable development of the tourism area. Environmental degradation level aims to measure the degeneration caused by the nature of the site and/or the activities of people. Again, each area has been graded from 1 to 10 in each of 10 subcategories. Accessibility refers to various components such as the available roads and the types of vehicles.

The second stage of the research included a survey with 45 questions completed by 73 residents out of a total of 146 households and 1,170 people living in Abalı village. The survey aimed to measure the positive and negative effects of the ski resorts on the daily lives of the villagers, their ideas about visitors, and their perception of the process of tourism development.

The third stage aimed to determine tourists' different experiences and to find out the touristic activities that are suitable to be conducted in the region with reference to the survey results and site observations. These conclusions were supported with plans of the village and 3-D maps.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In recent years, local administrations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Turkey have been attempting to benefit from rural tourism by presenting the historical, natural, and cultural values of rural areas that are in domestic and foreign tourists' interests. In this context, the effects of rural tourism on rural development can be categorized into the groups of economic, socio-cultural, and physical environment. The most important economic effects can be listed as transfer of economic resources to the region through new investments, increase in income, and growth in employment opportunities. On the other hand, social influences are remigration and prevention of rural-to-urban migration. Indicators of cultural development provided by tourism include protection of the local culture and attempts at its rejuvenation. In addition to these, potential negative effects of rural tourism might be seen as economic leakages, local price inflation, migration caused by disruption of the local employment structure, increase in part-time working and low-income women's labor, seasonal labor demand, and disruption of the traditional family structure. In addition to these negative effects, the destruction of natural sites for the construction of recreational sites, arbitrary selection of sites for construction, misfit between construction and the landscape, changes in existing settlements for personal interests, waste and environmental pollution, and crowds might be listed as other possible negative outcomes (Roberts and Hall, 2003).

**Control List Analysis:** The research revealed that tourism developed in Abalı village in an unplanned way and that the village was unprepared for touristic development in social and cultural terms, even if its natural and geographical characteristics make it highly suitable for winter tourism. Such characteristics enable us to observe the effects and measure the impacts of touristic development in rural sites. Within this context, analysis of Abalı village revealed that its wilderness and hospitable inhabitants and its culture are among its main attractive features.

In this study, Abalı village was analyzed from three different perspectives. The first included the factors indicated by the control list. This was evaluated by experts from five different disciplines, including a geographer, a tourism professional, a landscape architect, a biologist, and an art historian. Forms filled in by the experts were evaluated using SPSS and the following results were obtained.



*Attractiveness level of the landscape:* The specialists evaluated the visual quality of the landscape, diversity of the landscape (lake, mountain, historical monuments, waterfalls, etc.), and recreational opportunities (climbing, trekking, cycling, etc.) as the most important attraction characteristics, with scores of 8.69, 8.65, and 8.46 respectively. Additionally, the sandy/pebbly shoreline and craggy shores or rifts (breakwaters, crags, nesses, craggy shores, and canyons) received 5.24 and 4.23 points and were considered the least attractive features of the site. In short, there are no natural resources with a low level of attraction around Abalı village. Four experts asserted that the resources are highly attractive, constituting 80% of the total area. Accordingly, natural tourism resources located in the research area have a high level of attractiveness. When we consider that the experts graded them at a total of 76.36 and that standard deviation is 16.568, we can reach the conclusion that these resources should be considered as high-priority areas in tourism plans. Hence, the observations and research findings indicate that the attractiveness of the research site is nearly equal to international standards.

*Infrastructure Support:* One of the main determinants of the attractiveness of a destination is its infrastructure opportunities. The existence and quality of infrastructure facilities are as important as the uniqueness of the destination. In this context, frequency statistics were calculated for the infrastructure facilities of Abalı village. Research and statistical findings revealed that the area has adequate but low-quality potable water, telephone, and emergency facilities. Although the demand for clean potable water can be met by natural resources or simply by fountains, there is no or low-quality mobile phone coverage. Regarding the issue of emergencies, there are some problems such as lack of vehicles and personnel. Other infrastructure problems in the village include accessibility difficulties for people with disabilities, and an absence of barbecues and waste bins. When a frequency analysis was conducted, these fields constituted the main infrastructure problems, with scores of 0%, 26.1%, and 26.1% respectively. Accordingly, the infrastructure inadequacy of Abalı village was assessed by three experts at 75% and by two experts at 54%.

*Environmental Degradation:* The natural environment is one of the most important determinants of rural tourism. Hence, the environmental degradation level of the site gains additional importance. When the approaches of rural tourism to the environment were analyzed, it could be seen that the environment constitutes the basic compo-

nent. Forms filled in by the five experts functioned as the data for the environmental degradation level of Abalı village. In the research, the experts were asked to answer 10 descriptive question related to the environmental degradation of natural resources. The questions used to describe and grade each resource were supported by subheadings. In order to make accurate evaluations with 10 questions and a maximum of 10 points, the main headings were made more comprehensive. Based on the evaluations within this context, construction, sickness, the effect of fire, and the decay and degree of destruction of the sand dunes had a low average value (7.17 and 7.30 respectively). On the other hand, variables such as erosion, crabgrass, construction without permission, and paths received high scores of 8.15, 8.36, 8.02, and 8.00 respectively. In conclusion, regarding the degree of its environmental degeneration, Abalı village and its surroundings were evaluated as an untouched area with potential for the development of rural tourism. In terms of environmental degradation, 79% of the area has a low degree and 21% an intermediate degree of damage. On the other hand, the experts did not evaluate the environmental degradation level of the village as high.

*Accessibility:* Areas subject to rural tourism face various difficulties in attracting visitors. One of the most important difficulties stems from inadequate accessibility (such as distance, time, transportation type, and vehicle) to the tourism market and the destination. Answers to two questions are highly important for visitors: “How long will I have to travel to the destination?” and “How far is the destination?” Additionally, answers to questions such as “Are there transportation facilities to the destination?” and “Can I be a part of a tour?” also affect visitors’ decisions. Accordingly, access to the village by all types of vehicles was the highest accessibility indicator, with 2.94 points, whereas proximity to the city center was the accessibility indicator with the lowest value of 2.61. When the frequency of these values was assessed, 48.9% of the experts indicated that Abalı village is very close or close to the city center, whereas 52.3% of them stated that there is a natural/historical tourism resource that is close or very close to the village. In addition, the experts evaluated that transportation to Abalı village is good or very good (62.2%).

**Survey Analysis:** The survey was conducted with the participation of 73 interviewees from 146 households. The survey results were evaluated under four subcategories including demographic, economic, social characteristics, and the socio-economic impacts of tourism on villagers.

Surveys were conducted on the father or mother or the most influential person in each household. Regarding gender, 71.2% of the participants were male whereas 28.8% were female, while 65.5% of participants were married and 35.5% of them were single (see Table 1). In terms of their educational level, 57.5% of participants were graduates of primary school and 21.9% graduated from high school. Nearly half of the participants (45.2%) were between the ages of 26 and 45. Although it was estimated that most of the participants were farmers, the results were surprising: more than half of the participants have jobs other than farming. In fact, only 15.1% of participants were farmers; 4.1% were civil servants, 19% were freelancers, and 53.4% had professions such as driver, private-sector employee, security staff working in a ski resort, or daily workers in Van city center. The majority, 80%, resided in Abalı village and 16.5% in Van city center.

Interviews and observations demonstrated some transformations after the development of ski tourism in the village. When they were asked if the villagers had recently immigrated, 34% of participants replied positively, whereas 66% of them said no. When they were asked if the villagers immigrated before the establishment of the ski resorts, 80% of them replied positively, and 45% of the positive respondents to this question stated that immigration would end if tourism activities developed. The main reason behind the increase in immigration is the fact that those working in the ski resort are

mainly from Van city center rather than from Abalı village; 41.1% of the respondents replied that the village started to allow immigrants after the opening of the ski resort. Unfortunately, the interviews showed that the villagers do not benefit from, and indeed are harmed by, the ski resorts. This is because the site on which the ski resort has been established was formerly a meadow that the villagers can no longer use.

The main sources of revenue in Abalı village are animal breeding, farming, and partially the service sector. It was found that the daily income levels of the villagers were low and far from meeting their basic daily needs. More than half of the participants stated that their monthly incomes are insufficient. However, 80% of respondents own their houses and 72.6% are landowners. Although land ownership is important for villagers to raise their incomes, it becomes meaningless if there are irrigation problems.

Although tourism has begun only recently and although the villagers of Abalı cannot effectively benefit from tourism due to structural problems, the villagers are optimistic about the future of tourism. However, they cannot sufficiently benefit from the existing tourism facilities, public funding, and subsidies: 93.2% of the participants responded that they have not benefited from credits and subsidies granted within the scope of rural development; 94.4% also stated that the establishment of the ski resort did not contribute to any increase in

**Table 1.** Demographic variables of the participants

Variable	%	Variable	%
<b>GENDER</b>		<b>MARITAL STATUS</b>	
Man	71.2	Married	65,8
Woman	28.8	Single	31,5
<b>AGE</b>		Widow	2,7
18-25	26,0	<b>EDUCATION</b>	
26-45	45,2	Literate	12.3
46-60	28,8	Primary school	57,5
<b>OCCUPATION</b>		High school	21,9
Worker	28.9	University	8,2
Officer	4,1	<b>MONTHLY INCOME</b>	
Shopkeeper	1,4	Below €300	50.7
Farmer	15,1	€300-600	34.2
Self-employed	28.9	€2000 +	15,1

their incomes. Although the ski resort is relatively new, only between one and three people from eight families are employed in the ski resort. In addition, 64.4% of the respondents stated that tourism activities in the village had negatively influenced agriculture and animal breeding. The main reason behind this was the establishment of the ski resort over a former meadow. Likewise, during the interviews, the villagers stated that the number of small cattle decreased from 10,000 to about 3,000 after the opening of the ski resort. There is no doubt that not only the construction of the ski resort over the meadow but also agricultural policies were responsible for such a decrease.

Although the villagers of Abalı have not recognized the importance of the ski resort, they have high expectations of it. In this context, questions were asked of the participants in order to find out their ideas about the ski resort: 76.1% of participants stated that they believe their village has a big potential for winter tourism and is worth promoting internationally. When asked if their village had been sufficiently promoted for winter tourism, 61.6% answered negatively. Furthermore, 75% of the respondents stated that their village had the capability to be one of the most popular ski resorts in Turkey. In addition, 93.2% stated that they are open to tourism projects and they expressed the view that promotion (46.6%) and infrastructure supports (27.4%) would contribute positively into the tourism industry in their village. Additionally, they were of the idea that plateau tourism (47.9%) and trekking and mountaineering (26.0%) could complement winter tourism. When asked about the types of investments that could contribute to the development of tourism, 23.2% of respondents proposed accommodation enterprises, while 18.4% stated restaurants and cafes. The answers to the next few questions explained the reason for the villagers' demand for accommodation enterprises: 91.5% of participants stated that the village did not have adequate accommodation facilities, and 89.6% that tourists visiting the ski resort could not be accommodated in their villages. Finally, when they were asked how they would like to contribute to winter tourism in their village or what kind of services they would like to provide for tourism enterprises in case their village turned into a nationally, even internationally, important ski center, the respondents stated that they would like to contribute by working in food and beverage (22.2%), construction or security services (15.4%), selling hand-made souvenirs (14.3%), and becoming guides (9.7%).

The idea that the natural beauty of their village would be highly attractive for tourists was ex-

pressed by 47.9% of participants. The mountainous area at the south of the village and Van lake located in the west made the village an attractive place. However, although it is accessible, enlargement and improvement of the village roads would solve the transportation problems. The participants also supported this idea.

The interviews and survey results revealed that the villagers are optimistic about their future, even though the ski resort is new and the villagers have not yet adapted to the development of rural tourism. In fact, 44% of participants stated that there has been considerable development and change following the establishment of the ski resort in the form of recognition of the village, increase in land values, improvements in transportation and other infrastructure facilities, and increase in the interest of young people in skiing, and 93.8% of respondents stated that the overall number of people interested in skiing had increased. However, the absence of improvements in female employment and limited contribution to the production of hand-crafts (19.7%) indicate that there are still many obstacles to overcome.

Another important subject is the impact of tourism on the social and cultural life of the village. These effects can be categorized into negative and positive. The results obtained from the survey are pleasing, since the villagers believe that the increase in the number of tourists will affect their lives positively. In addition, they believe that the development of tourism will not cause problems in security or morality.

Abalı village, which is located southwest of Van lake and north of Artos mountain, is a suitable area for ski tourism. This advantage of the village leads to the development of other tourism types, including plateau tourism, agricultural tourism, farm tourism, and ecotourism (trekking, camping, and paragliding). Furthermore, the geographical proximity of the village to Van city center, various ancient Urartian sites and the Ganisipi waterfall, various glaciers located at the south of the village, and Uzun Tekne polje located at an altitude of 2500 meters increase the attractiveness of the village. Protected nature and the local culture should also be noted.

In addition to its tourism potential for skiing, Abalı village is furthermore a suitable site for grass skiing in summer. The northward hillside of the village remains partially green in summer (vegetation period) and can maintain this character without additional effort. This site can be made suitable for grass skiing with irrigation and the necessary care. When the Turkish rural tourism strategy is taken

into consideration, this reveals that most of the tourism activities conducted or promoted can be undertaken within the borders of Abalı village. Development plans since the fifth five-year development plan have placed emphasis on policies that can be related to rural tourism, such as the protection of Turkey's natural, historical, archeological, and cultural heritage, the improvement of seasonal and geographical distribution of tourism, and promotion of alternative tourism potential, including winter sports, hunting, water sports, festivals, health, thermal, and youth tourism, which will meet the changing demands of consumers (Özkan, 2007:111). The main question to be asked is the extent to which villagers will contribute to rural tourism and how far they will benefit from it. At this point, it is plausible to assert that experiences in Turkey demonstrate that the development of tourism in a particular region does not bring about the neglect of traditional means of livelihood such as farming, forestry, or handicrafts, but in fact increases cooperation between different economic sectors. This is due to the interdependency between rural tourism and traditional economic sectors. Rural development contributes to the development of agriculture, as the increase in the number of visitors results in an increase in the consumption of agricultural products. On the other hand, the transmission of traditional cultural heritage such as handicrafts depends to a great extent on rural tourism (Soykan, 1999).

## CONCLUSION

Animal breeding and farming constitute the basic means of livelihood in Abalı village. When the tourism potential of the village is taken into consideration, it can be seen that the tourism industry has become another means of livelihood in the last few years. Various characteristics of Abalı village make it a suitable place for rural tourism. Its geographical location, the topography of the village's site, climate, fauna, landscape, and cultural values, and, most importantly, the ski resorts increase its attractiveness for rural tourism. Efficient use of this attractiveness and benefiting from ski tourism and other tourism types as additional sources of income are highly important for the development of the village.

The research findings reveal that the villagers of Abalı are unaware of the nature of rural tourism and its effects on their daily lives. However, given the fact that rural tourism is an economic activity that requires professionalism, it is plausible to

conclude that the villagers are far from meeting the financial and other capabilities required to earn income from rural tourism. Neither their education level nor their knowledge of tourism is sufficient to serve the tourists and earn income in return. The impression gained from the interviews shows that tourism is no more than hospitality for the villagers.

The survey results demonstrate that the education level of the villagers is low and that the youth labor force is large. In a place where the basic means of livelihood are animal breeding and farming, such a situation is normal. However, for a settlement that aims to use rural tourism as a tool for development, this situation might constitute a serious drawback, because of the fact that an important proportion of the qualified labor force working in the ski resort is supplied from Van city center. The survey results demonstrate that youth unemployment, rural-to-urban migration, and economic difficulties are among the main problems of the villagers. In addition, only a minority of the young villagers work in ski resorts. Nevertheless, reintegrating the youth labor force will not only sustain the development of the village but also will increase the hopes of young people for the future and maintain maximum benefits from the process of tourism development.

This study has established that the type of tourism that is suitable for Abalı village is rural tourism and that villagers can contribute to tourism through various ways. Financial support must be provided to establish the infrastructure and superstructure facilities required for the development of tourism in the village. However, the research findings demonstrate that the villagers do not benefit from the public subsidies provided for rural tourism, and indeed are unaware of such subsidies. Hence, informing the villagers about public funding could facilitate their participation in rural tourism development. In conclusion, the natural and social attractiveness of Abalı village is sufficient for the development of rural tourism and both strategic and local action plans should be developed after the comprehensive determination of the tourism potential of the area. These plans should be prepared by joint action of the public and private sectors and the villagers should participate in their formulation.

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# LANDSCAPE-RELATED ASPECTS IN THE PLANS FOR PROTECTION OF POLISH NATIONAL PARKS AS EXAMPLED BY THE WOLIN NATIONAL PARK

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## ABSTRACT

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This paper discusses the scope of analyses necessary for determining the directions for landscape management in the national parks within the legal framework provided by Polish legislation. In Poland, the primary document for medium-term planning that determines the principles to follow undertaking any efforts to protect natural, cultural and scenic values of any national park area, is a park protection plan. Therefore, this paper focuses particularly on the acts of law and regulations which set guidelines for protection plan designs. Moreover, some methodological assumptions are presented in the paper, along with the results of inventory and valuation of landscape resources of the Wolin National Park. The park area was divided into landscape macro-interior units defined based on the analysis of use patterns and land relief. Scenic points and trails were inventoried within each and every unit, and then detailed landscape studies were conducted. The valuation of landscape resources and identification of risks to the landscape functions, along with the evaluation of the effectiveness of the methods adopted to protect scenery, served as a starting point to develop a landscape protection concept for the purposes of the Wolin National Park. This concept defines the protective measures that should be implemented with different levels of intensity over twenty years of the duration of the protection plan.

**Keywords:** landscape planning, forest landscape, national park, nature protection, Wolin

## INTRODUCTION

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The search for a new system of values, new human attitudes towards natural environment and the surrounding world changed the approach to landscape management principles in the European Union countries, including Poland, in the last decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Those principles have been presented in numerous documents, such as the European Spatial Development Perspective (ESDP), European Strategy for Sustainable Development, European Regional/Spatial Planning Charter, Territorial Agenda of the European Union, Lisbon Declaration, and Leipzig Charter, which emphasize the need for a comprehensive, systematic approach to landscape development. In the EU countries, natural environment is considered for landscape planning purposes along with the components of socio-cultural heritage which together enhance the multi-functionality of space. This fundamental change in understanding landscape is reflected in the definition of the same, as provided in the European Landscape Convention, according to which landscape means: “an area as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and / or human factors.” Perception means sensory (visual, auditory, olfactory, tactile, gustatory) and emotional awareness of the environment by humans. For humans, the main source of information about the surrounding environment is the sense of sight, which is responsible for about 85% of our total sensory perception. Thus, quite often landscape is called and treated as physiocoenosis, or physiognomy of the environment, which is a formal expression of its contents (Bogdanowski, 1990).

According to the provisions of the European Landscape Convention, the main activities undertaken for the purposes of landscape development include: conservation, management, and planning. Landscape actions, as emphasized in the Recommendations of the Committee of Ministers to member states on the guidelines for the implementation of this convention (2008), are a combination of protection, management and planning conducted over one and the same area. Landscaping, just as any other form of human activity, must be based on well-established, universally applicable legal regulations, and for the sake of efficiency, it should be prospective in its nature. Currently in Poland, effective landscape protection, planning and management are possible only over the protected areas with a high regime of protection, such as national and landscape parks, and nature reserves. Long-term strategic protection plans, whose scope is defined by specific formal and legal documents, are drawn up for such areas.

The objective of this article is to analyse the guidelines for landscape formation in the plans to protect national parks in Poland, resulting from specific legislation, and to discuss the results of inventory of landscape resources taken in the Wolin National Park, and their valuation.

## NATIONAL PARKS IN POLAND

Within the meaning of the Nature Conservation Act (*Dziennik Ustaw* journal of laws of 2004, No. 92, item 880, Article 8), a national park is a site of outstanding environmental, scientific, social, cultural and educational values, with an area of not less than 1000 ha, where all nature and landscape values are protected. National parks are created in order to preserve biodiversity, resources, formations and components of the inanimate nature and landscape values, restore proper state of natural resources and components of nature, and recreate distorted natural habitats and habitats of plants, animals and fungi. So far in Poland, there are 23 national parks established, covering a total area of 316 748 hectares, which represents about 1% of the country's area. There are plans to expand the Białowieża and Karkonosze National Parks. The Ministry of Environment is also considering the establishment of three additional national parks: Turnicki, Jurajski and Mazurski. The first national park created in Poland was the Białowieża National Park in 1947. In the 1950s, the following national parks were formed: Świątokrzyski (1950), Mount

Babia (1954), Pieniny (1954), Tatra (1954), Ojcowski (1956), Wielkopolska (1957), Kampinos (1959) and Karkonosze (1959). Then, the 1960s brought the establishment of Wolin (1960) and Ślonski (1967) National Parks. The Bieszczady (1973) and Roztocze (1974) National Parks were founded in the 1970s; Gorce (1981) and Wigry National Parks (1989) in the 1980s. Other parks: Drawno, Polesie, Biebrza, Table Mountains, Magura, Bory Tucholskie and Narew were formed in the 1990s. Among the above parks, the Ojcowski NP has the smallest area: 2,146 hectares, while the Biebrza NP is the largest with 59,223 hectares. The group of the largest parks, with a total area of more than 20,000 ha, also includes: the Tatra NP (21,164 ha), Kampinos NP (38,544 ha), and Bieszczady NP (29,202 ha). Eight Polish national parks, namely: Mount Babia, Białowieża, Bieszczady, Kampinos, Karkonosze, Polesie, Ślonski, and Tatra were recognized as part of the World Network of Biosphere Reserves. Seven parks belong to the Ramsar Convention which protects wetlands important for birds (Biebrza, Narew, Karkonosze, Polesie, Warta Mouth, Ślonski and Wigry National Parks). Polish national parks are mostly forestial in their nature, since about 62% of their area is wooded. The parks, where forests represent between 1% and 3% of their area, are the Warta Mouth and Narew National Parks, respectively. In other parks, the area of the forests contained within the park ranges from 26%, as in the Biebrza National Park, to 96%, as in Roztocze and Magura National Parks. Only two parks are located in the coastal zone: Ślonski and Wolin. The Wolin National Park was the first marine park in Poland.

The basic document setting out the scope, methods and schedule of activities for environmental protection in national parks is a protection plan, which, as stipulated by the Nature Conservation Act of April 16, 2004 (*Dziennik Ustaw* journal of laws of 2004, No. 92, item 880, Article 18, as amended), is to be established within five years from the date of establishment of a national park. Protection plans for national parks are adopted for a period of 20 years (Article 20 of the Nature Conservation Act). Currently, ten national parks have already developed or updated of their protection plans, including: Magura, Narew, Wielkopolska, Warta Mouth, Świątokrzyski and Wolin National Parks. The operation of other parks, with the exception of the Biebrza National Park, is based on the previously adopted protection plans.

## NATIONAL PARK PROTECTION PLAN AS A LANDSCAPE SHAPING TOOL

The Nature Conservation Act (*Dziennik Ustaw* journal of laws of 2004, No. 92, item 880, as amended) stipulates that protection plans should take into account the profile and assessment of: the nature, social and economic conditions, spatial development as well as identification and assessment of the existing and potential internal and external risks, along with an analysis of the effectiveness of current protection methods. Along with protection plans, conceptual programmes for protection of natural, landscape and cultural values of the area are developed, which take into account the elimination or reduction of existing and potential internal and external risks, along with an indication of areas of strict, active and landscape protection. Plans for protection of national parks also allocate specific areas and sites for scientific, educational, tourist, recreational, sporting, angling, fishing, and manufacturing, trading and farming activities, and indicate how these areas and sites should be made available for these purposes. Important elements of a protection plan are arrangements made for planning documents at communal and provincial levels.

Previously, before the current Nature Conservation Act came into force, the protection plans for national parks had been drawn up in virtue of the general Guidelines for developing protection plans for national parks and Rules for drawing up specific reports to the protection plans for national parks issued by the Ministry of Environmental Protection, Natural Resources and Forestry in 1994. The rules contained a provision saying that there is a close relationship between the landscape of a national park, its buffer zone and a broad viewing foreground, which is defined by the range of theoretical visibility. Thus, any study of landscape values should include the boundaries outlined this way. The reports on aesthetic landscape values drawn up in virtue of the previous protection plans were based on J. Bogdanowski's JARK-WAK method. When developing this type of report, all landscape resources had to be recorded, which required preparing a catalogue of architectural and landscape interior units. Landscape spaces, as it is also done now, were treated as complete compositional units defined by relief formations or land cover. Under the said rules, landscape interior units in mountainous, highland and hilly areas were determined along the system of crest lines and in addition, by

the outlines of human settlements, while in the plains and rolling terrains, the limits of such interior units were determined by ranges of different land cover forms supplemented with the extreme elevation lines or points in the terrain. The overall valuation of landscape resources consisted in determining general suitability of interior units to meet nature conservation objectives and ensure their proper management, while aesthetic evaluation defined the degree of harmoniousness of such interior units and allowed to identify harmonious, disharmonious and endangered sites. The key landscape-related issues and actions covered in the previous protection plans focused on the protection of the viewing aspects of vast open landscape panoramas and harmonious composition of natural and developed complexes. Furthermore, the rules introduced the concept of "landscape shaping plan," which consisted in: identifying interior units requiring special protection in terms of exposure of their objects and their foreground; indicating devastated sites; presenting proposed adjustments to the identified interior units, such as uncovering a view, making its footprint more visible, hiding poor views with tall greenery belts; changing building forms, modifying the course of a power line, etc.

Currently, the scope of actions taken to draft protection plans for national parks is specified in the Regulation of the Minister of Environment of May 12, 2005 (*Dziennik Ustaw* journal of laws of 2005, No.94, item 794). As provided by the above Regulation, the scope of work necessary to draw up protection plans includes an assessment of not only the condition of resources, and formations and components of the nature, but also of landscape and cultural values. When performing the works related to the inventory of the landscape in a national park, the following items need to be determined: types of landscapes, vantage points, axes and foregrounds, including roads and hiking trails (Regulation by the Minister of Environment, Articles 9.11 and 15.9). The Regulation, however, does not presently define the landscape inventory and valuation principles, which results in a large arbitrariness in the selection of methods and criteria for landscape assessment as well as varied levels of specificity of landscape inventories. Some specific reports for landscape protection (for example, the one made for the Bieszczady National Park) refer to the previously mentioned recommendation. Landscape inventories in these reports are based on the method of landscape interior units, and protective recommendations are assigned to specifically identified spaces. At the same time, there are reports that approach conducting landscape inventories



in a very general way. For example, in the specific landscape report developed for the Table Mountains NP, the area was not divided into landscape interior units, and the landscape was examined in terms of being: close to natural, natural and cultural, and cultural. From the perspective of the effectiveness of landscape protection, it seems that a more detailed inventory of landscape resources provides much better results. It is important to determine the spatial extent of analyzes at the stage of identifying landscape resources in a national park. The foregoing regulation does not imply the need to conduct landscape studies outside parks, i.e. in the areas which are closely related to parks in terms of viewing values. But a landscape knows nothing about administrative borders, and its effective protection requires setting rules for its shaping not only within a national park itself, but also in a wider spatial scale.

An inventory of landscape resources, along with an assessment of existing and potential internal and external risks that could impair landscape functioning, is a starting point for formulating specific protective measures to be implemented throughout the entire duration of the plan. In virtue of the Regulation of the Minister of Environment (Article 30.1-2), protective measures taken with respect to landscape values in the protected areas in national parks may include in particular: removing or covering disharmonious anthropogenic components in the landscape and removing vegetation that disrupts and covers viewing lines, points and panoramas.

A specific report for landscape protection, made under a national park protection plan, is essential for the proper development of landscape, mainly because it is used as a basis for zoning indications in communal spatial development plans.

## RESEARCH OBJECT

The Wolin National Park (WNP) was established in virtue of the Regulation of the Council of Ministers of March 3, 1960 (*Dziennik Ustaw* journal of laws of 1960, No.14, item 29) in order to protect the wealth of native flora and fauna and the unique landscape of the Polish coast. It was the first national land and sea park in Poland. In 1996, the area of one nautical mile of the Baltic coastal waters and the islands located in the inverted delta of the Swina River with the surrounding sea waters of the Szczecin Lagoon were included in its boundaries. The park is located in the Zachodniopomorsk-

ie Province. Currently, the park area is 10,937 ha, of which forest ecosystems (beech, mixed beech and oak and pine forests) occupy 4,648.53 ha (42.5% of the park area), aquatic ecosystems occupy 4,681.41 ha (42.8%) and non-forest land ecosystems occupy 1,607.46 ha (14.7%). A total of 498.72 ha (4.56% of the total area) is covered by strict protection. Almost 75% of the park is taken by moraine hills. The relief of the park is very diverse, with height differences that can reach 50-60 m, and slopes with an inclination of above 30°. The highest elevation, Grzywacz, has a height of 115.4 m above sea level. The park hydrographic network comprises: Stary Zdrój (stream), waterlogged chalk mine workings: Lake Turkusowe (Turquoise) and old Kredownia (Chalk Mine), a few springs and lakes: Wicko Małe and Wicko Wielkie (small and large), artificial post-mining reservoir called Lake Gardno and lakes: Czajcze, Rabiaz and Warnowskie. The park area is cut by the national expressway S3, regional road 102, railway line servicing the port, cruise ferry terminal in Swinoujscie (E-59) and a gas pipeline w/c DN300 (siding) Wolin-Swinoujscie. Limited tourist accommodation is offered in the park; there are only three resorts. The leading towns in terms of spatial arrangement of holiday and tourist base in the immediate vicinity of the park are Swinoujscie, Wiselka and Swietosc. A big attraction of the area is a golf course in Kolczewo, adjacent to the park (Amber-Baltic Hotel in Miedzyzdroje). Throughout history, the development of holiday destinations along the coast had been blocked by barracks for military troops guarding the borders of Poland. Currently, the post-military areas, such as Biała Gora, start playing an important role in the development of tourist and educational functions of the WNP. There are about a hundred kilometres of hiking and biking trails in the park; five educational paths presenting valuable natural and scenic sites in the park also been established (Dusza E., 2012). The important objects within the WNP combining the educational and tourist values are the European bison sanctuary (EBS), and the education and museum centre (EMC).

## METHODOLOGY

The analysis and evaluation of landscape values in the Wolin National Park were carried out using topographic maps, tourist maps and guides, available historical and planning studies, and the results of field research conducted in the summer of 2011 which involved gathering photographic

material which documented the condition of landscape resources and the processes taking place there. The collected research material allowed to conduct a cartographic inventory of different landscape types (landscape macro-interior units), viewing trails and vantage points. The park area was broken down into landscape interior units after the analysis of hypsometric distribution of the surface, based on a detailed topographic map with a scale 1:10,000, and land use structure analysis (woodland, grassland, building developments, etc.) focusing on the diversity of tree species structure of forest stands. As a result of these analyzes, a map of landscape sites of the WNP was drawn up. Subsequently, based on the photographic documentation and the available cartographic studies, the most scenic pieces of hiking trails and roads in the area of the park were determined, and the location of the existing viewpoints within the park and its buffer zone was verified. As part of the inventory process, each viewpoint was assigned an information card containing data regarding its location, viewpoint composition, spatial elements, and indicating the sources of threats to the functioning of the landscape and the postulated protective measures necessary to preserve the landscape.

The inventory of landscape resources also involved an analysis of risks to their existence. The risks were divided into internal, i.e. occurring within the park limits, and external which take place outside the park but are relevant to the existence of its landscape resources. The inventory of landscape resources provided a basis for their evaluation.

When valuating the particular landscape units, the presence of particularly valuable objects in terms of cultural and natural heritage, determined based on the current maps and verified in the course of work performed by teams preparing other specific reports regarding the protection of the WNP, and the presence of disharmonious elements posing a threat to the physiognomic features of the landscape (e.g. buildings and engineering structures, i.e. power lines) were taken into account. The above allowed to identify landscape interior units with little (interior unit without valuable natural and cultural objects), medium (landscape unit with valuable natural or cultural objects, but also with disharmonious objects), high (unit, within which there are valuable natural and cultural objects with no disharmonious objects) and very high (landscape unit featuring particularly valuable natural and cultural objects with no disharmonious objects) landscape values.

The vantage points were assessed based on their viewing angle and visibility range as well as the presence of valuable elements in natural and cultural terms within the point itself and in the view it offered. It was assumed that the vantage points offering a wider and opener view, and naturally and/or culturally valuable components, should be ranked higher. Vantage points with little (angle of view up to 90°, visibility range up to 500 m), medium (angle of view between 90° and 180° and visibility up to 500 m; and angle of view up to 90° and distant visibility above 500 m), high (angle of view > 180° visibility up to 500 m) and very high landscape value (view angle > 90°, open view, visibility greater than 500 m) were identified. The presence of valuable cultural and/or natural components within both the visibility range and the vantage point itself resulted in increasing the score by one unit.

The assessment of viewing trails took into account their function, visibility range and the presence of particularly valuable natural and/or cultural items, as was the case of landscape interior units and vantage points. Viewing trails with little (hiking trail and road with no tourist function, with an average visibility range not exceeding 60 metres), medium (road with no tourist function, with an average visibility range > 60 m), high (hiking trail with an average visibility range between 60 m and 200 m) and very high landscape value (hiking trail and road with no tourist function with an average visibility range > 200 metres) were identified. The presence of valuable cultural and/or natural components in the vicinity of a trail in question increased the score by one unit.

## RESULTS

Based on the adopted methodological assumptions, the park area was divided into twenty-five landscape interior units. Thirteen landscape interior units were identified in the buffer zone of the park. The said identification was primarily made based ridge lines of moraine and boundaries of tree seed stands excluded from harvesting, which among other things take into account species diversity of the stands. Most of the identified units extend parallel and their distribution is quite even. The smallest landscape units are located in the vicinity of towns and settlements of tourist interest. The following activities have been shown to contribute to or to be likely to pose threats to the park landscape values: no land reclamation within

the area of the former military base, provisionally managed tourist nodes close to the beach, poor technical condition of some landscape architecture items, “squatter” campsites and sites where campfire burning is permitted, withering of material evidence of historic objects, such as forester’s lodges, etc. The identified external risks included: encroachment of building developments into the forest limits, occupation of the viewing foreground by buildings in the vicinity of Wiselka, lack of repair and maintenance of historic buildings within Trzciagowska Valley, introduction of new buildings in the vicinity of the park which render the landscape disharmonious, and development of technical infrastructure in the vicinity of the park.

The conducted valuation of landscape units has shown that the vast majority of macro interior units located within the park boundaries (eleven) represent a high landscape value. Eight of those landscape units are of very high value, while five are of medium value. Only one landscape unit within the park limits was ranked as having little value. The spatial distribution of valuation results indicates that the northern part of the park down to the line delineated by road 102 as well as its southern portion with Lake Turkusowe and its surroundings and the area adjoining Prof. A. Wodziczko reserve, are of the highest value. The areas located on the eastern side are of low landscape value. Beyond the park boundaries, there are seven landscape units of small value, while four other have medium value. One landscape unit, “Szmanc” which is an environmental use site (ecosystem remnant) has a high landscape value. The interior unit identified within the range of Trzciagowska Valley was rated very highly.

Sixteen vantage points have been inventoried within the park, while six were found outside its limits. Most of the identified vantage points, especially those within the park, are used for recreational purposes. The northern part of the park, where nine viewing points were identified, is a little more interesting in terms of their number. Only one out of the identified vantage points offers a view to forested areas; from among other points, eight provide a view of open space of the Baltic Sea and Szczecin Lagoon, and other seven are established by the lakes situated within the park. Typically, the viewing angle range is 180°. Only in a few cases (five vantage points), it is possible to determine such view components as: dominant, subdominant and accents.

The main internal risks posed to vantage points are: expansion of vegetation and overgrowth of its viewing foreground, and faulty spatial arrange-

ment of observation terraces. The main external threats include: lack of standards for land development and management in the towns adjoining the park, ground technical infrastructure, such as high voltage power line and gas pipeline extending beyond the park limits, but in sight of the identified vantage points, change in land use within Karsibór area (overgrowth of viewing foreground observation resulting from the drop of farming activities). The valuation of vantage points has shown that the majority of those within the park (fourteen in total) has high (seven vantage points) or very high (seven vantage points) landscape value. Only two points located within the park have medium or little value. Beyond the park boundaries, there are two points of low landscape value, other two - of high landscape value, and two more points represent medium or very high landscape value. The analysis of spatial distribution of the vantage points, as was the case of macro interior units, indicates that the vantage points, which are located primarily in the northern part of the park down to the line delineated by road 102 and along the southern boundary of the park, are ranked the highest. The points located on the eastern side feature a slightly lower landscape value.

The inventory and valuation of landscape resources of the park identified twelve viewing trails within the park, with a total length of 28.25 km and eight trails outside the park (6 km). The viewing trails within the park run along forest pathways (five trails) or existing hiking trails (6 trails). Only two trails run along the beach (and one of them is a hiking trail). Out of forest pathways identified as viewing trails, three are not available to tourists. Most of the trails are routes passing through forest areas (hence they are called “forest” trails); only four trails within the park have one-sided viewing openings. The viewing trails outside the park limits are mainly located within the range of Dargobadzka Plains (east of the park), and they run along forest paths or between fields. The risks posed to viewing trails include: improper supervision of trail patency, lack of protection from erosion of the trail surroundings, no maintenance efforts to keep historic cobbled roads, lack of standards for the forms of landscape architecture along the trails. The assessment of the viewing trails located within the park indicates that 19.0 km of those routes are of very high value, 2.5 km have high value, 3.5 km are of medium value and 3.25 km are of little value. The viewing trails located outside the park limits are broken down as follows: 2 km have very high landscape value; 3 km and about 1 km (0.950 m) are of high and medium value respectively. As was

the case of valuation of landscape interior units and vantage points, the trails with the highest value are located along the northern shore line and within the southern part of the park. The trails of little value are located in the area that is inaccessible to tourist and recreational traffic.

The inventory of landscape resources and their valuation along with the identification of risks were used to develop a landscape protection concept, and ultimately, to specify protection measures that should be implemented with varying intensity over a period of twenty years of validity of the WNP protection plan. Specific objectives, priorities and landscape protection methods have been assigned to individual landscape interior units. The object of protection (e.g. forest landscape with remnants of a former military base, cultural landscape of resorts, forest landscape, seaside beach landscape, etc.) was established for every landscape interior unit, along with accompanying objectives (e.g. preservation of forest tree stands, etc.) and nature conservation measures (reclamation, stabilization, revitalization) together with specific details regarding these measures (e.g. to preserve open grasslands, to continue the existing methods of forest management, to put the spaces of tourist nodes in order, etc.). Under the WNP landscape protection concept, the rules for monitoring the landscape resources were established (such as the need to gather photographic documentation showing any physiognomic changes of land within the designated vantage points every two years). At the final stage of the developed landscape protection concept, the intensity, schedule and ways to implement protection measures were planned.

## SUMMARY

In Poland, landscape has been granted an important status in the documents concerning the methods applied to the protection of the most valuable natural areas, i.e. national parks. At the same time, Polish legislation regarding drawing up protection plans for national parks evidently lacks clear definitions of how to inventory or value landscape values and does not provide the spatial extent of the conducted analyses. It seems that both issues need to be regulated to achieve the effectiveness in the context of landscape protection.

The following conclusions have been drawn from the research and results obtained:

- The Wolin National Park offers not only unique natural values at the country level, but also high landscape value. The park's landscape diversity comes largely from its natural values, the presence of end moraine hills, the Swina River delta with its dozens of marshy islets and lakeland with glacial lakes, eskers and kems.
- The northern part of the park and the area within the range of the Lubin-Wapnickie Hills and Trzciagowska Valley host the greatest wealth of landscape resources. The landscape of northern quarters of the park is natural, while in the south, it was shaped as a result of anthropogenic influences to a greater degree.
- The adopted methodological assumptions for inventory and valuation of the park landscape resources allow establishing detailed rules for protection, planning and management of landscape values not only in the park, but also within the adjoining areas linked with the park by close viewing relationships.

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# GAINING COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR TOURISM IN RURAL AREAS IN PORTUGAL<sup>1</sup>

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## ABSTRACT

It is known that cultural traditions of host community and their cultural traditions are key to the success of tourism development, particularly in rural areas. However, the role of host community in this process of development is often devalued. Hoping to be able to contribute to sustainable tourism, we discuss results of data which focus on residents' perceptions of tourism effects in rural communities of Portugal. Despite descriptive data reveal some positive perceptions concerning tourism, there are no doubts that in the rural communities under analysis, tourism benefits only a minority of people and thus, heightening the gap between rich and poor.

Hypothesis between the different constructs that affect residents' perceptions and their support, were also tested. According *Mann-Whitney* tests, we confirmed, that the personal benefits obtained from tourism influence residents' positive and negative perceptions (at least partly) and residents' satisfaction. Moreover, with correlation measures, that included the *Spearman Rho* correlation, we confirmed that residents' perceptions towards rural tourism determine their satisfaction and contribute to the support given to the activity.

It is further considered that the outcomes of the study should be considered in the creation and implementation of strategies aiming at contributing to the tourism development in the communities where the study took place and others with similar characteristics and/or features.

**Keywords:** Community, Rural Tourism, Perceptions, Support

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism as a dynamic and exchange process involves a direct relationship between producers and consumers of the tourism product. This interaction component, is often the principal element which characterizes the tourism experience (Brida et al., 2011). This can have both positive and negative consequences for tourists but also for host communities. Actually, once a community becomes a tourism destination, the quality of life of the local residents is affected by the consequences of its development (Gursoy et al., 2002), since the tourism product is produced and consumed in the destination (Brida et al., 2011). These consequences can include employment and others economic and non-economic positive effects, but also negative consequences as conflicts between tourists and residents and crowd and pollution in the local environment.

Therefore, the emphasis is nowadays increasingly on the adoption of an endogenous approach of (tourist) development that implies a process of local mobilization and requires an organizational structure and governance which fulfil the interests of local community (Garrod et al., 2006; Liu, 2006). Indeed, it is known that host community participation and their cultural traditions are key to the success of tourism development, particularly in rural areas. Knowledge of these perceptions and attitudes helps the process of planning and marketing a destination and to steer existing and future development programmes (Ap, 1992; Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurovski & Gursoy, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002).

Community based-tourism stresses the active participation and empowerment of local people in pursuit that tourism brings benefits to the commu-

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nity (Saxena, 2006), thus emphasizing the sustainability of the activity (Hall, 1997). The fact is even more important as more dependent of tourism is a community or if tourism is seen as the “great strategy” of development of the local territory. Often, this is the case of rural regions and territories, namely the peripheral and laggard ones.

The recognition that host communities and their residents can have influence over the development of tourism has created a growing stream of literature on residents’ perceptions and attitudes toward tourism (e.g. Brida et al., 2011; Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2008) and support for tourism in rural areas (e.g. Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002). The vast majority of these studies is based on social-exchange theory which claims that residents who receive the benefits of tourism tend to value it. Accordingly, people who receive benefits from the activity develop more positive perceptions than those who do not (Saxena, 2005; Wang & Pfister, 2008).

Despite the theme of rural tourism in Portugal having called some interest, there is, with few exceptions (e.g. Souza, 2009; Valente & Figueiredo, 2003), a lack of knowledge concerning residents’ perceptions and support regarding tourism in rural areas. Therefore, the present study investigates residents’ perceptions toward tourism in rural communities of Portugal. Besides, the study also aims to present some pertinent relationships, by test hypothesis between personal benefits from tourism, positive and negative perceptions, satisfaction and support of residents toward tourism.

This work is partially the result of: i) a larger Research Project - “The overall rural tourism experience and sustainable local community development”, financed by the Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia and a ii) related investigation, inserted in a PhD project, also co-financed by the Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia in Portugal.

The paper consists of six parts. After the introduction (section 1), section 2 contains the literature review, namely concerning community based tourism, residents’ perceptions and attitudes toward tourism and conceptual models integrating residents’ perceptions and attitudes. The conceptual model of the study to support tourism is explained in section 3. Section 4 presents the description of the communities under analysis as well the methodological procedures. The results are discussed in section 5 and the main conclusions and suggestions of this study are presented in section 6.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM AND SUSTAINABILITY

Community Based Tourism (CBT) focus on the involvement of the host community, in planning and maintaining tourism development in order to induce the sustainability of the activity (Hall, 1997). In other words, CBT is about grassroots empowerment as it seeks to develop the industry in harmony with the *‘needs and aspirations of host communities in a way that is acceptable to them, sustains their economies, rather than economies of others, and is not detrimental to their culture, traditions or, their day-to-day convenience’* (Fitton & Price, 1996, p. 173).

In this sense, CBT is a way to achieve the sustainability of tourism. That is, a tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and, particularly the needs of **host communities** (UNWTO, 2013). Indeed, community-based tourism seeks a more sustainable form of development because allows host communities to break away from the hegemonic grasp of large and multinational tour companies and the oligopoly of some tour elites at the national or regional level (Timothy, 2002). On the other hand, when residents are involved in the process of tourism development, the destination development is more sustainable, by the fact that the impacts are suitable perceived by residents (Dyer et al., 2007; Robson & Robson, 1996).

Even though a variety of levels of community involvement exist (Timothy, 2002), often CBT is developed in small scale and involves interactions between visitor and residents and is particularly suited to rural areas and their communities (Asker et al., 2010).

Actually, a lot everywhere, the recognition that host communities can have in the development of tourism is notorious. Firstly, people and their local communities integrated the touristic product, since their culture, traditions and history will serve as tourist attraction (Kastenholz et al., 2012; Middleton & Clarke, 2001). If the local community have a positive attitude and behavior regarding tourists, by for instance offer opportunities of closer contact with their way of life (e.g. by receiving tourists in their homes and participating in daily activities) or offer them local products (e.g. handicrafts and agro-products), this will be perceived pleasantly by tourists, which increases positively their experience. On the other hand, a host’s anger or apathy will also be perceived by tourists and can result in

their reluctance to visit places where they feel unwelcome (Fridgen, 1991 in Gursoy et al., 2002). Moreover, one attitude less positive from local residents toward tourists and tourism suggests that *'local people and their communities have become the objects of development but not the subjects'* (Mitchell & Reid, 2001, p. 114).

Indeed, without a proper planning and managing that have in consideration perceptions and attitudes of residents concerning tourism and a equitable distribution of tourism's benefits, this envy can quickly turn to open hostility towards tourists, eventually contributing to the destination's decline (Harril, 2004) and even for local power's decay.

Often, this situation is worst in many peripheral and lagging regions, where tourism has been developed and controlled by large, multinational tour companies, which have generally little regard for local cultural and socio-economic conditions (Timothy & Ioannides, 2002). Actually, most developing destinations lack significant power and local governance, which makes them vulnerable and prone to decision-making that is beyond their control. That is, in these destinations a lot of decisions that affect the life of communities are taken without their consent and worst, without their knowledge. This is the case, where local people are simply used for tourism development. This fact seems to show a certain gap between the discourse and practice.

## UNDERSTANDING PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF RESIDENTS TOWARD TOURISM

Research on residents' perceptions and attitudes towards tourism constitutes one of the most systematic and well-studied areas of tourism (McGehee & Andereck, 2004). More precisely perceptions of tourism impacts have been a subject of study for more than 30 years. However in the 1990s, a more systematic research concerning the theme was done. Studies of residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism have often been conducted in lagging and peripheral areas, since the activity is view as one tool that can generate economic benefits (Golzardi et al., 2012).

Indeed, in the last years, numerous research projects have observed perceptions and attitudes of residents toward tourism. Some of them use only descriptive analysis in the treatment of data (e.g. Akis et al., 1996). Others (e.g. Brida et al., 2011; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004) complement descriptive analysis with more sophisticated treatment of data, with the development of (multivariate) models of analysis as a way to measure and predict resident's attitudes toward tourism.

In order to understand residents' support toward tourism, first we need to clarify the meaning of perceptions and attitudes. Perceptions are related with the organization and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment (Schacter et al., 2010). Factors that influence residents' perceptions about tourism are often described as economic, socio-cultural, and environmental (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004), and as suggest before, they can be positive (benefits) or negative (costs).

On the hand an attitude is a psychological tendency that evaluate something with some degrees of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). That is, attitudes are similar to beliefs, but they have an evaluative component (Brida et al., 2011).

Understand perceptions and attitudes of residents towards tourism, means understanding if they are supportive or exert opposition towards the development of the activity. Moreover, understanding their attitudes allows for the adoption of a better response to the eventually negatives effects of tourism (Sharma & Dyer, 2009).

Many of the limitations concerning the study of perceptions and attitudes of residents toward tourism have been clarified with the introduction of "Social Exchange Theory", developed by Ap (1992) based on the works of Lévis-Strauss (1969), Homans (1961), (1964) and Emerson (1972). As described by Ap (1992, p. 668) this is a *'general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation'*. People engage in an interaction process once they have judged the rewards and costs of such exchange. From a tourism perspective, the theory is (also) based upon the concept of the exchange relation where residents are more likely to be supportive of tourism development if they perceive more favorable impacts (benefits) than negative impacts (costs) from tourism development (Ap, 1992). That is, Social Exchange Theory implies that there is an increasing likelihood of residents' involvement in tourism development and tourism projects if they perceive that the potential benefits are greater than the costs (Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2008).

## CONCEPTUAL MODELS INTEGRATING RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES

Since 1990s several theoretical models have proposed explanations for the variations in perceptions and attitudes toward tourism (e.g. Andereck et al., 2005; Ap, 1992; Dyer et al., 2007; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002).



Many of these models have focused on differences in the perceived effects of tourism among different type of residents. Nonetheless, some researchers have examined also the influence of personal benefits from tourism on the formation on residents' perceptions and attitudes.

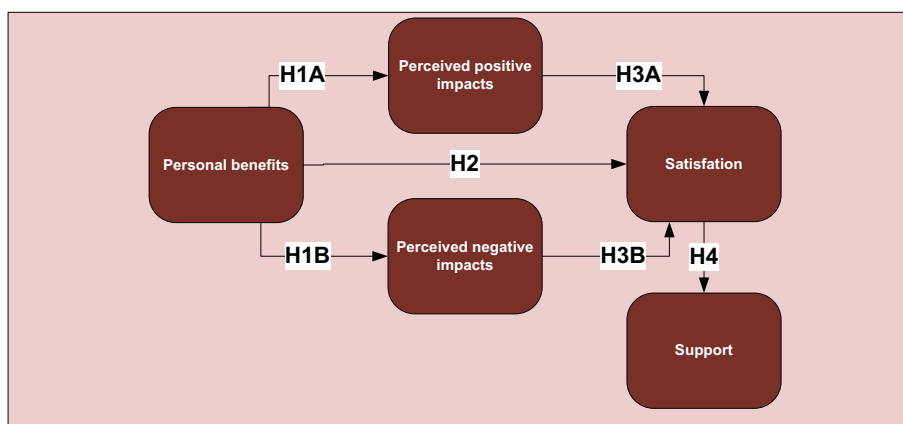
Concerning this, the pioneer work of Perdue et al. (1990) was elucidative. It is worth emphasizing in this model six of the eight latent constructs present, specifically 'residents characteristics', 'personal benefits from tourism development', 'perceived positive impacts of tourism', 'perceived negative impacts of tourism' and 'support for additional tourism development'. These authors demonstrate that when controlling for personal benefits from tourism development, perception of impacts of tourism are unrelated to socio-demographic characteristics of residents and the support for additional development is positively related to perceived positive perceptions (normally referred as impacts) of tourism.

Some years later, based on the previous work, Ko and Stewart (2002) also observe the influence of personal benefits from tourism in the formation of perceptions concerning tourism and overall satisfaction of residents. Their model consist of five latent constructs, namely 'personal benefits from tourism development', 'perceived positive tourism impacts', 'perceived negative tourism impacts', 'overall satisfaction' and 'attitudes for additional tourism development'. Nonetheless, the authors

didn't find a significant relationship between 'personal benefits' and 'negative perceptions' and with 'personal benefits' and 'satisfaction', they found a significant relationship between 'personal benefits' and 'positive perceptions' toward tourism. Moreover, this study found that 'residents community satisfaction' was closely related to 'perceived positive tourism impacts' and 'perceived negative impacts' and both impacts were directly causing favorable attitudes toward tourism development. Few years later, other authors (e.g. McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2008), have developed similar model of analysis. Naturally, with some particularities their findings are similar to the previous works. Specifically, it was demonstrate that residents' level of personal benefits obtained from tourism influence their perceptions regarding tourism impact, and in consequence, their support for tourism development and tourism planning.

## PROPOSED MODEL TO STUDY RESIDENTS' SUPPORT

Although some rural regions of Portugal are known for their landscape and environmental richness, there is a lack of knowledge concerning residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism and which factors motivate the support of tourism. Therefore based on the literature review we proposed the model presents in figure 1.



**Figure 1.** Analysis model  
Source: Adapted from Perdue et al, 1990

Actually, the following hypotheses are suggested:

- H1: The personal benefits obtained from rural tourism influence residents' positive and negative perceptions.
- H2: The personal benefits obtained from rural tourism influence residents' satisfaction.
- H3: Residents' perceptions towards rural tourism predict residents' satisfaction toward tourism.
- H4: Residents' satisfaction in relation to rural tourism contributes to the support given to the activity.

It should be noted that here “support” is used here as the residents’ willingness to participate in rural tourism projects.

## METHODOLOGY

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### STUDY REGIONS

The collection of data with regard to the way of residents view tourism, namely ‘tourism in rural space’, was conducted in two rural regions in the country’s hinterland of Portugal: Dão Lafões Region (DLR) and Douro Region (DR). They were chosen from the very beginning as they were both peripheral and lagging regions. Indeed, both regions possess few job opportunities and have poor living conditions (Jesus, 2012). Nonetheless, due to their outstanding resources, these two regions hold an enormous tourism potential. DR was the world’s first wine region to have a formal demarcation and it’s also known as the region of the wine Porto’s production. Moreover, is considered a World Heritage Site since 2001. On the other hand, DLR has the most attractive thermal spas of Portugal. Actually, both regions have important wine production, along with historical, cultural and environmental attractions.

On the other hand, in order to give a more ample overview concerning residents’ perceptions toward tourism, when relevant, we are going to emphasize data from the ORTE related project, which focuses on three rural and peripheral communities of Portugal: Linhares da Beira (Historical Village of Portugal), Janeiro de Cima (Schist Village) and Favaio (Wine Village).

### PROCEDURES

With regard to constituting the sample of residents in DLR and DR, we chose to select the communities of these regions whose number of rural tourism units was more than or equal to two, which were not municipality seats. The first criterion of selection the communities is related to the fact that some (or more) tourism activity is to be expected in these by the effects caused by those same two (or more) units. Then the fact that the communities are not in the municipal seat allows us to inquire about the effects of rural tourism in more interior and/or remote villages. In all, seven communities (parishes) in the DLR were selected and seven parishes in the DR. In each of the regions the number of surveys to be conducted was determined by sam-

pling by quotas (which took into account the criteria of residents’ gender and age). Each community was assigned a share of surveys in proportion to its population distribution.

In all, 190 surveys were conducted in the two regions: 95 in the DLR and 95 in the DR. As for the structure of each survey, concern focused on the fact that the survey was going to be administered orally among residents, the general objectives of the question and the type of questions, including open, closed and likert scale questions, which had 5 degrees of agreement: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - nor disagree nor agree, 4 - agree and 5 - strongly agree.

After gathering the information, the data were treated with Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. In order to get knowledge about perceptions, attitudes and support of residents toward tourism, firstly we have done a descriptive analysis of data. After, in order to test the hypothesis, we observed data’s normality. Given that the data violates the assumption of normality, nonparametric tests were used, specifically *Mann-Whitney* tests and correlation measures - *Spearman Ro* correlation, for a significance level of 0,050. Since the quality of the results improves with sample size, we chose to perform inferential analysis tests, aggregating sample information from both regions /(DLR and DR) and respective communities.

## DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

### DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

#### Socio-demographic characteristics of residents

The proportion of men and women asked in both regions was similar (Table 1). Approximately one quarter of the residents surveyed in both regions

over the age of 65, reflecting the structure of the aging population in the regions under analysis.

In terms of schooling, we observed a relatively low level of education. Over half of the total residents surveyed in both regions reported four years of schooling, which for many, is only mandatory and basic schooling. Moreover, only few residents report professional activities related to tourism in the last five years.

**Table 1.** Sociodemographic characteristics of residents in DLR and DR

VARIABLES	DLR		DR		DLR + DR	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>GENDER</b>						
FEMALE	<b>51</b>	<b>53.7</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>61.1</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>57.4</b>
MALE	44	46.3	37	38.9	81	42.6
<b>AGE (YEARS)</b>						
< 24	16	16.8	18	18.9	34	17.9
25-34	9	9.5	9	9.5	18	9.5
35-44	10	10.5	9	9.5	19	10
45-54	16	16.8	<b>20</b>	<b>21.1</b>	36	18.9
55-64	20	21.1	<b>20</b>	<b>21.1</b>	40	21.1
> 65 YEARS	<b>24</b>	<b>25.3</b>	19	20	<b>43</b>	<b>22.6</b>
<b>LITERACY</b>						
DO NOT KNOW READ OR WRITE	2	2.1	2	2.1	4	2.1
1ST CYCLE (1-4 YEARS)	<b>56</b>	<b>58.9</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>49.5</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>54.2</b>
2ND CYCLE (5-6 YEARS)	3	3.2	6	6.3	9	4.7
3RD CYCLE (7-9 YEARS)	14	14.7	21	22.1	35	18.4
GENERAL SECONDARY	17	17.4	10	10.5	27	14.2
HIGHER EDUCATION	2	2.1	6	6.3	8	4.2
OTHER SITUATION	1	1.1	0	0	1	0.5
DON'T KNOW/DON'T ANSWER	0	0	3	3.2	3	1.6
<b>PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITY RELATED TO TOURISM IN THE LAST FIVE YEARS</b>						
YES	13	13,7	22	23,2	35	18,4
NO	<b>82</b>	<b>86,3</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>76,8</b>	<b>155</b>	<b>81,6</b>

Source: Own creation

## RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD TOURISM

Overall, respondents revealed that they do not develop positive perceptions toward tourism (Table 2). Rather, these perceptions are negative (by the fact that respondents tend to disagree with the

statements) or neutral (by the fact that respondents 'neither agree nor disagree' with the statements). Indeed, despite the 'environmental benefits' factor being, among the three, the one which shows a higher average in both regions, its values demonstrate that population has reservation towards tourism's benefits.

**Table 2.** Perceived positive impacts

Perceived positive impacts		DLR	DR	DLR+DR
		$\bar{X} \pm S$	$\bar{X} \pm S$	$\bar{X} \pm S$
Environmental	Improvement of environmental/green zones	2.85±0.95	2.83±0.90	2.84±0.92
	Renovation of historic heritage	2.78±0.93	2.67±0.82	2.72±0.87
	Improved image/appearance of the community	3.22±0.95	2.79±0.89	3.01±0.94
	<b>Global score</b>	<b>2.95±0.82</b>	<b>2.76±0.76</b>	<b>2.86±0.80</b>
Sociocultural	Stimulation of cultural initiatives	2.23±0.63	2.11±0.40	2.57±0.53
	Preservation of local customs and traditions	2.28±0.66	2.20± 0.59	2.24 0.63
	Support of handicrafts and traditional crafts	2.22±0.63	2.08± 0.35	2.15±0.51
	Investment in local economic activities	2.01±0.10	2.12± 0.46	2.06±0.34
	<b>Global score</b>	<b>2.19±0.43</b>	<b>2.13 ±0.39</b>	<b>2.16±0.41</b>
Socioeconomic	Local job creation	2.20±0.63	2.21±0.78	2.22±0.72
	Development of new services	2.01±0.23	1.99±0.31	2.00±0.27
	Improving economic conditions of residents	2.28±0.69	2.26±0.72	2.27±0.70
	<b>Global score</b>	<b>2.16±0.40</b>	<b>2.15±0.47</b>	<b>2.16±0.44</b>

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

Unlike results from ORTE project and others studies (e.g Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2008), which reported that residents have positive perceptions toward rural tourism, in the communities under study, residents do not observe such effects.

Concerning perceived negative perceptions, overall respondents showed that they develop negative socioeconomic perceptions (Table 3). Re-

specting this, the statement “tourism economically benefits a small number of people”, reaches the highest mean value. The evidence also corroborates the results of ORTE project.

On the other hand, residents tend to not develop negative sociocultural and environmental perceptions concerning tourism. Partly these evidences also corroborate the results of ORTE project.

**Table 3.** Perceived negative impacts

Perceived negative impacts		DLR	DR	DLR+DR
		$\bar{X} \pm s$	$\bar{X} \pm s$	$\bar{X} \pm s$
Socioeconomic	Economically benefit a small number of people	3.79±0.60	4.06±0.54	3.93±0.59
	Accentuate the differences between rich and poor	3.63±0.70	3.60±0.83	3.62±0.77
	<b>Global score</b>	<b>3.71±0.56</b>	<b>3.83±0.60</b>	<b>3.77±0.58</b>
Sociocultural	Exploitation and alteration of local customs and traditions	2.11±0.40	2.07±0.33	2.09±0.37
	<b>Global score</b>	<b>2.11±0.40</b>	<b>2.07±0.33</b>	<b>2.09±0.37</b>
Environmental	Damage to plant and animal life	2.02±0.21	1.97±0.18	1.99±0.19
	Increased pollution	1.98±0.14	1.98±0.14	1.98±0.14
	<b>Global score</b>	<b>2.00±0.3</b>	<b>1.97±0.15</b>	<b>1.99±0.14</b>

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

## RESIDENTS’ SATISFACTION AND RESIDENTS’ SUPPORT TOWARD TOURISM

As expected from the previous results, residents present certain reluctance with regard to rural

tourism. The mean value of both statements concerning residents’ satisfaction is neutral.

**Table 4.** Residents’ satisfaction

		RDL	RD	RDL+RD
		$\bar{X} \pm s$	$\bar{X} \pm s$	$\bar{X} \pm s$
Satisfaction	The overall impact of rural tourism units is positive	3.56±0.73	3.29±0.77	3.4±0.76
	I am pleased to have rural tourism in my community	2.97±0.88	2.87±0.83	2.9±0.85

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

These results appear to support other authors' ideas (e.g. Valente & Figueiredo, 2003) when they reported that the tourism which exists is not the tourism which the community wants.

We also asked residents if they would like to increase their involvement with rural tourism projects. In both regions, residents do not seem very aware of the potential of the activity, thus the mean of the respective variable concerning the willingness of residents to collaborate with the activity

also indicates relatively insignificant values (table 5).

In fact, unlike Souza (2009) which reveals that residents have some willingness to participate in projects to boost tourism, the results found here are not very optimistic. However it should be noted, that many residents claim this, because nowadays (in these territories) tourism seems to be only developed by an elitist group of people.

**Table 5.** Residents' support

		RDL	RD	RDL+RD
		$\bar{X} \pm s$	$\bar{X} \pm s$	$\bar{X} \pm s$
Support	More rural tourism may help the community to develop	3.57±0.71	3.36±0.82	3.5±0.77
	I would like to collaborate with rural tourism	2.79±0.81	2.86±0.77	2.8±0.84

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

## PREDICT RESIDENTS' SUPPORT TOWARD TOURISM

### PREDICT PERCEPTIONS AND SATISFACTION

The hypothesis that analyze the relationship between personal benefits, perceived positive and negative perceptions and satisfaction were tested according to respective normality tests, through the nonparametric *Mann-Whitney* tests.

With regard to the relationship between 'personal benefits' and 'perceived positive impacts', the results (Table 6) show that the distributions differ in central tendency, in accordance with the *Mann-Whitney* tests, with  $p \leq 0.050$ .

**Table 6.** Relationship between personal benefits and perceived positive impacts

Positive perceptions	Personal benefits	N	Rank Medium	Z	p
Sociocultural	No	179	93.0	<b>-3.99</b>	<b>0.00</b>
	Yes	11	136.2		
Environmental	No	178	91.3	<b>-3.88</b>	<b>0.00</b>
	Yes	11	155.1		
Socioeconomic	No	179	93.2	<b>-2.90</b>	<b>0.04</b>
	Yes	11	132.8		

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

In fact, residents surveyed who report having personal benefits develop more positive perceptions concerning sociocultural benefits ( $z=-3.99$ ,  $p=0.00$ ), environmental benefits ( $z=-3.88$ ,  $p=0.00$ ) and socioeconomic benefits ( $z=-2.90$ ,  $p=0.04$ ) from rural tourism, differences which are statistically significant. These findings are consistent with other studies, in particular with Perdue et al. (1990), Ko and Stewart (2002) and Oviedo-Garcia et al. (2008).

Concerning relationships between personal benefits and perceived negative impacts, tests only show a statistically significant relationship regarding socioeconomic costs (Table 7). In truth, residents who say that they don't have personal benefits develop more negative perceptions about the socioeconomic costs of rural tourism, and these

differences are statistically significant ( $z=-2.43$ ,  $p=0.02$ ). The level of significance of the *Mann-Whitney* tests, for the other negative aspects in the analysis (environmental and sociocultural costs), lead to non-acceptance of differences between the groups ( $p > 0.050$ ). The lack of significant differences between these other aspects may be due to the fact that tourists in the regions studied are 'stranded' on farms and/or tourist resorts and have little contact with local community, thus they don't influence negatively their way of live and environment.

Regarding the relationship between 'personal benefits' and residents' 'satisfaction', evidence also shows that the two distributions differ in central tendency, in accordance with the *Mann-Whitney* test, with  $p \leq 0.050$  (Table 8).

**Table 7.** Relationship between personal benefits and perceived negative impacts

Negative perceptions	Personal benefits	N	Medium rank	Z	p
Sociocultural	No	179	94.8	-0.11	0.11
	Yes	11	106.3		
Environmental	No	179	95.4	-0.21	0.84
	Yes	11	96.6		
Socioeconomic	No	179	97.6	<b>-2.43</b>	<b>0.02</b>
	Yes	11	61.6		

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

**Table 8.** Relationship between personal benefits and satisfaction

Satisfaction	Personal benefits	N	Medium rank	Z	p
<b>I'm satisfied with rural tourism in the community</b>	No	179	92.7	<b>-3.14</b>	<b>0.02</b>
	Yes	11	140.45		

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

Indeed, the satisfaction of residents who have personal benefits concerning rural tourism is significantly superior to the satisfaction of residents who do not have such benefits. The results obtained here are also consistent with other studies, in particular with Oviedo-Garcia et al. (2008).

### PREDICT RESIDENTS' SATISFACTION AND RESIDENT'S SUPPORT

Hypothesizes between residents' perceptions and residents' satisfaction and with residents' satisfac-

tion and residents' support were tested according to respective normality tests, through the nonparametric *Spearman Ro* correlation<sup>1</sup>.

The relationship between perceived positive impacts and residents' satisfaction are in any case considered relevant (Table 9). Indeed, as also evidenced by Ko and Stewart (2002) there are statistically significant positive relationships ( $p=0.000$ ). The correlation is higher, despite moderate ( $r=0,455$ ) in the case of perceptions regarding environmental benefits.

**Table 9.** Relationship between perceived positive impacts and residents' satisfaction

		Environmental	Socioeconomic	Sociocultural	I am pleased...
<i>Spearman Rho</i> correlation					
Environmental	R		0.313	0.462	<b>0.455</b>
	p		0.000	0.000	<b>0.000</b>
Socioeconomic	R	0.313		0.274	<b>0.304</b>
	p	0.000		0.000	<b>0.000</b>
Sociocultural	R	0.462	0.274		0.284
	p	0.000	0.000		0.000
I am pleased to have rural tourism in my community	R	<b>0.455</b>	<b>0.304</b>	<b>0.284</b>	
	p	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>	

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

<sup>1</sup>>According to Maroco (2007) we can describe the strength of the correlation using the following guide for the absolute value of  $r_s$ : 0,0-0,19 "very weak"; 0,2-0,39 "weak"; 0,4-0,69 "moderate"; 0,7-0,89 "strong"; 0,9-1 "very strong".



Concerning the relationship between perceived negative impacts and residents’ satisfaction, there is only a significant relationship ( $p=0.000$ ) despite weak ( $r=-0,315$ ) with socioeconomic negative perceptions (Table 10), suggesting that the higher these costs, the lower residents’ satisfaction.

With regard to other relationships, the significance values (perceived negative environmental

and sociocultural impacts) suggest us that these are not statistically significant.

Finally, evidence shows that relationships were found with statistical significance ( $p=0.000$ ) regarding the relationship between residents’ satisfaction and residents’ support toward rural tourism (Table 11).

**Table 10.** Relationship between perceived negative impacts and residents’ satisfaction

		Environmental	Socioeconomic	Sociocultural	I am pleased...
<i>Spearman Rho correlation</i>					
Environmental	R		0.047	0.016	0.000
	p		0.524	0.831	0.999
Socioeconomic	R	0.047		-0.214	<b>-0.315</b>
	p	0.524		0.003	<b>0.000</b>
Sociocultural	R	0.016	-0.214		0.033
	p	0.831	0.003		0.656
I am pleased to have rural tourism in my community	R	0.000	<b>-0.315</b>	0.033	
	p	0.999	<b>0.000</b>	0.656	

Source: Own creation

**Table 11.** Relationship between satisfaction and residents’ support

		I am pleased...	I would like to collaborate...
<i>Rho de Spearman correlation</i>			
I am pleased to have rural tourism in my community	R		<b>0.421</b>
	p		<b>0.000</b>
I would like to collaborate with rural tourism	R	<b>0.421</b>	
	p	<b>0.000</b>	

Source: Own creation based on data from surveys

Indeed, there is a moderate correlation ( $r=0,421$ ) between the variables, indicating that on average, the higher the satisfaction of residents with rural tourism, the greater their willingness to support, that is, collaborate with the activity.

## CONCLUSION, SUGGESTIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Community-based tourism is vital for the success of tourism. It seeks a more sustainable form of development because allows host communities to break away from the touristic elites at a national or regional level and therefore seeks to meet their needs and aspirations. The previous understanding is even more important in rural laggard regions where agrarian activities seem to lose its power and other economic activities are fragile.

In order to get the involvement of communities, firstly we need to observe their perceptions and attitudes toward the activity. The study here presents based on rural communities from Portugal, suggests that nowadays residents don't have great and positive perceptions toward tourism. On the contrary, it seems that tourism "benefits only a small number of people", thereby accentuating differences between rich and poor people. Therefore like Cristóvão (1999), we argue that in communities under analysis, tourism is yet an elitist activity, developed by people that belong to higher social groups. Although residents don't perceive negatives effects toward tourism, we don't have doubts in saying that the tourism that exists is not the tourism that local people want (cf. Valente & Figueiredo, 2003).

Moreover, the model supports, at least partially, the four hypotheses present at  $p \leq 0.050$ . Indeed, tests confirm that personal benefits from tourism predict positive perceptions toward tourism (at the three dimensions) and socioeconomic negative perceptions. Actually, inferential tests didn't find any significant relationship between personal benefits and sociocultural and environmental negative perceptions from tourism. This can be due to the fact that tourists in the regions studied are 'stranded' on farms and/or tourist resorts and have little contact with local community. Therefore, local community may not experience other costs, with exception of the economic ones.

This study found also that residents' satisfaction was closely related to personal benefits from tourism, perceived positive impacts and perceived socioeconomic negative impacts. On the other

hand, it suggests that satisfaction is a concept to keep in mind, in order to get the support of residents and their involvement (cf. Ko & Stewart, 2002). We believe that the support of the community and their involvement are key to the success of rural tourism and at the same time to the development of rural communities.

In terms of future research it would be interesting extent the study to a large number of residents. On the other hand, it would be interesting complement quantitative data, with a more qualitative data, maybe with data triangulation or a study case.

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# HERITAGE TRAILS THROUGH DOLENJSKA AND BELA KRAJINA IN SLOVENIA – TOURISM ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN ACTION AND STAKEHOLDERS’ RELATIONSHIP

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## A MULTI-STAKEHOLDER APPROACH TO TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

### ABSTRACT

One of the beneficial methodologies for growing and developing a level of tourism which is sustainable and enhances the totality of local and regional environments is a multi-stakeholder approach to tourism development. In this paper, we present the case of the “Heritage trails through Dolenjska and Bela krajina in SE Slovenia” by which sustainable rural development (*we take this to include cultural & heritage, vinicultural & gastronomic as well as ecological tourism*) takes an integrated approach in terms of start-up, implementation and development and is supported by and benefits from the notion of a core of multiple stakeholders.

It is clear that:

- Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial skills, harnessed in a bottom-up model of development, will have a huge impact on rural and agri-tourist micro-economies at a local community level. The effect in driving wealth creation and expanding employment is measurable in a very tangible and transparent way
- Furthermore, multi-stakeholder tourism projects benefit the ownership transformation process by forcing public (*by **public** we mean municipal/local government, state agencies and international organisations operating in a local or regional framework*) private (*by **private** we mean privately owned companies,*

*including quoted or unquoted companies, as well as partnerships or self-employed individuals*) and social (*by **social** we mean entities established for mutual benefit, including co-operatives, societies and not-for-profit agencies*) ownership agents and enterprises to work together for common benefit. Because of the bottom up approach the measurable value at an enterprise or agency level is also more tangible and obvious

- We can also see that by engaging local public agencies, the dimension of environmental planning and protection can be assured. In this way the sustainable nature of tourism and its impact on the local environment can be assessed and given due priority
- At the same time, in such integrated projects, individual entrepreneurs begin to comprehend and understand the value of co-operation as well as of competition. A key feature is often the need for small-scale tourism entrepreneurs to develop a promotional mechanism to market their product or service at a wider national and international level. Individually the costs of such an activity are too great for micro-enterprises, but they are possible for groups of enterprises. This evidences how an integrated model enables participants to benefit from the totality and complexity of resources and skills held by all stakeholders

Clearly the model we are referring to, as demonstrated in the Case Study utilised in this paper, has a very precise local/regional orientation. The Heritage Trail of Dolenjska & Bela krajina Case

Study has a rural base and is profoundly affected by the necessity to attract tourism inputs without damaging the sensitivities of the rural environment. It also has a strong multi-stakeholder approach which in many ways illustrates the impact in EU-funded programmes of the concept of subsidiarity (*The principle of subsidiarity is defined in Article 5 of the Treaty establishing the European Union and was intended to ensure that decisions are taken as closely as possible to the citizen and that constant checks are made as to whether action at supranational level is justified in the light of the possibilities available at national, regional*

*or local level. The Edinburgh European Council of December 1992 issued a declaration on the principle of subsidiarity, which lays down the rules for its application. (source: European Commission, 2007)*- aiming at seamless connectivity between EU supranational policy and funding, member state objectives in macro-economic harmonisation and stabilities and local micro-economic needs.

**Keywords:** *multi-stakeholder approach, Dolenjska & Bela krajina, Slovenia, bottom-up approach, integrated project Heritage Trail*

## CASE STUDY

### THE DOLENJSKA-BELA KRAJINA HERITAGE TRAIL

#### INTRODUCTION

It is a paradox that the decade of the 1960's - which saw the emergence of modern sustainable tourism, through the global movement for resource conservation and the limiting of development, also gave rise to a destructive counter-phenomenon! That counter-problem was the explosive rise in air-based international tourism, given added impetus as the result of the deregulation of airline routes in the European economic space. This revolution in low cost and accessible air transport which grew exponentially in the 1990's with the emergence of low-cost budget carriers has become damaging to the environment and culture of many tourist destination-regions. It has taken 40 years to respond effectively to this demanding global process, and to start to achieve sustainable rural regional tourism products and realities.

The rural case-study presented is one of a region in Slovenia along the border with Croatia, where we track a ten year process, from preliminary idea - to the operational reality of sustainable international tourism in a strategically-located destination-region.



**Figure 1, 2.** Geographic position of Slovenia in EU and the region of Dolenjska and Bela krajina in Slovenia

#### 1. ORIGINS AND CATALYSTS:

The thirty year period from 1960-1990, saw distinct phases of evolution in tourism, planning, conservation- focused thinking and actions in the Western World. This led to the concepts and processes of sustainable tourism planning. For example, in the UK, by the end of the 1980's a National Task Force on 'Tourism & the Environment' had been established in order to provide sustainable tourism guidelines for three problem categories:

- a) the Countryside
- b) Heritage Sites
- c) Historic Cities and Towns

In the case of the Slovenia example explained in the case study, an additional factor is the multi-ple dynamic of international, national, regional and local agencies involved in the project. These were drawn from public, private and social sources, but the key actors and catalysts who can be identified in this story were the Slovenian Ministry of Agriculture, the Bavarian State Ministry

for Agriculture, the Faculty of Architecture in Ljubljana, the European Commission's Tourism Directorate, a Regional Chamber of Commerce, a commercial tourism operator, and at later date, an international market research consultant.

## 2. INTEGRATED RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

The CRPOV Programme (Integrated Rural Development and Village Renovation), which commenced in 1990, was associated both with the UN Food & Agriculture Organisation (FAO) and with the Bavarian Ministry for Agriculture. Bavaria helped in the initial phase transferring experience and know-how. CRPOV was based on a bottom-up approach, involving an initial 14 local project-areas, starting in 1991. Two of the project villages were located in the Slovene municipality of Trebnje with around 500 local residents involved in the project. During this period some 250 local projects were developed in Slovenia, primarily aimed at development possibilities for rural economic diversification.

The community development role of CRPOV involved many local village meetings, linked to the economic need for diversification of the rural economy. CRPOV worked together with an expert team on strategy and action. Critically, this case-study relates to a rural region which sits strategically between Ljubljana and Zagreb, on the international motorway from Belgrade to Ljubljana. This has a high location potential for selling locally-sourced food and wine products, as well as craft and tourism products. Tourism is based on the appeal of a gentle landscape of hills and river-valleys - for walking, horse-back riding, cycling, angling, rafting, or the simple enjoyment of its unspoilt character!

The CRPOV, as an Integrated Rural Community Development programme, led the way towards rural product development, and as a by-product, community-based sustainable tourism. Such tourism requires partnership and co-operation between the public, private and the NGO voluntary sectors. Co-operation of this sort was not common in the period 1992 -1995 in Slovene tourism. It was clear, however, that sustainability -in Slovenia or anywhere else - requires community involvement together with the firm the commitment of local actors and producers of products and services. The appeal of such action is to add tourism products to the other rural products, which they complement (*NB. Community-based rural development is thus an ideal starting point for sustainability, whether in agriculture, and /or in tourism. This creates an 'environment' in which new opportunities for economic diversification, new job-creation, added value to agricultural products, local guiding, and new farm-services can occur. In this process, institutions like an Agricultural Extension Service and others play a very important role, in terms of capacity-building, and of human resource development.*)

CRPOV resulted in the creation of a tourism product, by offering a themed 'commercial package', by linking with Slovene Railways, in developing a one-day tour. This theme was the main idea of a development strategy, one outcome of which was the 18km long Baraga Walking-Trail. Initially, this product was offered to school pupils. The response was limited, as there was no commercial partner to market and sell the product on the domestic market. However, there were improvements in infrastructure, and in housing, plus local training-schemes to create business opportunities. In 1996, the project was given an Award in Munich, as part of the ARGE- 'Landentwicklung und Dorfeneuerung' development competition. This was also a confidence-building phase for rural people locally, later enabling them to become part of a broader, regional project, with its tourism elements. The Wine Trail was a parallel project to CRPOV, at the national level. The idea behind it was to promote wine products as well as the culture, customs, and traditions of wine-making areas of Slovenia. The effort resulted in 25 Wine Trails, created all round the country.



### 3. INTERNATIONAL TEAM HERITAGE TRAIL CONSULTANCY

This background of the CRPOV programme as well as the parallel development in terms of Wine Trails, prompted the Regional Chamber of Commerce of Dolenjska & Bela krajina to accept an invitation by a consortium (which had in 1996 secured European Union funding to launch two pilot projects in Slovenia and Bulgaria) to create Heritage Trails. The consortium included Ecotourism Ltd. (a British consultancy firm), PRISMA (a Greek consultancy firm) and ECOVAST (The European Council for the Village and Small Town). All of these were supported by regional and national institutions in the field of natural and cultural heritage.

The UK/Slovene Heritage Trail team conducted a ‘Tourist Resource Inventorisation & selection’, based upon natural, built and living cultural heritage resources in the selected region. Some 150 sites were identified and proposed by the different partners involved in the participation process for the Heritage Trail. From this large number, 28 sites were selected, to be networked in a trail system for the area. The idea was to develop a tourist product which was capable of offering opportunities for stays of up to seven days in the region. Two key access-forms were used for the clustering of attractions, one a “flower structure”, and the other a “garland structure”. Existing tourist assets and potentials were the basis of these groupings.



Figure 3, 4. Flower and Garland model

A major result of this work was the creation of a Regional Partnership of 32 organisations, from the public, private and NGO sectors, which signed an agreement to co-operate in the Heritage Trail's implementation phases of marketing and product development. This partnership - working under the umbrella of the Regional Chamber of Commerce - was in operation for 12 years, and was in 2009 transformed into the LEADER Local Action Group - LAG responsible for overall rural development in the region of SE Slovenia including sustainable tourism. The partnership supports, co-ordinates and brings together the provider-partners. Work in general consists of marketing activities, product development, and training activities, where different combinations of partners, institutions, and individuals are involved.

For marketing purposes, a local commercial partner - Kompas Novo mesto - was invited into the partnership in 2001, in order to articulate a stronger and more effective assault on foreign markets. Kompas was engaged to act as the marketing agency, on behalf of the Heritage Trail partnership. Although the official launch of the product was in 1997, at the World Travel Market in London, followed in 1998 by a presentation at ITB/Tourist Fair in Berlin, there was no significant response. Foreign markets at that time had limited awareness about any Slovene tourist products, other than what can be described as the constantly featured traditional Slovene Tourist icons such as Lake Bled, Kranjska Gora ski resort, Postojna Cave, and Portoroz seaside resort.

The effective commercial launch of the Heritage Trail at an international level, with a foreign tourist industry adviser and a much greater professionally co-ordinated national approach, was delayed until 2002, in London. There, at the World Travel Market, the launch had the active support of the Slovenian Tourism Board, together with other relevant institutions.

#### 4. STAGES OF COMMERCIAL PRODUCT ADAPTATION, AND IMPLEMENTATION:

Despite the launch of the Heritage Trail in the domestic market, followed by the international launch at the World Travel Market in 2002, the level of response by foreign tour-operators and travel agents was weak. It became clear that external help was required to target appropriate foreign tourism-trade partners as well as to identify and select niche markets. An External Consultant, Professor A.S. Travis of East-West Tourism Consultancy Ltd became employed in this role.

From the market research conducted by Professor Travis on Slovenia's key foreign markets, the special interest markets, with a focus on either cultural tourism or nature-tourism (eco-tourism) were selected. Independent and some major commercial operators were to be approached by phone, fax, or on-line. 200 firms were identified in 7 European countries; of these 60 firms were contacted by at least two contact modes, but only 6 showed some degree of interest.

The problem revealed was that though there is much interest in Slovenia as a high-growth destination country, it was seen by the international industry as one with 3 major attractions – the 'tourism icons' already mentioned – lakes and mountains, caves and sea. For a significant period of time Slovene overseas marketing has tended to focus only on these well-known destinations!

By 2003, low-cost airlines made Slovenia easily accessible to high-spend markets. Air travel cannot be a basis for sustainability, but may have to be used as the initial opening up phase for a new destination or product in the first place. Ultimately connected rail travel access must be the longer term primary aim. However, as this initial stage of opening the Heritage Trail market, the transport access methodology was via the low-cost airline destination airports of Ljubljana (Easyjet), Klagenfurt (Ryanair) and Graz (Ryanair), with access ground transport routing via Ljubljana. In-depth contact with key operators by phone showed that there were two viable special-interest packages, which could appeal commercially:

- a) A Heritage Trail Add-On Package to offers at Bled (Lakes & Mountains) or Ljubljana (City & Culture)
- b) An Integrated new 'Highlights of Slovenia' holidays, which started with 25% of their time at two existing icons (Bled & Ljubljana), then the remaining 75% of the time allocation spent on the Heritage Trail

Testing of this product with a group of six UK travel professionals was extremely successful. A second tour with tour-operators from Germany and the UK in 2004, was less successful. In 2005 a specialist walking-tour firm assembled its bespoke and individualised Heritage Trail offer, and at the time of writing, Independent Tour Operator firms were preparing for launching on-line, two individualised alternative packages.

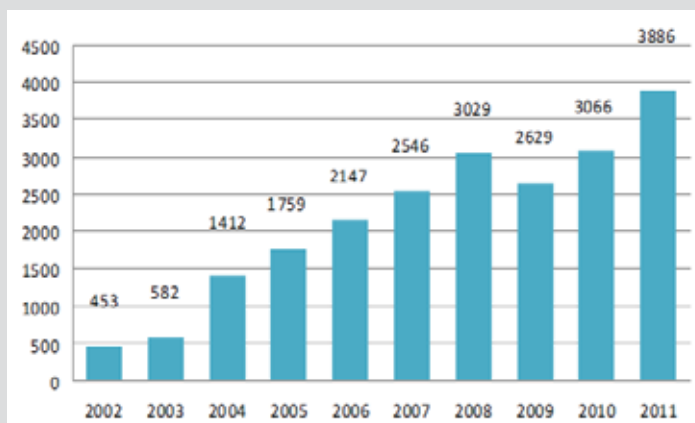


Figure 5. Volume of visits to Heritage Trails product from 2002 – 2011, Source: KOMPAS Novo mesto, 2012

## 5. HERITAGE TRAILS AND CREATIVE INDUSTRIES IN CASE OF DOLENJSKA AND BELA KRAJINA DEVELOPMENT

Already at a very early stage of HT development number of initiatives were taken in order to support and encourage individual and private sector to become important part of this development. Major idea behind was to create opportunities for new jobs and economic diversification in rural parts of Dolenjska and Bela krajina, SE region of Slovenia. With such initiatives and support of HT partnership in providing funding, some 600 individuals took different type of education and training such as meat and milk processing, bakery, bee-keeping, wine production and its marketing, tourist guiding, fruit drying on traditional way, and many others. All these individuals received certificates, which allow them to open their individual business and on one side satisfy all legislative requirements and on the other side apply for further funding from Rural Development Programmes offered by the fact that Slovenia joins EU in 2004.

Different local thematic routes, such as wine, fruit, cheese and others were created where local entrepreneurs started to create new tourism products and through the marketing of HT partnership offer them on domestic and international markets. All above mentioned activities were conducted and implemented by HT partnership institutions, Chamber of Agriculture, which was responsible for the organisation of all trainings and certification based on the national curriculum for supplementary activities and Regional Development Agency which offers support and expertise in providing know-how on business plans and other entrepreneurial activities needed for application on tenders of various EU funding.

After this initial stage of certification, which was important in order to assure that business will operate on legal ground as well as according to new EU regulation and requirements, next stage of more innovative and robust initiatives were taken place. Some individuals and even group of partners decided to develop new product which has traditions back in past and give them fresh and new outlook as required on modern EU tourism markets. Examples such as renovation of traditional farm houses for rural accommodation (**Figure 6**), creation of “Land of hay—racks” (**Figure 7**), which are traditional rural farm constructions’ in SE Slovenia, new recipes developed on traditional rural cuisine of Dolenjska and Bela krajina, preservation of natural features “steljniki”, development of archaeological parks and trails, revival of traditional events and folklore traditions and many, many others proves, that regional strategy in developing Heritage Trails product was only a trigger for these individuals and new rural entrepreneurs to start and run their “creative” products.



**Figure 6 and 7.** Renovated farm accommodation and creation of new products such as Land of hay-racks

Finally on many of new developments there are already guests which “brings” added value to rural economy of Dolenjska and Bela krajina. One of the best demanded and sold product is “vineyard retreats”, which is basically renting traditional wine cellars to guest as self-catering units. Nicely located buildings (see **Figure 8**) and its offer present unique and unforgettably rich experience,

both in terms of rural accommodation, traditional food (see **Figure 9**) and opportunities for active holidays in rural SE Slovenia.



**Figure 8 and 9.** Vineyard retreats

## 6. THEMATIC ROUTES – NEXT STAGE DEVELOPMENT...

From these well accepted initials we seek for further development of the product. Our thinking was led by the facts that:

- More than 75 % of tourist from foreign markets are seeking the active holidays,
- More than 50 % of the reservations are made by internet,
- More tourists want to change the destinations every couple of days, ect.

So, we find out that we have to create the product which:

- Can be used by individual traveller in the same manner than by tour operator
- Will connect actual tourist offer in the region
- Will be supported by all new common and used technologies
- Will support active holidays
- Should be different than other products in the field of active holidays.

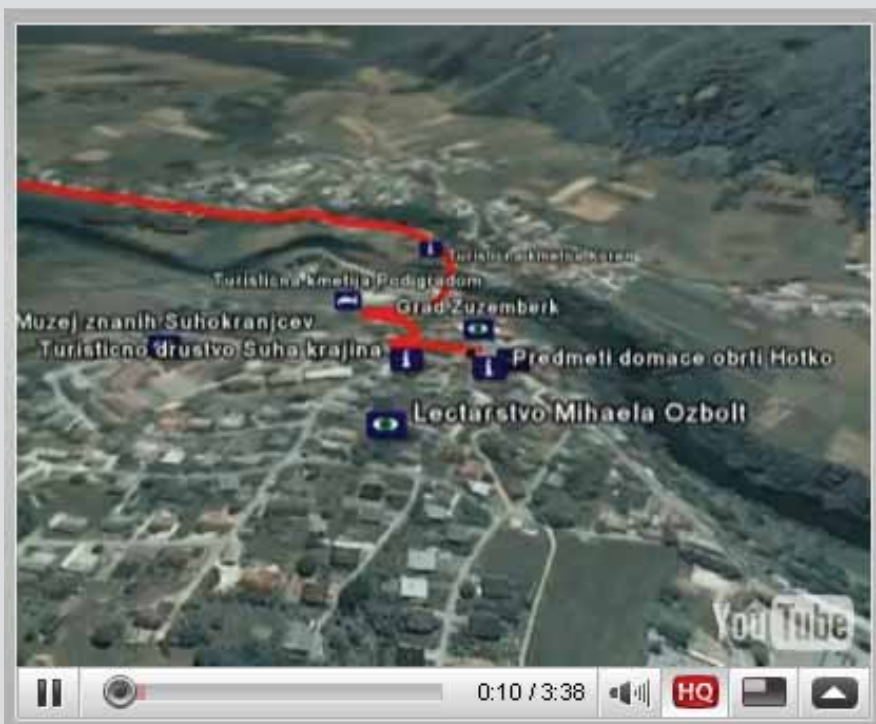
In 2009 and with financial support of the European Regional fund we successfully finished the project, which fulfil all that conditions.

With the project we built “back-bone” for four main activities hiking, biking, horse riding and rowing in the whole region (see **Figure 10** bellow). The routes are connecting natural and cultural heritage of the region with other tourist offer, such as accommodation, activities, information, services etc.



Wholly digitalised and located by GPS, routes are now presented in the renewed portal <http://www.slovenia-heritage.net/> and the new built mobile portal <http://activeslovenia.mobi>. The product also is presented in the facebook and YouTube. Biking and horse riding routes are also visualised.

Main tourist offer of the region is shown on these attractive visualised routes and in the portal (see **Figure 11** on the next page).



The potential tourist can detail look and plan its holidays from home (internet). Once on the terrain, they can use Mobile, PDA, GPS devices (and print outs) to navigate himself on the region. For those who don't have enough time to create the holidays by themselves, the active tourist packages are (pre)-prepared and shown on the web as well.

Finally regional products with brand and logo (see **Figure 12 below**) was designed and Heritage Trails initiative/project become one of the five regional products and now represents important part of the overall tourism offer of the region Dolenjska and Bela krajina in SE Slovenia. Regional web site: <http://www.visitdolenjska.eu/po-poteh-dediscine> is well visited and partners encouraged for further challenges to be developed.



## LEARNING POINTS

1. It is evident from the Case Study that the Heritage Recycling for Tourism phase was preceded by the work on Integrated Rural Community Development. This stimulated a community-based approach to development, in which context tourism was a part of the economic mix. This created a real hope of sustainability via the local communities support for a new mixed economy, thus indicating that sustainable development can underpin successful tourism, if the correct strategy is chosen
2. The evidence from the project has also made clear that heritage-resource based tourism development, if it is to be sustainable, must a) show respect for the carrying capacity of resource-zones - be they robust or fragile and b) have rural community involvement and commitment to tourism, because they have a stake in it, and have net gains from it
3. Much tourism development arises because the destination creates potential tourism products, due to the fact that they wish economic gain from them. Rural tourism products have to be adjusted to fit niche market demands that are highly competitive sectors internationally. Thus market awareness and understanding must be built-in early in the development process, or it becomes much longer and harder
4. New tourist destinations are very difficult to launch internationally, even if they have high accessibility, unless they can be linked and tied in to existing tourism icons or magnets. This new Slovene offer had to be adjusted to do just that.
5. The "gateway" identification is critical in new product formulation. Whether this be a selected airport, seaport, railway station or whatever. If the gateway is the airport of an attractive heritage city (such as Ljubljana), then both add-on package possibilities, as well as links to a popular 'short-city break' destination, add great value
6. Continuity of personnel in a development process is of real importance. The role of the Project Manager in initiation and continuity is critical, and the continuing interactions with external partners - who are supportive and share a belief in the integrity of the development, over the long term - is also valuable
7. This model ultimately is one of community-based multiple-stakeholders, having the equal support of small rural operatives and major agencies. The support from several levels: local, regional, national, and international, have enabled the thirteen year development-cycle of the Dolenjska-Bela Krajina HT project to be achieved

## THE ENTREPRENEURIAL COMMUNITY

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Community involvement for ecotourism projects, within which concept sustainable rural tourism is included, is seen as a critically important area. Studies and programmes conducted by the World Wildlife Fund and associated international agencies which have sought to manage the preservation of endangered species of animals and their environments together with economic development for sensitive rural communities, have found that ecotourism provides a valuable balance between what are often competing demands.

Community involvement in the planning and implementation process has often boosted community economic development and therefore precluded the need to adopt more exploitative types of development – e.g. quarrying, mineral extraction or mass-scale tourism. The WWF PAN Parks initiative was established for the purpose of protecting wild life in vulnerable European environments through the tourism limited by sustainable carrying capacity. This has ensured that the quality of the natural and cultural heritage of an area should not be damaged whilst also creating opportunities for entrepreneurship through community-driven tourism actions. This may involve micro and small businesses which are creating products and services derived from local or regional traditions or ethnography, and which create a unique selling point without creating cultural devaluation.

At the same time, there is evidence, as Denman and other commented that some ecotourism and rural development products fail because of the failure of the entrepreneurial vision. Projects fail to dynamise enough interest and generate visits, poor marketing decisions are made or inadequate marketing channel utilised. In some cases whilst the actual project location may be attractive, the surrounding region is sufficiently unattractive or poorly structured and thus blocks access in marketing and logistical terms.

The role of specialist or niche market tour operators can often be critical, as seen from the Heritage Trail case study in this chapter, can be an important component of the multi-stakeholder mix. This also applies to the quality of the accommodation and catering product; whilst eco-tourists and heritage-cultural tourists may not seek five star hotel products or standards, they will normally demand clean, comfortable and appropriate facilities. The level of those facilities and the pricing may depend on whether, for example, the overall visitor profile is directed towards backpackers rather

than the “grey tourism” market (i.e. the over 55’s). But quality is an important consideration and one which has been seen as essential to community-entrepreneurship balance.

## CONCLUSION: CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

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There are good reasons why the Slovene Heritage Trail model is being successfully adopted in several neighbouring countries as an initiative for rural regeneration through sustainable tourism, namely:

### Factor 1 - Economic regeneration

A heritage trail is created as a tool for rural economic regeneration. The heritage trail extends tourism from existing centres into new and undervisited areas, by increasing the number of visitors, extending their stay, and diversifying the attractions and services offered to them: expansion, extension and diversification.

### Factor 2 - Contributing to regional tourism development

The heritage trail is a tourism product which makes the natural and cultural heritage of a region the focal point of the offering. The development of such a product is, therefore, an integral component of the development of the whole region as a tourism destination. However, a heritage trail is only one product, and many regions have other tourism products on offer which may not be included in the trail. In creating heritage trails in Slovenia, there was frequently a temptation to include all tourism attractions and services in the region. But to give into such a temptation would have been to lose the focus of a well defined tourism product.

### Factor 3 - Complementing other tourism products

Although a heritage trail focuses on only some of the attractions of a region, it can be complementary to other tourism products on offer. For example, it can contribute to economies of scale in regional promotion - in Slovenia, the heritage trail and spa tourism were promoted jointly, and costs of this shared. A heritage trail can also contribute to a wider choice of products for target markets. Taking the example of Slovenia again, spa tourists may be interested in the heritage trail product, and heritage trail tourists may enjoy the spa facilities.

### Factor 4 - Transferability

The heritage trails concept is transferable to other regions and countries where there is sufficient

natural and cultural heritage to attract tourists and where there is a local desire both to benefit from tourism and to safeguard that heritage. This is particularly the case in parts of central and eastern Europe where established settlement patterns and rural economies have developed similarly to those in Slovenia.

#### **Factor 5 - Sustainable tourism**

A heritage trail focuses on the natural and cultural assets of a rural region. This runs the risk of exposing some of the most vulnerable sites in a region to excessive numbers of tourists. The preparation of a heritage trail, therefore, must include a tourism »carrying capacity study« at each proposed tourism site. If a sudden increase in tourists risked damaging the physical or natural attributes of a site, or if it were to exceed the tolerance of the local people, it should not be included in the heritage trail until preventive measures can be implemented.

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# MEKONG DISCOVERY TRAIL – RIVER LIFE ADVENTURES SUPPORTING LOCAL COMMUNITIES IN CAMBODIA

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## ABSTRACT

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The Mekong Discovery Trail is not only a discovery to the Mekong Region but also to the participatory approach in tourism development in Cambodia. The main aim has been to diversify Cambodia's tourism offer from Angkor Wat, the World Heritage Site, to other regions of the country. At the same time, this diversification aimed at distribution of tourism benefits and income to the poorer regions of the country.

Private sector's participation and feedback has been incremental in designing tourism products and business concepts that appeal to the target markets. This in turn has provided the benefits to the local communities, who have worked closely with NGOs. Thus the strategy of simultaneous marketing and product development provided the necessary balance.

In 2006, when the project started, the number of arrivals was close to 115 000. In 2011 the numbers had increased to roughly 261 000. Within five years the number of arrivals had more than doubled. The tourism revenues have increased from USD 4 million in 2007 to roughly USD 17 million. How much of tourism revenue has triggered down to the poor in 2011 is a question mark as no report was made available on the results of the case study conducted in 2011 in the Mekong Region. Evidence about positive impact is there on the ground.

**Keywords:** Mekong, community based tourism, Cambodia

## WHY MEKONG DISCOVERY TRAIL -PROJECT?

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Cambodia is the smallest country on Southeast Asia's mainland. It lies on the great plains of the Mekong River. Its tourism has been over relying on Angkor Wat, the country's flag-bearer in tourism, resulting in an uneven distribution of tourists in time and space. This, in turn, has led to inadequate involvement and participation of local communities to benefit from the continued development of tourism, leakages from the local economy, unequal distribution of tourism development etc.

With a view of overcoming these challenges, the Royal Government of Cambodia formulated a 'rectangular' tourism zoning scheme for the country:

1. Siem Reap and its surroundings for cultural tourism
2. Phnom Penh and its environments for business and city tourism
3. Coastal area for marine and land-based tourism and
4. Northeast for ecotourism development.



Figure 1. Tourism Zoning Scheme of the Royal Government of Cambodia (MoT Cambodia)

This zoning matched with the private sector’s view on ecotourism potential in Cambodia. Northeast Cambodia is perceived as having the greatest po-

tential for ecotourism experiences. The attractiveness of the region is based on natural diversity, the mighty Mekong River and the hill tribes.

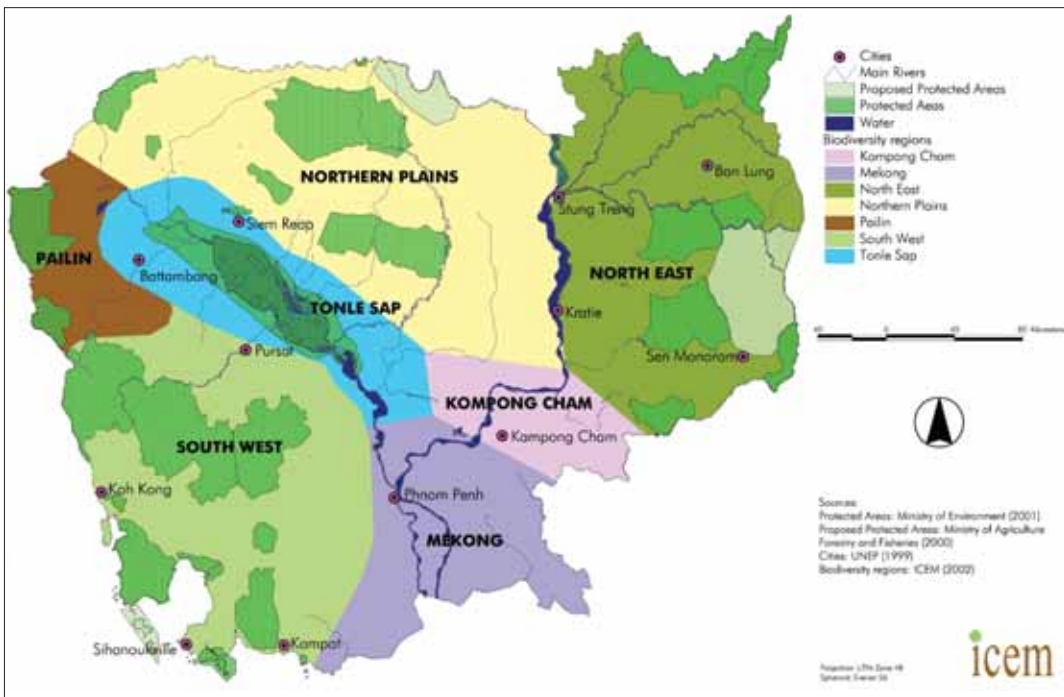


Figure 2. Private Sector’s View on Ecotourism Potential in Cambodia (1= highest potential, 7= lowest potential)  
Source: Ecotourism Strategy for Cambodia, SNV and MoT

Convinced about the potential, the Ministry of Tourism, UNWTO and SNV launched the Mekong Discovery Trail project which is drawing visitors to view the endangered fresh water dolphins which live in ten deep water natural pools in a 190-km stretch of the Mekong River between the provincial capitals of Kratie and Stung Treng.

### BEHIND THE MEKONG DISCOVERY TRAIL ARE THE PEOPLE, PLANET AND PROFIT

Sustainable tourism principles, in short the 3 Ps – people, planet and profit – have been taken into account in planning and implementing the project. The overall objectives are to

- diversify Cambodia’s tourism product from culture to nature;
- raise the profile of the country as a tourism destination;
- attract a segment of the tourism market which is considered to have growth potential;

- provide an incentive for the sustainable utilization of natural resources;
- encourage local participation, ownership and business opportunities;
- generate renewed pride in local cultures and traditions;
- facilitate responsible tourism planning and management practices; and
- alleviate poverty through tourism.

The main objective is, however, to alleviate poverty through tourism. This in turn is expected to provide the impetus for environmental and social sustainability. These factors are strongly inter-related – economic viability depends strongly on maintaining the quality of the local environment; community wellbeing is related to environmental resource management and sustainable use of natural resources; cultural richness has strong bearing on environmental aspects as well as on community wellbeing; and visitor fulfillment is important for economic sustainability.

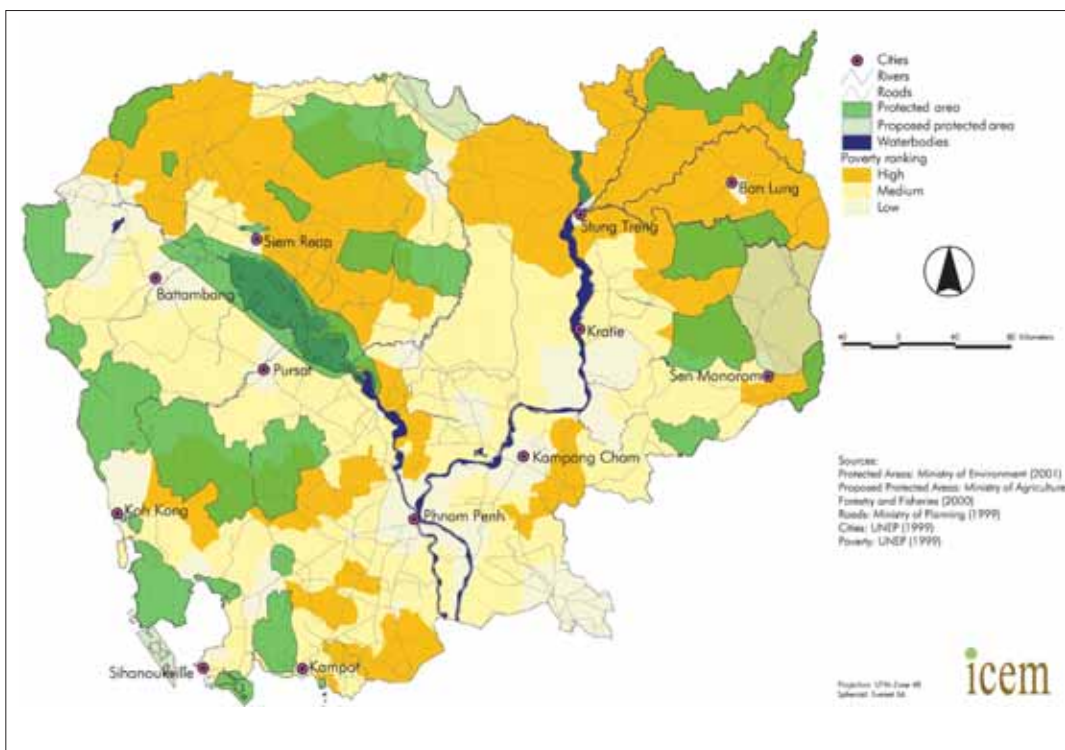


Figure 3. Ecotourism Resources and Poverty Ranking in Cambodia (ICEM)

## STEPS TOWARDS POVERTY ALLEVIATION ALONG THE MEKONG DISCOVERY TRAIL

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In 2006, about 50% of all households in Stung Treng and 30% of those in Kratie lived on less than US\$ 1 a day. In Kratie, for example, this translated to around 156,000 people or 31,200 households living in poverty.

Kratie attracted around 70 800 visitors of which international visitors accounted for 15% in 2006. This meant that less than 1% of international visitors to Cambodia paid a visit to Kratie. Most of the international visitors to the region originated from Europe (71%). The top tourist generating countries were United Kingdom (17%), France (16%), Germany (10%), Australia (9%), Netherlands (8%) and the United States of America (6%). Therefore, major international generating markets to Kratie did not follow the same pattern as for Cambodia in general.

Seventy thousand and eight hundred international and domestic visitors to Kratie town spent about US\$ 3.12 million in 2006. More than one third (38%) of tourist expenditure was spent on food and beverage, about 16 per cent on accommodation, roughly 7 per cent on handicrafts and souvenirs, and 5 per cent on attractions.

Around 12 per cent of the tourist expenditure returned to people from poor or near poor background according to the study conducted by SNV and IFC in 2006. The pro poor impact was high in accommodation, attractions and handicrafts.

### STEP 1 – ENHANCING AND SUPPORTING THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE POOR

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During the first phase of the Mekong Discovery Trail project the **emphasis was in the development of provincial capitals – Kratie and Stung Treng towns**. They received the critical mass of visitors to support the development efforts. The point was to develop these towns as gateways and service centers to the Mekong Discovery Trail, Northeast Cambodia and to the regional Mekong experience.

The first priority was given to the Kratie town, for which a tourism development master plan was prepared. This plan gives the necessary guidelines e.g. for spatial planning, hotel development, human resource development, marketing including prod-

uct development. The government is processing this plan to become an official planning document for Kratie town and its environments.

**The emphasis on provincial capitals was also justified due to the pro poor impact.** Employment in hotels and guesthouses was a key contributor to poverty alleviation according to the study conducted by IFC and SNV in 2006. Around 83% of the employees in the accommodation sector were from poor or near poor families. Therefore **interventions aimed at increasing visitor numbers in general and expanding their length of stay** through various experiences have been highlighted in the Mekong Discovery Trail – project.

While enhancing the involvement and capacity of local communities, new activities and routes were developed and promoted along the lines of ‘heritage trail’ concept where series of local and regional attractions are connected with a themed visitor route. These trails allow visitors to venture out into surrounding attractions - based on their interests, amount of time available and the budget - and encourage them to stay longer in the provinces. They may choose only one route or mix and match several of them along the 190 km stretch of the Mekong River.

These routes and experiences were highlighted in the guidebook ‘Mekong Discovery Trail – River Life Adventures in Northeast Cambodia’, which was launched together with the DVD and familiarization tours. The aimed impact was achieved. The average length of stay increased from one night to two nights minimum in Kratie and in Stung Treng. Also the number of activities where international tourists involved themselves increased from dolphin watching only to visiting the Koh Trong Island and conducting cycling tours. It is estimated that tourist visits to the communities will create about 20,000 extra nights in the capitals annually.

New product and support to its development has also raised the interest of the tour operators. The number of tour operators operating in the region increased from 25 in 2006 to 35 in 2009. Now a soft adventure tour operator specialized in kayaking has set up its branch office in Stung Treng. Tour groups are increasingly spending more than one night in the region.

The increased number of visitors with the increased length of stay has also interested hotel investors. Two new hotels with 120 rooms and one eco lodge have been opened in Kratie and one new hotel with 50 rooms in Stung Treng. Discussions with other potential investors are on-going and in-

vestors' prospectus is being prepared. The aim is to attract right type of investors who would honor the principles of the Mekong Discovery Trail project.

Current hoteliers have also received capacity building through the 'Big Brother Programme' between the members of the Cambodian Hotel Association (CAHA) in Phnom Penh and the accommodation establishments and restaurants in the Mekong Discovery Trail region. Under this program the bigger hotels provide coaching in marketing, management and day-to-day operational matters to the local hotels and restaurants. The underpinning idea is to improve the profitability of the local establishments, as well as quality of the products and services and this way support the employment of the poor in the hotel and restaurant sector.

## STEP 2 – SUPPLYING GOODS AND SERVICES TO TOURISM ENTERPRISES BY THE POOR OR BY ENTERPRISES EMPLOYING THE POOR

Local supplies accounted for 37 per cent of the food and beverages served in the restaurants in 2006. Supplies of fresh produce such as fish, meat and rice are sourced locally where they are available and of the quality and quantity demanded by the restaurants. Considerable leakage occurs in the purchase of fruit and vegetables, generally from Vietnam, and meat, usually from elsewhere in Cambodia. This is a normal scene in Cambodia where approximately 70 per cent of all fruit and vegetables are being imported to the country.



**Figure 4.** Share of Local Supplies in Restaurants  
Source: IFC and SNV study

To increase the local supply of goods and services, ensure employment, and establishment of micro enterprises, the project has provided

- English language training for key people in the selected communities to act as key focal points to e.g. assist the tour operators in ground operations including bookings, arrangements etc.
- non-verbal communication tool and training for accommodation and F&B operators in the target communities to partly overcome the language barrier between locals and international tourists
- train-the-trainers courses – training the NGOs assisting the local communities along the Mekong Discovery Trail region
- training the local community to prepare evening activities such as shadow puppet shows for FITs and GITs at Wat Roka Kandal, Kratie
- assistance in preparing the local horse cart people to service the tourists for additional income.

## STEP 3 – DIRECT SALES OF GOODS AND SERVICES TO VISITORS BY THE POOR

Two out of every three dollars spend on food and beverage is outside of the formal restaurant sector. **Informal F&B expenditure is partially captured by the night market and spending on specialty products** such as Kralarn (sticky rice in a bamboo shoot) and Nem (mashed fish wrapped in banana leaf). These products are especially popular with domestic visitors – 9 of 10 purchase Kralarn while 8 of 10 purchase Nam. Less than two per cent of international visitors purchased Kralarn before it was promoted by the Mekong Discovery Trail guidebook.

There is demand for these special products elsewhere in Cambodia. However, the lack of refrigerated storage and transport limits the shelf life and distribution potential. The popularity of Kralarn and Nem for Cambodians provides a significant opportunity to up-scale production and expand markets and market reach without the inherent risks of relying on tourist trade. Potential markets include the broader Cambodian community as well as, in the short term, tapping into the international market that travels to Kratie and over the longer term to Cambodia in general. Kralarn is likely to appeal to cross-section of international visitors while Nem is likely to appeal to the domestic markets and to the more adventurous international tourists.

Other potential specialty products have been identified by the local authorities based on the One Village One Product –concept. These include grapefruit, snails (Chakchreng snails) and fish (Trey Krabei, Trei Amboung, Trei Kya).

Both traditional and new specialty products would need assistance to improve hygienic conditions in preparation and storage, innovation in design and packaging, branding the product and reliable distribution systems. These would in turn improve the poverty alleviation opportunities, as already at current stage the pro poor impact of Kralam and Nem was estimated to be around 46 per cent.

Food handicraft sector (food as a souvenir) is, however, challenging due to the poor efficiency of the agriculture sector. Therefore development has to continue by incorporating piloting of farming methods as well as basic training in methods and techniques. Thus collaboration with partners specialized in agricultural value chains is needed.

The **handicraft sector** is very limited in the region. At the time of the baseline study only 33 per cent of domestic and 21 per cent of international visitors spend on souvenirs/shopping (roughly US\$ 1 per day) in Kratie. The souvenirs include products sold at central market (around 200 stalls), Kampi dolphin pool - wooden carved dolphins, T-shirts, postcards, coloring books – and Wat Roka Kandal - woven baskets, handbags, sandals, wooden vases. An analysis of each product group found that no international visitors and only 7 per cent of domestic visitors purchase carvings at Kampi. At Wat Roka Kandal only 1 per cent of international visitors purchased handicrafts while the domestic tourists were not at all interested in the woven products.

There is potential to increase visitor expenditure on shopping for souvenirs and handicrafts. However, this requires innovative product designs, linking with new markets, expanding outlets and marketing products. Handicrafts such as musical instruments and silk products are being made. The Sambour community formed a group for the production and they have attended training. However, this needs more support, especially in the field of skills training and setting up distribution channels.

**Local transport** is mainly provided by motodops. The Department of Tourism in Kratie has provided introductory guide training to close to 60 moto drivers. Bicycles are also available for hire – around US\$ 1 per day from two outlets. New bicycle hire outlets have been planned to the communities such as Koh Trong Island. Horse cart tours have commenced, especially in Kratie.

## STEP 4 – ESTABLISHMENT AND RUNNING OF TOURISM ENTERPRISES BY THE POOR

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It was acknowledged that poverty alleviation occurs primarily through employment, and only to small extent through new enterprises owned by the poor in the Mekong Discovery Trail region at the early stages of the development. This is because the poor lack the necessary skills and capital for entrepreneurship activities. Therefore the project first emphasizes skills development through employment. Later the employed from the poor backgrounds can use the learned skills in entrepreneurship activities.

In some sub-sectors, such as handicrafts and guide services, there is greater potential for the poor working as entrepreneurs. The potential exists especially at Wat Roka Kandal (shadow puppetry), 100-pillar wat (handicraft and guided tour), Preah Rumkel and Koh Trong (homestays and cycling).

## STEP 5 – TAX OR LEVY ON TOURISM INCOME OR PROFITS WITH PROCEEDS BENEFITING THE POOR

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The increased number of visitors and length of stay in accommodation establishments have increased the amount of taxes paid in the region. However, the project has not followed this indicator due to the inherent challenges.

## STEP 6 – VOLUNTARY GIVING/SUPPORT BY TOURISM ENTERPRISES AND TOURISTS

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Voluntary support by tourists and foundations takes place through the NGOs in Cambodia. In Mekong Discovery Trail region examples include

- a) Cambodian Rural Development Team. It has several volunteering opportunities for English teachers at their field offices and local schools in the Mekong Discovery Trail region. The NGO also assists the Koh Pdao community in its development including earning additional income from tourism;

- b) Stung Treng Women's Development Centre – Mekong Blue. It has received support from Covent Garden Foundation to set up a dye center; from Allen Foundation to establish a sericulture center; from KIDS Canada to operate a community school; and from Lonely Planet Foundation to expand its operations to Phnom Penh.

## STEP 7 – INVESTMENT IN INFRA-STRUCTURE

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The Mekong Discovery Trail project has coordinated small scale infrastructure development based on the trail design manual. Information boards, rest shelters, trail heads, pictograms, and signposts have been constructed to all target areas along the Mekong River. The impact of these measures is seen in the number of tourists visiting the area and buying local produce and services.

The project will further support the development of small scale infrastructure including minor bridges, boat landings and sanitary premises. In addition, due to the joint interest of Cambodia and Lao PDR, the border crossing procedures and transportation has smoothed. The border was officially opened for bus companies in September 2009 which has had a positive impact on border-trade as well as visitation levels.

## KEY ELEMENTS AND CHALLENGES FOR THE PROGRESS

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The following have been identified as key elements for the progress of the Mekong Discovery Trail:

- Private sector's participation and feedback has been incremental in designing tourism products and business concepts that appeal to the target markets. This in turn has provided the benefits to the local communities. Thus the strategy of simultaneous marketing and product development provided the necessary balance. While the local communities were learning new skills and opportunities, the tourists were already visiting the region, its villages and attractions keeping up the motivation and local pride. The implementers were trying to manage the expectations of both sides – tourists and communities alike.
- Travel routes of FITs in Southeast Asia include the route from Lao PDR to Cambodia via Stung

Treng and Kratie or vice-versa. Thus the project has been able to attract the market that is already in the region to test the product and develop it further to appeal to backpacker + markets and to tour groups.

- The market was mature for new experiences in Cambodia. Nature-based soft adventure experiences were missing. The Mekong River placed the region and the product on the travelers' mind map.
- Critical mass of visitors. The total number of arrivals in Kratie and Stung Treng Provinces was 261 442 in 2011. The number has more than doubled since 2006. Also the length of stay has increased from roughly one night in 2006 to 2.55 nights with internationals and to 2.1 nights with domestic visitors. The average expenditure per day was around USD 48 among international visitors and slightly less than USD 30 with domestic visitors. The tourism revenues in the two provinces were more than USD 17 million in 2011. All these figures for 2011 exceeded the forecasts for visitor arrivals made in 2007. (UNWTO 2012)

Even though the project has progressed relatively well, it faces the following key challenges:

- Limited understanding about nature-based tourism, its characteristics, and benefits among all stakeholders. Specific, hands on capacity building is needed for the public sector as well as the communities. Private sector also needs to be geared towards nature based tourism – so far most of them have been involved in culture-based tourism.
- Differences between domestic and international market demand. The domestic market as well as the general Asian tourism market demand for more comfort and therefore are looking for more recreation than actual ecotourism experiences. At the provincial level, areas for picnicking are referred to as ecotourism products and these do not fulfill the international ecotourism characteristics.
- Lack of land-use planning for tourism purposes. Since most of the provinces do not have land use plans, tourism development is threatened by conflicting land uses such as logging, mining, inappropriate infrastructure development, land encroachment, and poaching.

## FUTURE STEPS

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With the support from the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation for Development, Cambodian Ministry of Tourism, World Tourism Organization and the Netherlands Development Organisation continue focusing on hands on capacity development, infrastructure improvements, business and product development, and marketing. In addition, expansion of the Mekong Discovery Trail to the bordering provinces with Lao PDR is under consideration.

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# ECOTOURISM AS A WAY OF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE LOCAL COMMUNITIES?

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In Northeast Madagascar, ecotourism is promoted as a way of development as well as conservation by the international funders, NGOs and Malagasy government. The principal livelihood of the villagers near the Marojejy National Park, is the shifting cultivation of rice. Today, many of them are engaged as guides, cooks, porters and maintenance personnel in park activities. This paper focuses on the question, which preoccupies mainly villagers, who are not engaged actively in ecotourism: Who gets the benefit from the national park in the area where the access to land has become more and more restricted?

The paper points out that ecotourism practices are informed by scientific rationalization and combined with capitalist ideas and practices. What is considered as a benefit has to be understood in the relation of social and historical relations and practices of the different actors. While conservationists argue for the benefits such as fresh air and water, villagers continue to practice their main subsistence of living, shifting cultivation that they have been practicing in the region ever since they fled there from oppressive hierarchical power of the Merina state. Mere socioeconomic and political change, promoted by the developers and conservationists, is therefore not enough to erase peoples' understanding and practices about the nature.

My main work is titled *Land, Living and Global Natural Resource Economy among the shifting cultivators in Northeast Madagascar*. The work is related to discussions of political and human ecology and focuses on what happens in a society that has a history of fleeing from the state and clearing forest for fields when huge conservation area is prohibiting their way of natural resource use. The material for this paper is selected from the whole material that is collected during 10 months fieldwork in 4 different villages situating near Marojejy National Park entrance. The field material consists of semi-structured interviews e.g. about village his-

stories, livelihoods and perceptions of conservation, participation observation principally in agricultural practices, but also in ritual practices such as funerals, interviews and discussions with conservation, NGO, company representatives, park visitors and personnel.

## SCIENTIFIC RATIONALIZATION DIRECTING IDEAS IN CONSERVATION

Madagascar, the fourth largest island in the world (587 041 km<sup>2</sup>) situated in the Indian Ocean about 400 km from African continent, is generally regarded as a “hot spot” or “a representative of the spectacular megabiodiversity” because of its high rate of endemism of plants and animals. According to Madagascar National Park (from this on referred as MNP) about 80 % of the animals and 90 % of the plants are endemic (MNP 2013a). High level political emphasis has been given to environment and its conservation. Ex-president Ravalomanana, governing 2002-2009, announced in 2003 at the IUCN World Parks Congress the Durban Vision, a bold initiative to more than triple the area under protection from approximately 17,000 km<sup>2</sup> to over 60,000 km<sup>2</sup> (from 3% to 10% of Madagascar's area). As of 2011, the island's protected areas include six Strict Nature Reserves (*Réserves Naturelles Intégrales*), 21 Wildlife Reserves (*Réserves Spéciales*), one private reserve and 20 National Parks (*Parcs Nationaux*) (Keller 2008). Ravalomanana's politics was striving for economic development through tourism.

Tourism in Madagascar has grown since mid-1990 from 7500 arrivals in 1996 to 225000 arrivals in 2011 (Index Mundi 2013), which brought 633,000,00 USD in 2010 (World Bank 2013). According to World Tourism Organization Madagasc-

car's tourism grew 14% during the 2012 (Travel and Tourism. Economic Impact 2012.)

Environment and the use of natural resources has become an intense global concern since the Second World War. The main focus has been developing modern schemes for ensuring conservation of natural resources and protected areas fit into an overall strategy for developing industrialization and international trade. (Gezon 2005, 139.) Social scientists have pointed out that before environment can be assigned a commercial or ecosystemic value it must first be constructed as “nature”, an object of human action.

Scientific rationalization has been used to define why, Marojejy covering 55500 ha located in Northeastern part of Madagascar between coastal town of Sambava and mountaneous town Andapa, is valuable. The park was established in 1952 and in 1966 affirmed as restricted reserve, because of French botanist Henri Humbert. He described the park as a marvel of nature because of its exceptional biological diversity compared with most of the reserves in the protected areas system of Madagascar. The peak of Marojejy rises up to 2132 meters. From a natural scientists' point of view, the richness of endemic plants and animals is a result of the park encompassing a broad swath of elevational zones, starting from lowland formations and ranging continuously to high mountains (Goodman 2000).

According to MNP, one can find following richness in biodiversity:

- 115 species of birds, “Helmet vanga (*Euryceros prevostii*) as a speciality” as one guide put it.
- 11 species of lemurs, which includes Silky Sifaka (*Propithecus candidus*) locally known as *simpona*, listed by the **International Union for Conservation of Nature** (IUCN) as one of the world's **25 most critically endangered primate**
- 148 species of reptiles and amphibians, of which 16 are endemic to the mountain area, and “it is the highest diversity of reptiles and amphibians currently known in any protected area in Madagascar” (MNP 2013).
- 260 species of ferns and 35 palm trees out of which 7 are endemic to Marojejy (Marojejy 2013).

In addition to plants and animals, due to elevational zones, park covers five types of forest: lowland primary forest, lowland secondary forest, medium forest, cloudy forest, shrub land. Because of diversity and rarity of animals and plants, park should be protected, especially from the people living around the park.

The history of the people, mainly ethnicity of Tsimihety cultivating rice, vanilla and coffee near Marojejy, is characterized by the escape from the state power as well as making their living by clearing the forest for their fields. According to informants' statements their ancestors came to northeast to look for money (*mitady vola*) and flee from the French power using taxation and forced work. Mountaneous and forestry area of the Marojejy was used for hiding from colonial officers. A local park guide told me a narrative in which Betsimisarakana, living mainly in the eastern coast of Madagascar, separated in different groups. Those, who did not want to collect *cauchu* (rubber) and did not cut their hair that is a sign not wanting to proclaim that one had loyalty to the monarch or to his/her successors (Wilson 1993, 16-7), became Tsimihety. Graeber (2004) has taken it as far as to say that the Tsimihety are examples of the anarchists because under the French, administrators would complain that they could send delegations to arrange for labor to build a road near a Tsimihety village, negotiate the terms with apparently cooperative elders, and return with the equipment a week later only to discover the village entirely abandoned (Graeber 2004, 55). Today, even though Tsimihety relationship towards a state is peaceful and people cooperate with state, NGO, conservation and company representatives, they like to make their decisions. Typical situation was mentioned by one US agricultural development volunteer who had planned to introduce new cultivation techniques to cultivators. Everybody she talked to answered that her ideas sounded really interesting but only 2 persons from the village over 2000 habitants came actually practice techniques. With this history of local cultivators meet the interests of conservationists and tourism representatives.

## NATURE IN POLITICAL AND HUMAN ECOLOGY

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The first researches of political ecology took nature as “natural” and prior to culture providing functionalist perceptions of the societies and their nature-human, human-nature –relations, e.g. Rappaport 1968. In response Wolf (1982) pointed out that there are complex hierarchies and cross-cutting linkages through which communities are embedded in larger economic, political and social structures. According to dependency and world system theories implication for ecology is that the local is subordinated to a global system of power

relations and capitalist penetration. (Post-modern criticism deconstructed totalizing world systems and a place became a focus for a research and it was determined to be a historically constructed and grounded site of local-global articulation and interaction. (Biersack 2006.) “Nature making” has raised issues of conflicts and agency (e.g. Gezon 2005, 1997) or way of subjecting people with certain “environmentality” (Agrawal 2005). Some scholars, however, question “indigenous knowledge” as an epistemic system, which impedes certain people’s ability to benefit from technology and science (Lowe 2006). In human ecology concern has been in the knowledge and classification of the environment, which arises from specific ways of using and inhabiting it (Ellen 1996).

If we follow modern rationalization, it appears that in conservation nature must be “purified”, to use Latour’s (1993) term, first before it can be constructed again. I am interested in different ways of rationalizing nature and to make this separation I use Escobar’s (1999) concepts of capitalist and organic regimes to clarify the different perceptions of and practices. For Escobar these regimes interact and fuse but actors’ history and practices define which is dominant rationality. Organic regime is based on the idea that nature and society are not separated ontologically as in modern societies. Cultivators’ way of living is an example of that. For capitalist nature, on the other hand, characteristic is a separation through modern form of rationalization such as objectification, used in governance by which increasingly vast domains of daily life are appropriated, processed, transformed and modified by the expert knowledge and apparatuses of the state, as well as through commodification, in which nature is understood as a universal means of production.

## ECOTOURISM AND CONSERVATION –NATURE AS A RESOURCE

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National park and ecotourism practices in Madagascar are examples of capitalist and scientific rationalizing.

To quote one of the main funders of Marojejy National Park, German Investment Bank’s, KFW, vision

German Development Cooperation is promoting the protection of the environment while at the same time fighting poverty, because only an intact natural environment will attract tourists,

who bring money and job opportunities (KWF 2011).

According to the Bank, the “intact nature” creates jobs promoting development and saves forests.

To follow the capitalist efforts to make the park sustainable economically, in 1998 the status of Marojejy strict natural reserve was changed into national park. This meant that tourists and other visitors in addition to researchers, who were the only ones allowed to enter into the park before, could get access in it. In 1998 WWF together with state’s Water and Forest Department created a special state agency ANGAP (Association Nationale de Gestion des Aires Protégées) that changed in 2007 into MNP (Madagascar National Parks), to manage National parks in Madagascar. In the year 2007 the park got a UNESCO’s world heritage status because of its exceptional value of biodiversity, especially its high level of endemism, but also because of its management and local peoples’ contribution to the park’s protection (MNP. Rapport Annuel 2007, 8.) UNESCO status is believed to add attractiveness and fame of the park. Establishing national park meant that local population became involved in a new way in conservation. At the moment there are 13 guides, 9 cooks, over 100 porters and 2 park rangers co-operating with MNP mainly from 3 villages near the park entrance.

According to ecotourism chief of MNP, a young university educated man from Diego, responsible of marketing, managing and analyzing the data related to ecotourism, the main benefit from ecotourism for local communities is economical. A local guide earns 18000 ariary, about 6 euros per day. Usually one group spends time between 2-4 days in the park. Earning is a lot when compared to work on some other person’s field where someone can earn between 2-3000 ariary that is around 1 euro per day. According to my calculations based on the Marojejy visitor’s book 2012, the most earning guide’s salary can be around 900e/year, the best porter earned about 300 000ar/year and chefs about 300 000 ar/year that is little bit over 100 euros. Local women associations, 10 all together, that are formed in order to be able to co-operate with foreign and national NGOs and companies if that kind of situation comes up, are involved with park activities. Their tasks are cleaning of the camping areas, to wash the bed cloths, cleaning the camp rooms, doors of the rooms and cleaning the walls (MNP 2007, 13). MNP pays them 100000ar (about 34 €).

Even though number of visitors have risen from 155 in 1999 to 1175 in 2012 (MNP 2012) there

are not enough visitors for all the guides to work as full-time guide. Also political distortions have direct effect on tourism. In 2009 when present leader of transitional government took power from ex-president with the support of army, numbers of

tourists dropped almost to a half (615) what it had been in a previous year 2008 (Figure 1). Figure 1: Monthly visitors in the park 1999-2007 and 2006-2011 (MNP 2011).

	Année 1999	Année 2000	Année 2001	Année 2002	Année 2003	Année 2004	Année 2005	Année 2006	Année 2007	Total
Malagasy	61	266	395	44	844	589	735	247	458	3639
étrangers	66	118	154	190	221	242	294	310	433	2028
Total	127	384	549	234	1065	831	1029	557	891	5667

ANNEE	JANV	FEV	MARS	AVRIL	MAI	JUIN	JUL	AOÛT	SEPT	OCT	NOV	DEC	TOTAL	Nationaux	Etrangers
Année 2006	6	14	17	53	10	21	23	107	112	115	157	20	<b>656</b>	<b>337</b>	<b>319</b>
Année 2007	9	19	21	44	50	34	79	198	105	132	175	39	<b>905</b>	<b>470</b>	<b>435</b>
Année 2008	40	16	36	138	83	50	100	117	146	195	121	66	<b>1108</b>	<b>523</b>	<b>585</b>
Année 2009	31	7	2	6	34	20	75	131	74	89	70	76	<b>615</b>	<b>321</b>	<b>294</b>
Année 2010	42	24	19	34	54	19	101	174	151	164	105	144	<b>1031</b>	470	561
Année 2011	9	19	52	74	41	38	95	187	113	200	174	73	1075	<b>507</b>	<b>568</b>

This year 2013, when elections were first to expected to take place on 24<sup>th</sup> of July, the number of visitors was half of that what it was last year in July. Tourist operators complained that they do not have enough reservations this year.

In addition to salary benefit, 50 per cent of park revenues are channeled to local communities. In practice this channeling needs local initiative. Local communities have to make a formal application stating how revenue would be used. Then COSAP (*Comité d'Orientation et de Soutien des Aires Protégées*) whose members are from local communities reviews applications and decides the priority. Every year there is supposed to be one microproject in each sector. In total there are 6 sectors around the park with 52 villages. To mention few of these microprojects: construction of school in Anivorano (2006), construction of school's floor in Mandena (2006), construction of brick fabric in Andrakata (2007), Maroambihy's hospital's stairs (2007), School package for 18 villages, for 3108 student (2010). (Interview with Sector chief 2013) In addition, every year MNP holds a party where local elders are invited and they are given e.g. bottle of cooking oil, kind of compensation because they cannot work for but according to local logic emphasizing authority of elders, it is important to

gain their support. These are necessary gifts since as long as there is no possibility for gaining living, people continue to cultivate their land and use forest resources. In a typical day in a village, males go to look for wood for fire, families go together to their fields to slash, weed or harvest depending on the season, they can pick some fruits and look for leaves to eat with rice. While they use resources of the forest, cultivators also leave their mark on it.

## NATURAL IS HUMAN MODIFIED

According to Ellen (2000) humans modify nature and transform and maintain landscape and places, natural places do not exist naturally like that. In northeast Madagascar usually too rocky places, especially hill sides are left out from cultivation. Usually people reasoned that the land is not possible to cultivate because of rocks. In Malagasy maro- means many and jeje= rock, rain or spirit. "All the rain comes from Marojeje" as local cultivator told me. According to western scientific rationalization rain forms when atmospheric water vapor has **condensed** and became heavy enough to fall under **gravity**. In mountainous areas, heavy precipitation is possible where **upslope flow** is maxi-

mized within **windward** sides of the **terrain** at elevation which forces moist air to condense and fall out as rainfall along the sides of mountains. Northeast Madagascar is also in the area where intertropical convergence zone moves creating heavy rain between January and March. (Strahler & Strahler 1997.) Conservationists have been reasoning to people that if you leave forest on mountain tops, it creates rain as well as prohibits erosion. It seems that now-a-days people explain rain according to conservationists' logic. Cultivators explained that since this year (2013) there was little rain, it is because people have cut down the trees. Also people interested in cultivation of vanilla reasoned also that one cultivator got good harvest this year because his field was locating near the hill top that was covered by primary forest. I never saw that someone had made *mijoro*, a request for ancestors to ask for rain but I heard from one village elder that people used to do it. "If there was no rain before the original settlers of the village used to go to the crossing of the two rivers and ask for blessing from the ancestors." I asked: "Why in the crossing of the two rivers?" He answered to me: "So that they could reach all the ancestors living in the upstream of the rivers." The other river, Manantenina, is united by the smaller streams originating from Marojejy National Park.

There are spirits in the forest but also the park is not untouched by the humans. Local families used to cut the forest and establish their rice fields in the region of the present park around 1948. One elder in the village remembered that "when we were little boys we use to work there" he used to go to Ambinamitelo, meaning where three streams come together (vinany = meeting of the streams / rivers). The place is found near Camp 1. He stated that they were there when it was not yet opened as a reserve and he helped his father to clear the forest and cultivate rice. Near the Camp 1 there is an area of bamboo forest that marks a secondary forest. I asked, why did you leave the place? He answered that *Lebeny' ala*, forest savers told them that you cannot go anymore to the area, but we had already left the area because it was so far.

## NATURE PARK AND LIFEWORLDS

Also cultivators calculate what is economically beneficial. Historically cultivators in this region have come here to look for money (*mitady vola*). Generally looking for money is a male work, because idea is that male provides material conditions for his wife while wife takes care of household takas

such as carrying water and looking after children. Of course women also go and look for money, e.g. working in other peoples' fields (*par jour*) or having a friend who gives money or some other materials for sexual relationship. I think ecotourism fits into this local way of finding money. Finding money means that one is not necessarily thinking of long term working relationship but gaining money for daily living or resolving some problem for what he needs money for, like hospital expenses. For example, one man approached one day my family's father. The man wanted that the father rents his rice field for one season, because he needed money for some unmentioned trouble. One woman explained to me that her main money comes from when she works for other person's field. I asked how many days about in a month you work on other persons field? She said that it varies, but about 7 meaning that she can earn about 7 euros in a month. Also in 2009 when almost all the villagers participated in illegal loggings in national park. Mainly rosewood was logged and transported to China. Loggings were eventually were halted by national army with co-operation of MNP and some local guides, cooks and porters. What I am referring here that the most of the cultivators' perspective how to earn money can changes quickly and commitment to national park and ecotourism has not been very strong if some other opportunity appears.

The general attitude is that it is better to cultivate the land because if something happens to MNP or MNP fires them, they always have their land. Some guides calculated that this year (2013), when vanilla prices were higher (14-21000 ariary/kg/green) it is better to concentrate on vanilla selling than use time for guiding. This shows that in all societies there is economical rationalization but we have to understand the history and continuity of the society how people rationalize their choices.

Marking their environment is a sign of shifting cultivators' sovereignty and relations. Successful marking is to make a marriage, build a house, have children and bury their dead. If someone has extra money, he/she usually wants to build a big house as one of the researchers paying salary for his local assistants told me. Household, usually parent or parents and their children, takes care of the basic needs of the living such as cultivation of their fields, taking care of the harvest and consuming it principally, as well as living in the same house.

If someone is known to get a bigger amount of money, he or she is expected to build a house. For example, my assistant built an extra big room for his house with cement floor and plank walls. Also one chef was working for 6 month period in the

park for a lemur research projects and with the money he got, he enlarged his house. One man in the village had made his fortune with huge rice field harvests in Andapa: His house was built out of cement and he started to build third floor for it while I was staying there. Two or three floored cement houses were signs of wealth received from high vanilla price of 2003. According to local memory in 2003 green vanilla was sold 400000ar/kg when in 2012 price 1kg green was 5000ar. It is also a married woman's interest to have a house in her natal village. For example my research assistant's wife made continuous claims that he should help her to build a house. The explanation was that it is important to build a house for a wife because if people divorce, there is no need to share couple's house, if a wife has her own one. One conservationist commented: Why do they use their money for houses, it does not help them economically at all? His vision was that people should invest the salary for example in a pig that can reproduce or they can sell after and get more money. I think he missed the point house in this society can be thought as a symbol for life and its quality, peoples' sovereignty and continuity of the family.

The meaning of land and territory derives from a cumulative history of occupation and use. By marking the nature, shifting cultivators become more and more settled, rooted to use Keller's (2008) term, in a place. When people move to a new sight they do not loose ties to an old one but the new sight after successful establishment of fields, houses and descendants becomes imaginable as a branch of the kin group. For example my research assistant's father is from a village, further west from Marojejy. My assistant told me that he could go there any time and claim his land. At the moment he is happy to stay in where he is, but it is his obligation is to send his dead aunt, from whom he inherited his land in the village he is living now, bones to the village where aunt's father is from. The village further west is my research assistant's as well as his aunt's *tanindrazanana*. *Tanindrazana* is the place where one will be buried, usually where one's father is from and where he has been buried. While doing the interviews, I learnt that some people had established a new *tanindrazana* in the village they have been living. To be able to do that, they had requested for *mijoro*, blessing from the ancestors done by the *zafintany*, the original settler of the village. There are special places for making a *mijoro*. In the villages I visited places were such as a big rock near the river, a big tree nearby the road or a tree in front of the house of the original settlers. Peoples' presence and relations that include the liv-

ing and the dead, are inscribed in their landscape.

To maintain relationships to ancestors can seem irrational from economical point of view. My family's father had gotten his rice fields from his aunt who had passed away already seven years ago. Only promise he had given to his aunt was that he will do exhumation (*famadihana*), sending her bones where her father is from. Sending bones can be done after 5-7 yrs. This event took place after I had already let but the guide estimated that he estimated to spend about 1 100 000 ariary for the feast that is one third what he can earn from ecotourism in a year. In a feast the expenses are for a cow (zebo) that is ritually important in Malagasy society, buying a cement coffin and 30 daba, about 1 daba is an oil can that can fit about 10 l oil, of rice for about 500 guests to eat plus smaller expenses such as petrol, oil, tomatoes and so on. He complained to me that this is too expensive feast for him at the moment but if he doesn't do it, he is afraid that bad luck will come and he doesn't get what he wants.

## CONCLUSION

In this particular case ecotourism is not enough to be beneficial for all the 52 villages around the park. I think concept of nature and perception of it are essential to understand different points of views. In this paper I have showed that ecotourism promoters and villagers have different kinds of perceptions of nature. In ecotourism point of view, nature is a resource that can be used for economic benefit. For cultivators, nature can economically beneficial but it is also a life world, a place where their family is from, where their ancestors come from. I wish to emphasize that when co-operating in ecotourism, key concepts of the society, their cultural categories should be understood, also historically.

**Keywords:** ecotourism, anthropology, Tsimihety, Marojejy, conservation

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# INDIGENOUS PEOPLES' PERSPECTIVES ON ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT: EVIDENCE FROM SUBATAN, IRAN

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## ABSTRACT

This paper examines the indigenous peoples' perspectives regarding ecotourism impacts and its development in Subatan village of Lisar (a protected area in Talesh County) in Gilan Province situated on the northeastern Iran. Beautiful nature is the major attraction in Subatan. Although there has been an increase in visitation in recent years, Subatan is still in the early stages of ecotourism development. The objectives of this study are 1) identify ecotourism impacts on quality of life of residents in Subatan, 2) find the relationships between demographic variables and ecotourism development perspective. It was found that "more benefits for ecotourism enterprises" was the main economic impact of ecotourism from residents' perspective. Concerning environmental and social impacts, based on the results of this study, indigenous people pointed two main impacts of ecotourism including "encourage the residents to protect the environment" and "Subatan become famous". The paper also examined residents' perspective on ecotourism development. There is no relationships between resident perspectives who drive direct economic benefits and who do not on the subject of ecotourism development. Finally, the paper presents the conclusion.

**Keywords:** ecotourism, ecotourism impacts, indigenous people's perspective

## INTRODUCTION

Ecotourism has become a critical part of tourism debates since the 1980s. According to Yoko (2006, p. 397), "in the 1980s, eco-tourism emerged as a solution to the global search for alternative tourism." Beaumont (1998) explained this phenomenon from historical perspective. He stated that ecotourism is not new phenomenon to Western society. It has been backed to the 18<sup>th</sup> century but by another name. He believed that the early geographers who toured the globe to explore new lands, species and culture were ecotourists. He also pointed to the establishment of National Parks such as Yellowstone in the US in 1872 and Bariff in Canada in 1885 which is more evidence of the early attention in nature tourism. As well, African wildlife safaris and Himalayan treks in the 1960s and 1970s were also part of this tendency. Accordingly, as shown in the literature, the ecotourism debate in Western society has attracted the attention of researchers and academics since the 1980s.

Notably, studies have shown that it has recognized as a solution for economic problems in less developed countries since the 1990s. In this regard, scholars emphasized the contribution of ecotourism in economic development by providing employment for local residents, generating revenues and the like. Early research into its impacts has particularly focused on the economic benefits that it brings to destinations (Preece & Van Oosterzee, 1995; Richardson, 1993). Afterwards economic benefits, coupled with negative sociocultural and environmental impacts of ecotourism has led to many studies for its development. Consequently, academic community has drawn greater attention to sociocultural as well as environmental impacts



of ecotourism on host community (Lepp, 2007; Wallace & Pierce, 1996; Zambrano et al., 2010).

A central principle of ecotourism that consistently appear in the literature is its consideration for local people. As well, the existing literature emphasizes that its economic, sociocultural and environmental impacts have an imperative influence on local residents' perspective particularly on the subject of its development. The adoption of this thought has resulted in a stream of the literature focusing on host community's perspective regarding ecotourism impacts. Despite these documented impacts (Kayat, 2002; Liew-Tsonis, 2010; Ramsr, 2007), less has been said about the host community' perspective about ecotourism impacts and its development in the less developed countries.

As a matter of fact, it is suggested that the assessment of ecotourism impacts and its development is complex dependent on different circumstances and characteristics of host residents in various destinations. The focus of this study is to examine indigenous' perspectives concerning ecotourism impacts and its development in Subatan. First, the paper presented a brief review of literature regarding ecotourism and its impacts. Subsequently, it outlined research method, findings and ends with conclusion.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Weaver (2005), the term "ecotourism" was first used by Romeril in the English-language academic literature in 1985. Fennell stated (2001, p. 404) that Ceballos – Las curain (1983) described ecotourism as "traveling to relatively undistributed or uncontaminated areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in the areas". From a comprehensive perspective, with regard to responsibility, Page and Dowling (2002, p. 56) quote Hetizer (1965) pointed four fundamental principles for responsible travel, including minimum environmental impact; minimum impact on-and maximum respect for-host cultures; maximum economic benefits to the host country's grass roots; and maximum "recreational" satisfaction to participating tourists. Although, the discussion on ecotourism definition started in 1980s, but it has continued to the present time. Reviewing literature shows that "conservation", "impacts of ecotourism", and "local residents" have been the main issues have been influential in framing a variety of definitions.

Recently, D'Angelo *et al.* (2010, p. 6) emphasized the importance of "locally oriented" in their definition of ecotourism. They described it "as a form of natural resource-based tourism that is educational, low-impact, non-consumptive, and locally oriented: local people must control the industry and receive the bulk of the benefits to ensure sustainable development". Liew-Tsonis (2010) believes that the perception of the idea of ecotourism sometimes varies from country to country depending on its economic impact on host community as well as environmental conservation.

Based on a thorough review of the literature, it is revealed that ecotourism impacts on host community have studied from various perspectives. According to Weaver (2005), it is underlined that the economic, social and environmental aspects of ecotourism are generally grounded toward environmental conservation and "benefits for local communities". Wang and Tong (2012, p. 39) presented a considerable notion saying that "ecotourism pays much attention to the economic development of tourism destinations and the improvement of the living standard of local residents; the income of ecotourism should not only be used to protect the ecological environment but also benefit the local residents". Hussin (2006) argued that for many rural communities, ecotourism is realized as a potential economic prospect since it provides local employment, skill development, and economic opportunity enhancement. He believes that ecotourism also provides the ground to secure better control over natural heritage utilization in their areas. As mentioned earlier, studies have revealed that ecotourism is recognized as a key for economic problems in less developed countries since the 1990s. From Stronza and Gordillo's perspective (2008, p. 448), "ecotourism can be an incentive for conservation, especially when it triggers positive economic change. Yet, it introduces many changes to communities: positive and negative, social and economic".

In line with the positive impacts, it is believed that increasing 'income' and 'employment' can be regarded as key socioeconomic issues of ecotourism on the region. It has been criticized from various perspectives. Barrett et al. (2001, p. 500) argue that increased income, mainly when poorly linked with conservation aims and backed by weak or no enforcement, "simply fosters more rapid resource extraction". Recently, Yang et al. (2012, p. 4) stressed that economic benefits is argued as a critical issue of conflict since it may not be distributed evenly across different groups in tourism destinations. In this sense, they pointed to the recent stud-

ies in China “where structural capital is developed as a consequence of compulsory purchases land by governmental bodies who on-sell to private corporations that effectively deny the original farmers access to land, yet who have inadequate compensation.”

Concerning nature areas, Stronza and Gordillo (2008, p. 451) argued that “ecotourism may alter local economies, but it probably stops short of truly changing fundamental social and cultural patterns of resource use. Without such shifts, the logic holds, people are likely to revert to their old ways when the cash flow ends and financial incentives disappear.” Using a broad view, Sharma (2000, p. 185) asserted that “ideally ecotourism should be beneficial for everyone involved – tour operators receive profits; governments receive tax revenues and foreign exchange, visitors enjoy their experience and local residents receive jobs and increased income from visitor spending”.

Accordingly, it might be stressed that economic benefits are the gains that ecotourism brings in the form of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), income and the increasing number of jobs to local, regional and national economy. Notably, ecotourism is regarded as an important source of foreign exchange, especially since remote/protected areas tend to attract foreigners.

Besides economic benefits, studies have revealed that ecotourism is a sound strategy for developing positive social issues. For example, host community can benefit from tourism as a driver for local facilities improvement. It is important to note that the social impacts of ecotourism are not always considered as positive, some studies focus on negative issues. Based on earlier studies, Monterrubio et al. (2012) highlighted the main positive impacts such as increasing community pride, standards of living, recreational facilities, and negative social impacts such as traffic congestion, increasing price for goods and services. On the subject of ecotourism, Hussin (2006) stated that the sociocultural impacts of ecotourism is “people impacts”, because of the effect of ecotourists on local communities and the interaction between them. Accordingly, it can be said that the sociocultural differences between local and visitors, particularly foreigners, might be provided the ground for conflicts and negative impacts.

According to WTO (2004, p.58), assessing sociocultural benefits to communities can be very hard since “there may be beneficial synergies or inverse relationships amongst the three impacts area and differing opinions amongst several community groups and individuals as to what constitutes a benefit and what is negative for community”.

Concerning environmental impacts, Honey (1999) and Buckley (2001) are cited in Donohe and Needham (2008, p. 36) in confirming that “the reality for ecotourism is such that it is also linked in a cause and effect relationship with the environment”. Berle (1990) argued that although ecotourism can provide foreign exchange and economic incentives for the preservation of natural areas, it can also damage the resources on which it depends. He pointed to increasing evidence that threatens the viability of natural systems such as tour boats put rubbish in the waters off Antarctica, shutterbugs annoy wildlife in National Parks etc. Mbaiwa (2003) found that regardless of its positive socioeconomic impacts, tourism industry is beginning to have harmful environmental impacts in the area such as the devastation of the area’s ecology through driving outside the prescribed trails, noise pollution, and poor waste administration. From another perspective, Hernandez et al. (2008, p. 189) state that “beyond its potential as a driver for economic development, many people are convinced that ecotourism is a sound strategy for conserving natural areas.” A similar view is expressed by Kiper et al. (2011, p. 4010) who underline that “ecotourism is an important instrument used for contribution to preservation of the natural landscape and offers a solution to the poverty problem commonplace in underdeveloped regions”. In Higham’s view (2007), ecotourism can be lauded, essentially, as a sound effort to protect the natural world. From a positive perspective, Butcher (2006, p. 539) claimed that “encouraging ecotourism may provide an incentive for communities to engage in activities deemed more sustainable, based more closely on conservation of natural capital”. As revealed in earlier studies (Duchesne et al, 2000), Weaver (2005) state that direct and indirect human activities that interfere with ecological process is critical. These insights have recently concentrated in ecotourism research, indicating that a comprehensive perspective of destination management is necessary in order to involve local communities to reduce negative impacts of ecotourism as well as increase protection of natural areas.

In this regard, the link between local community and ecotourism has drawn broad consideration of academic community as well as various stakeholders, including destination managers, policy makers, and professionals. Studies have shown that host community, tourism, and sustainable development are closely linked. Recently, Lee (2012) in his investigation regarding the assessment of residents support for sustainable tourism, in Cigu Wetland in Taiwan, concluded that the benefits

perceived by host residents change the relationship between community attachment and support for sustainable tourism development and between community involvement and support for sustainable tourism development.

In view of this significant relationship, an growing number of researchers emphasized that on the subject of local community development and conservation great care should be taken to understand ecotourism impacts through tourism management (Harrill and Potts, 2003; Altun et al., 2007). Based on the notion that tourism is known as a tool for community development, Oliveira and Silva (2010, p. 555) underlined the critical issue stressing that “in any case, there must be a clear understanding about the relationship that must be established between local communities and conservation and how it can be improved through ecotourism”. Honggang et al. (2009, p. 3) state that “communities use tourism as a development tool and tourism activities rely very much on communities” often referred to as village tourism, rural tourism, ecotourism and the like. Concerning ecotourism and host community relationship, Coria and Calfucura (2012, p. 47) stress that “a large part of the literature analyzing the links between biodiversity conservation and community development assumes that nature-based tourism managed by indigenous communities will result not only in conservation of natural resources but also in increased development”.

To highlight the key role of local communities in tourism development, Kiper et al. (2011, p. 4010) point out that “since local people would be the group that would affect and would be affected mostly by ecotourism, provision of their power and participation would be crucial”. In recent years, research documenting residents’ perceptions on tourism development is well documented (Iraqi, 2007; Gu and Ryan, 2008; Jackson, 2008). However, to date research examining residents’ perception regarding ecotourism development in natural areas has been limited. Notably, according to Aref (2010), most perception studies have been performed in the West.

Jurowski et al.’s study (1997, p. 8) have demonstrated that “the perception of tourism’s impact is a result of assessing benefits and costs and that this evaluation is clearly influenced by that which residents value”. Most, if not all, the studies have confirmed that residents’ perception is affected by the level of costs and benefits tourism provides (Lankford et al., 2003). If residents accept as true that the benefits of tourism go beyond its potential cost, they will support tourism development (Ju-

rowski and Gursoy, 2004) and if they feel that the exchange of cost and benefit is perceived as fair, they are willing to accept tourism related inconvenience such as pollution, traffic congestion (Jackson, 2008). Although different investigations in destinations with dissimilar situations presented special results, several evidences of earlier studies have also confirmed that if residents perceive benefits more than cost from tourism, they will support and in favor of tourism (Perdue et al., 1990; Thomason et al., 1979)

In 2002, Kayat outlined the Jurowski et al.’s study by saying that the residents feeling and thoughts were determined by their assessment of the impacts of tourism, which was in turn affected by their values. For example, residents who were more ecocentric evaluated tourism critically as they perceived that tourism have an effect on the physical environment negatively. Kayat criticized Jourowski et al. (2002, p. 172) paradigm by proposing that “the frame work needs to take into consideration the character of the relationship between exchange partners”. The adaption of this critique has resulted in a stream of the literature focusing on host community’ perception regarding tourism development. The literature present different notions regarding local communities’ attitude toward tourism development that are dependent with their perception of tourism impacts.

In reviewing, the main themes identified during the period from 1989-1994, Eccles and Costa (1996) pointed to the ‘perception of tourism by host communities’ as one of the main themes. Special emphasis is placed on the understanding the critical link between tourism development and residents’ perception. It is important to note that debate on the subject of indigenous peoples’ perspectives on ecotourism development is ongoing.

## RESEARCH METHOD

A quantitative method was used to collect data for this study. The primary data was collected using a questionnaire including open-ended, close-ended, and matrix questions for the purpose of evaluating indigenous peoples’ perspectives regarding ecotourism impacts and its development. Data were collected at Subatan village commenced 20 April 2013 and finished 30 April 2013.

In order to capture quantitative information about resident’s assessments of ecotourism impacts, and their perspective on ecotourism development 5-point Likert scales, (ranging from 1 =strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) were

used. Likert scales were selected since they are easy to answer and take less time (Churchill, 1995; Frazer & Lawley, 2000). In the first part, residents were asked about their assessment of ecotourism impacts including economic (6 items), social (16 items) and environmental (9 items) impacts. In second part, respondents were asked about their perspectives on ecotourism development (10 items). The third part contained open-ended questions about residents' view of ecotourist types and their activities.

The final part asked demographic questions including gender, age, marital status, educational level, number of years lived in Subatan and occupation. Participants were also asked to indicate that whether they drive direct economic benefit from ecotourism or not. In case, they drive direct economic benefit, they were asked what type of activities their business offers. The questionnaire also contained a cover letter, and short directions on how to fill the questionnaire. The pilot survey was conducted at Talesh County in Lisar. Based on a pre-test process, it was concluded that the survey instrument was clear, appropriate, relevant and understood by the participants. However, some questions had been rewritten for completeness.

The type of sample used in this study was a "systematic sampling". According to Neuman, (2006, p. 230) "systematic sampling is simple random sampling with a shortcut for random selection...[ he argued that] instead of using a list of random numbers, a researcher calculates a sample interval, and the interval becomes his or her quasi-random selection method".

Systematic sampling with a random starting point chose households in Subatan village. A total of three research assistants were employed. They were chosen from the indigenous people of Lisar carefully. The researcher trained them with the questionnaire. The team of research assistants administered 231 questionnaires to local residents. Primary data collected from survey questionnaire were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.

## RESEARCH FINDINGS

Demographic characteristics of the indigenous people were investigated concerning their gender, age, marital status, education, years of living in subatan, occupation, and economic benefits. The table socio demographic profile of the respondents is showed in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Demographic Profiles of Respondents

VARIABLE	VALID PERCENT
<b>GENDER</b>	
Female	26.0
Male	74.0
<b>AGE</b>	
<20	9.7
21 - 30	30.5
31 - 40	23.0
41 - 50	20.8
51- 60	14.2
Over 60 years	1.8
<b>MARITAL STATUS</b>	
Single	31.0
Married	69.0
<b>EDUCATION</b>	
Below high School	21.5
High School	20.2
Diploma	28.3
Bachelor	26.9
Master	3.1
<b>YEARS OF LIVING IN SUBATAN</b>	
<20 years	8.1
20-29	32.0
30-39	23.0
40-49	22.1
50 years and more	14.9
<b>OCCUPATION</b>	
Government officer	11.5
Self-employed	41.6
Unemployed	15.9
Retired	2.7
Housewife/Home maker	16.4
Other	11.9
<b>RESPONDENTS ECONOMIC BENEFITS</b>	
No	74.3
Yes	25.7

To investigate which ecotourism impacts contribute the most or least to indigenous peoples' perspectives, respondents were asked to indicate their viewpoints with each of the ecotourism impacts in Subatan. Table 2 reports the ranking of mean values (M) of ecotourism impacts. Regarding economic impacts, 'generate benefits for ecotourism enterprises' was ranked the highest among economic impacts (M= 3.32), followed by 'improve lo-

cal household income level' (M= 3.30), While 'increase the price of goods & services' was ranked the lowest among economic impacts.

As well, respondents were asked to provide answers on each items to measure social impacts of ecotourism. Based on mean scores of each item, it was found that 'Subatan image as an ecotourism destination improves due to tourism' was ranked the highest among social impacts ( M= 3.53), followed by 'ecotourism provides opportunities for local people to meet visitors' ( M= 3.45). While

'tourists do not respect local laws and lifestyle' was ranked the lowest among social impacts of ecotourism in Subatan.

Concerning environmental impact, the results showed that 'encourage residents to protect environment' was ranked the highest (M= 3.13), followed by 'encourage local government to consider conservation program (M= 3.06). 'Harming wild animals' was ranked the lowest among the environmental impacts of ecotourism from indigenous peoples' perspective in Subatan.

**Table 2.** Ecotourism Impacts

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM</b>		
Improve local household income level	3.30	.699
Create job opportunities	3.15	.852
Encourage new investment in the region	2.95	1.062
Rise standard of living of the Local Community	2.82	1.001
Generate benefits for Ecotourism Enterprises	3.32	.819
Increase the price of goods & services	2.58	1.112
<b>SOCIAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM</b>		
Roads are improved due to tourism	2.68	1.179
Recreational facilities are developed due to tourism	2.90	.973
Electrical system are improved due to tourism	2.47	1.008
Communication services improve due to tourism	2.32	1.227
Clean water supply improves due to tourism	2.74	.955
Clinics increase in number due to tourism	2.48	1.079
Socio-economic problems decrease due to tourism	2.25	1.117
Disrupt peace and tranquility of local community	1.76	1.099
Increasing Crime and Delinquent Behavior	1.77	1.144
Tourists negatively change local peoples' behavior	1.63	1.219
Demolishing Local Culture and Tradition Gradually	1.49	1.157
Tourists do not respect local laws and lifestyle	1.35	1.151
Tourists negatively influence social life	1.37	1.031
The Subatan image as an ecotourism destination improves due to tourism	3.53	.773
Ecotourism provides opportunities for local people to meet visitors	3.45	.695
Local communities' pride increases due to tourism	3.41	.807
<b>ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM</b>		
Damaging Environment	2.04	1.278
Making the Area Overcrowded	2.48	1.191
Harming Wild Animals	1.90	1.226
Increasing Noise Pollution	2.31	1.182
Camping causes Environmental Difficulties	2.46	1.151
Rising Environmental Pollution	2.27	1.141
Threatening Sustainability of Wild Life	2.03	1.212
Encourage Local Government to Consider Conservation Program	3.06	.998
Encourage Residents to Protect Environment	3.13	.852

Note: Measurement Scale, 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree

Table 3 showed the details of the measurement of the residents' perspective regarding ecotourism development. The results indicated that highest mean ( $M= 3.49$ ) related to “see more ecotourists

visiting Subatan” followed by “supporting ecotourism development in Subatan”. While “Subatan would be a better location if ecotourists are kept out” was ranked the lowest among the statements.

**Table 3.** Residents' Perspective on Ecotourism Development

Statements	Mean	Std. Deviation
I support increased ecotourism development in Subatan	3.35	.789
I would like to see more ecotourists visiting Subatan	3.49	.747
Ecotourism development improves standard of living for local people	2.89	.925
Ecotourism development support sustainability	2.96	.938
I worry about future ecotourism development in Subatan	1.82	1.153
Subatan would be a better location if ecotourists are kept out	.83	.973
Ecotourism development in Subatan disrupts everyday life of the local population	1.27	.994
Ecotourism development leads to conflicts between residents and tourists	1.41	1.063
Economic benefits of ecotourism development are more important than our cultural traditions	1.02	1.242
Economic benefits of ecotourism development are more important than our religious beliefs and traditions	.81	1.079

Note: Measurement Scale, 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree

Table 4 presents the relationship between residents' perspective who drive direct economic benefit from ecotourism and those who do not, on the subject of ecotourism development. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances ( $\text{sig} = .002$ ) indicated that variances are not equal. Thus, the second row sig

(.050) in the column of t-test for equality of means is considered. As  $\text{sig} > 0.05$ , it can be declared that there is no relationship between residents who drive direct economic benefits from ecotourism and those who do not regarding on ecotourism development.

**Table 4.** Perspective of Residents who Drive Direct Economic Benefits and who do not

		Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Y	Equal variances assumed	9.825	.002	1.61	222	.110	.08835	.05501	-.02007	.19676
	Equal variances not assumed			1.98	152	.050	.08835	.04468	.00008	.17661

## CONCLUSIONS

The measurement of economic, social and environmental impacts of ecotourism from indigenous peoples' perspective is a crucial issue in ecotourism development. However, the measurement of residents' viewpoint is complex due to the various characteristics of ecotourism destinations. This study attempted to evaluate indigenous people's perception concerning ecotourism impacts and their perspectives regarding its development. The results of this study indicated that 'generate benefits for ecotourism enterprises', 'the Subatan image as an ecotourism destination improves due to tourism', and 'encourage residents to protect environment' were the main ecotourism impacts from residents' perspective. Regarding ecotourism development, several issues are of importance: residents would like to see more ecotourists visit Subatan and they claimed that they support ecotourism development in Subatan. As well, it has found that there is no difference between residents' perspective who drive economic benefits and who do not on the subject of ecotourism development. Base on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that from residents' perspective ecotourism has the potential to act as a tool for development in Subatan.

Review of several studies (Lee, 2012, Perdue et al, 1990) emphasized that local community's support is critical for ecotourism development. Although the results of this study showed that the indigenous people support ecotourism development, but it should be considered that ecotourism is an early stage in Subatan. Hence, economic benefits might be influenced their perspectives. According to Kiper et al. (2011, p. 4019), "in order to provide sustainability in the ecotourism, it is necessary to know environmental, social and economical effects of ecotourism activities and to consider these effects during the planning." Consequently, assessing residents' perspectives regarding ecotourism impacts is one of the key issues for its development but it should be evaluated from other perspectives such as destination managers and policy makers.

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# INVOLVING COMMUNITIES IN RURAL TOURISM: A “WIN-WIN-WIN PAPAKONSTANTINIDIS MODEL” METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

## CASE STUDIES: WOMEN RURAL TOURISM COOPERATIVES:

A) GARGALIANI, PELOPONNESUS AREA (SOUTH-WEST GR)

B) WERT (WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN RURAL TOURISM) EU PROGRAM :  
WIN – WIN –WIN PAPAKONSTANTINIDIS MODEL’ AS A RECOGNIZED (IN EUROPEAN- WERT NET- LEVEL) RURAL TOURISM METHODOLOGICAL TOOL

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## ABSTRACT

The aim of this presentation is both to examine whether community participation in sustainable rural tourism promotes the local-rural development or not, and investigate the potential evolutions and research challenges on the rural-local development process, by using the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” methodological approach: It is a “triple pole” continuous local bargaining approach, concerning “the real assets of a region” : The real assets of a region are the actors, the entrepreneurs, the politicians, the work force, organizations and institutions, their material and financial resources and the specific regional culture of co-operation communication and competition. This model has been specified by the “Spais- Papakonstantinidis -Papakonstantinidis model, applied in the field of marketing. The main hypothesis, in this presentation is that development may be sighted as the output of the bargaining trends, inside the community. From this point of view, Local Development as a local management process tables a number of questions, mainly concerned on conflict resolution between the 3 power local poles, i.e (a) local people and their local movements/lobbies, addressed to the rural tourism and other local activities, mainly as tourism services providers (b) Local Authorities

and (c) tourism services consumers. As the 3 poles are in a constant negotiations, then each of them should prevailed over the other 2, thus introducing in the bargaining problem, as Nash and alle have described. Bargaining behavior must therefore be defined. The suggested “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model conceptualization (coming from Nash win-win extended approach) tries to find ways for the 3-poles bargaining conceptual equilibria, under conditions, thus maximizing expected utilities for all the involved parts in local decision making. In a practical level, investigating the potential evolutions and research challenges of this topic, it should be supported that, public involvement -in terms of “knowledge creation” and “pure individual strategies”, concerned with Rural Tourism-Rural Development is conducted. Involving local people in the development process round a local “Flag Theme” is therefore necessary. In particular this presentation focuses on the sensitization process as the reaction to given information, which influences the socio-economic behaviour in the local bargain. Therefore “public participation” is the key-point. Public participation presupposes that a methodological approach could be applied in the rural area, by easy steps towards motivating local people and involving the Community. This methodological approach includes 5 steps, i.e information, sensitiza-

tion, participation, involvement and partnership, in its main version, based on the “bottom-up” approach, the local “team-psychology” creation and the local people motivation, towards developing their place: a “new” behavior local standard may be resulted, such as each of the three rural tourism parts (local **P**eople, local **A**uthorities and tourism services **C**onsumers (**P.A.C**) ) to win according to the win-win-win papakonstantinidis model. At last, 2 successful case-studies concerned rural – community development due to rural tourism based on the win-win-win methodological process, are been analyzed in this presentation thus justified the above theoretical view

**Keywords:** Sustainability, Local Development, Rural Tourism, triple-pole Bargain, Mixed Strategies Sensitization, participation, public involvement, flag theme, behaviour information, win-win-win papakonstantinidis model, local authorities, providers-consumers the tourism services

## INTRODUCTION

Over the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, we have seen the continuous transformation of the world's population from rural to urban (Kenneth Wilkinson, 1991, Ramonet Ignacio, 2000) and this change is likely to continue in decades during the 21<sup>st</sup> century, directly combined with the “sustainability” of development. Besides, over the last years (since 2000) the concept of “sustainable tourism development” has become universally (Lesley Roberts Derek Hall 2001) It has been accepted as a politically appropriate approach to, and goal of, tourism and local development. Rural Tourism is a global tourism and –at the same time, a profitable rural development activity, particularly in EU rural space. Rural tourism has achieved global endorsement, in sectoral and integrated local development (Papakonstantinidis, 2004) It is the “bridge” between local and international level. Strategic Planning, concerned cities and local communities must take into consideration the trends of urbanization, changes in employment, immigration trends, (Ankerl Guy 2000), the standards of production and marketing (Kafkalas, G.2000), The new data have changed the development concept: Market globalization and the “New Economic Geography” created a new field approach to spatial and economic development (Masahisa Fujita & Paul Krugman, 2003). It is also influences the socioeconomic behavior locally, as the output of dynamical trends that develop the local space in a free market environment

(Papakonstantinidis, 2005) So, market analysis (duopoly- triopoly in its main expression) is considered, along with the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis Model”

## MAIN QUESTIONS

The continuous conflict between the three (**3**) main bargaining power poles at the local level i.e local **P**eople (and their interests lobbies), local **A**uthorities and the **C**onsumers of tourism services shapes the landscape of its management and operation. This conflict landscape is directly correlated with the development dynamical trends coming especially from the rapid rate of world urbanization: Market forces based on **I**ntant **R**eflection **I**ndividual **M**ixed **S**trategies (**IRIMS**) between the three power poles i.e Local **P**eople, Local **A**uthorities and tourism services' **C**onsumers ( **P. A. C.**) **shape the local space unity** by a continuous dynamic evolution. This evolution positively influences the community development towards its spatial integration, during the process of community tourism at the local level. Given the above:

- a) May the rural development be viewed as the result of a continuous conflict among local power poles' (people, authorities, organizations, regions) for the domination over the rural tourism activity? How, local interests -which converging in a local goal- should be achieved by the same market rules?
- b) Is the 3ple PAC involvement, able to create equilibrium point in a payoffs matrix coming from “best responses”, of the three (3) players? How the 3-ple PAC equilibrium is different (if it is) from that of the 2-players game? Is any possibility, the PAC system to produce conflict equilibria in a globalized and competitive world? In which probability ensuring the max profit for each of them [“Pareto efficiency”] so that none of the PAC members have any interest to change his/her strategy, without losses for him/herself and for the others?
- c) Could, a 3-ple pole system influence the world economic and social system?
- d) Is any possibility, the behavior of bargainers locally be changed, as the result of rural development process' spillover feedback? Should, a 3-ple pole system influence the world economic and social system?
- e) Is any possibility, bargainers behavior locally be changed, as the result of rural development process' spillover feedback?

## THE CONCEPT

**Three** points, consists the presentation: (a) the **market**, (b) human **behavior** and (c) the **game** as a field of human behavior, in and during the bargain (risk, gene fighter, risk aversion) introducing a **triangular perspective** that characterizes the presentation: LEADER EU Initiative, as well as the Local Action Group's Philosophy have been based on this idea

The basic idea is very simple: Suppose there are only, three (**3**) people around the planet where everyone is trying to optimize his/her personal situation, in a continuous bargain with other 2, (competitors) by using the instrumental rationality as a "tool of mind" Each of the 3 is quite indifferent for the other two situation, or feelings. In that case, it should be proved that the **best response for each of them is to call the other 2 in the pure and absolute cooperation** for their own survival. The "prize" of each of their Mixed Individual Strategies (decisions) is his/her survival (as a total): You can imagine-now- the local community survival as the result of the cooperation among 3ple local power poles (PAC) towards a common goal (Community Survival in a globalized world) The European "tool" for this, is the L.E.A.D.E.R EU Initiative (since 1991) From this point of view it is assumed that **each of the PAC members** is "**Buyer**" and "**Seller**" of the same need (survival) of the others simultaneously Based on this simple concept, the 3pole (**People Authorities, Consumers**) active behavior produces outcomes ensuring that the **PAC** equilibrium may exist thus promoting the collective PAC choice( Amartya Sen 1984) , through cooperation, despite the existence of the "Impossibility Theorem" (Arrow, K.J., 1950) Taking this idea into consideration, we may say that the role of the suggested "win-win-win papakonstantinidis model" is the integration of the (PAC)'s multi-fold system, in its development perspective So "PAC equilibrium" is the key-point of my presentation, as it meets all the community development conditions : This triangular layout defines the necessity of the "sensitization process", which is introduced as the "integrated information" in the local development process Besides, it is argued that local involvement in the development process is going through constant sensitization of the local population: The Sensitization could be taught as "added information" (Papakonstantinidis L.A 2004) From this point, the "behavior side" is considered

## STRUCTURE OF THE PRESENTATION

Starting from the assumptions, about market and behavior in and during the rural tourism negotiations there are four (4) at least, main aspects as well as their synthesis in the win-win-win papakonstantinidis model to discuss with:

1. The examination of possible links among market - behavior - local development (triangular layout) including the **PAC 3-ple pole** Cournot-Nash equilibrium (by Harsanyi refinement) and PAC expectations which reflect the probability distribution
2. The interactive PAC members bargaining behavior, in and during the "community rural tourism" process
3. Interactive Relation between knowledge and behavior in the bargain
4. The L.E.A.D.E.R EU Initiatives Philosophy as it had been suggested by the "Green Team" EU Commission DX VI(of which I was member at that period)
5. Case studies: (1) Women Cooperatives on Rural Tourism in Gargaliani (West-South Peloponnese) and (2) rural tourism women entrepreneurs (European WERT) on which win-win-win papakonstantinidis model has been applied

## ASSUMPTIONS

### DEVELOPMENT-MARKET ASSUMPTIONS

1. Community development depends mainly on endogenous forces' participation (public involvement) in the development process (E Brugger 1986)
2. Rural Tourism Plan in Rural Community is the output of public involvement around a Flag Theme (Thirion S- INDE 2000) which motivates its endogenous forces
3. Policy planning has been structured on the trigonal layout "market-behavior-knowledge" (Fischer Manfred M. 2006 and Papakonstantinidis L.A 2004)
4. Market and behavior are set by the 3 "local development actors- (3 local power poles, i.e (local) People, (local) Authorities and the Consumers (of tourism services) – PAC)Market-behavior system depends on interactive relations among 3 local power's poles (**PAC**), in the frame of bargaining best response (Spais G and Papakonstantinidis 2011)

5. The domination effort of one over the others in a continuous conflict among them, has the profit maximization, as basic incentive (Spais G 2012 April)
6. Each of them (PAC) is “Buyer” and “Seller” of the same need (tourism) on the others, simultaneously Each side, seeks to maximize its profit (different view)
7. Oligopoly (Duopoly-Triopoly) is considered as a “simultaneous game” of best responses concerning the rural local tourism, due to the owners possibility offering differentiated services (Cournot Aug. 1838/1897) Payoffs Utility function's prices (by its probabilities) are used to define the Nash Equilibrium (NE) and the Harsanyi Refinement (**Harsanyi, J. 1967**)
8. Triopoly equilibrium, is assumed as the intersection point of “best responses” in 3D space
9. The contradiction between the utility of individual and welfare economics, is given but not definitive (Sen A, 1984 vs Arrow K, 1950)
10. Market forces are assumed to be based on instant Reflection Individual (mixed) strategies among the three (PAC) members (Nash J, F, 1950)
11. Equilibrium is achieved on that point, on which **none of the PAC members has anything to gain by changing only his own strategy unilaterally (Nash, J.F, 1950)**

## BEHAVIOR'S ASSUMPTIONS

1. Development (especially, local development) may be considered as the output of the behavioral trends in the bargain (any bargain) (Papakonstantinidis, 2007)
2. Public involvement in the local development process is achieved by five (5) easy stages (steps), i.e information, sensitization, participation, involvement and partnership, in its main version (Arnstein Sh 1969) This process influences the behavior in the bargain
3. There is interaction between behavior and bargain. There is no bargain without behavior. There is no behavior without bargain (Papakonstantinidis, 2011)
4. Each of the 3 poles behavioral interacts with other within the bargain
5. All individuals are indifferent between any two probability distributions over social states -Pareto efficiency (Pareto V, 1916 & Stiglitz Joseph E, 1987)
6. Conversion of a given behavior could be realized by using the same conflict rules that push the PAC members in converging their behavior

(Reynolds Cr.1999). In fact, it is a NEW local sensitized behavior to absolute cooperation

7. Conditions of Conflict behavior are developed in the frame of the “Instrumental Rationality” in a environment of Common Knowledge of Rationality
8. “Sensitization” as a form of knowledge/information should be taught, thus influencing the PAC 3-ple power poles (Papakonstantinidis, 1996, 1999, 2002, 04,
9. Behavioral analysis should be broached in close correlation with the suggested “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” and its usefulness in respect to local communities’ management and development (Herbert Simon 1955),

## METHODOLOGY FOLLOWED

Public involvement in the community development is an old success story in planning the development process Rural tourism, as a local initiative and as a tool for rural community development, is also given, since 80s At the same time, techniques as the “bottom-up approach” (Wilkinson Kenneth, 1991, Stochr W and Taylor R. 1981) the encourage the community’s endogenous force”(Garofoli G Latella F 1989) or motivating local people around a “flag theme”(Thirion S, 2000) locally has contributed in the developmental theoretical view and practice, from 80s. Also, Local Action Group’s (LAG’s operation, (Leader EU Initiative, R 4253/88) have enriched our experience on the rural-local development field This presentation starts from this point: **(i)** I’ve tried to give an alternative interpretation of the “community development through public involvement (basically) in the local action of rural tourism Market analysis (as “best response” interaction’s game), and also the game of behaviour/ knowledge in and during the bargain among the 3 local power poles (the PAC triangular layout) are the pillars on which the 3-win model was based: **(ii)** The 3-win model has been included in the bibliography of social sciences This model also includes the sensitization process as a form of knowledge which is transferred either from tacit or codified and from conceptual to the sensitized knowledge, (see neural nets, Modern Innovation Theory Fischer M.M. 2006) thus producing useful material for planning the development process **(iii)** Next, I’ve tried to compose the literature on market and behaviour research in an integrated overview, on the “Community Development-Public Involvement- Rural Tourism” complex synthe-

sis, in order to produce conclusions, comparing them with the old problem of “welfare economics” and the “Impossibility Theorem” (Kenneth Arrow, 1950) **(iv)** Besides, an extension of the development process, based on market-behaviour dipole is presented, in order to interpret local space creation (Papakonstantinidis L 2005) : It is argued by the author that local space may be formulated, by the market forces even if the indeterminacy of the “game” is given **(v)** Finally, I examined 2 case-studies concerned (a) the “**W**omen Rural Tourism Cooperative, in Gargaliani, South-West Greece and (b) the “**W**omen **E**ntrepreneurs for **R**ural Tourism (**WERT**- European Section) providing the Conference with teaching material: In these (2) cases have adopted the “win-win-win P. model” Principles for building their enterprises under a spirit of mutuality, high responsibility and cooperation

## RECENT SCIENTIFIC DISCUSSION

There is no specific bibliography material for my presentation. I sought information from different fields of the literature. A selective view on this literature (by fields) is given below, as for example:

Rural development	Games
Rural Tourism	Behavioral
Market (oligopoly)	Sociology
Duopoly-probabilities	Knowledge -information

### RURAL DEVELOPMENT FIELD

- Arnstein, Sherry R. (1969) «A Ladder of Citizen Participation,» Journal of the American Planning Association- JAIP, Vol. 35, No. 4,
- Friedmann J and Weaver C (1979) “Territory and Function: The Evolution of Regional Planning University of California Press” U.C.L.A Press (U.S) Berkley and Los Angeles California

### RURAL TOURISM MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT

- Papakonstantinidis L.A (2003) “Rural Tourism: “Win-Win-Win” Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Volume 1, issue 2, /2003 pp 49-70, INDIA ISSN 0972-7787 [www.johat.com](http://www.johat.com)
- Kokossis Charis and al. (2002) “Sustainable Rural Tourism” Papazissis Ed, Greece trnsl, p.p 322-325
- Brugger E 1986 ‘Endogenous Development: a concept between utopia and reality’

### GAME

- Nash, J. F. (1950). The bargaining problem. *Econometrica*, 18, 155-162.
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### SOCIOLOGY

- Coleman J (1988) “Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital” *American Journal of Sociology* 94 Supplement 95-S120 Chicago University
- Weber, Max. 1895/1994. “The Nations State and Economic Policy (Freiburg Address)” in *Weber: Political Writings*. ed./trans. P. Lassman and R. Speirs. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

### KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER- MODERN INNOVATION THEORY

- Fischer Manfred M (2006) Knowledge, complexity, and innovation systems *Journal of Geographical Systems* 2006) Edition: Springer-Verlag Berlin and Heidelberg GmbH & Co. KG
- Papakonstantinidis L.A (2004) “Knowledge Creation and the win-win-win model” *Scientific Review of Applied Economics TEIPI Ed*, Jan 2004

## BEHAVIOR SCIENCE FIELD

- Pavlov Ivan P. (1927) *Conditioned Reflexes: An Investigation of the Physiological Activity of the Cerebral Cortex* Translated by G. V. Anrep (1927) Oxford University Press LONDON
- Papakonstantinidis (2012) The win-win-win Papakonstantinidis model -A behavioral analysis in dynamical systems *The Non Instrumental Rationality Paradox Case-study: Hellenic Benefactors ISBEFA (Book of Proceedings) Ke-fallinia GR 2012*

## PART II: ANALYSIS

### RURAL LOCAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural Local Development –based on “sustainable development, environmental protection and social cohesion - which has emerged since the middle of the 1990ies can be characterised as follows:

The real assets (Papageorgiou Fouli, 2003) of a region are the actors, the entrepreneurs, the politicians, the work force, organisations and institutions, their material and financial resources and the specific regional culture of cooperation & communication, The need for rural communities development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agricultural or resource based businesses (Ward, Neil; Brown, David L. 2009). Local development, mainly based on social capital building and social networks, and grassroots movements has been developed in the recent literature.(A. Portes, P. Landolt, 2000).Local and Rural development process must be seen from public involvement side: People themselves have to participate in their sustainable rural development process by easy steps (Arnstein Sh, 1969) Recently, “Local Standard”, a European FatMan Program “Scenarios” [“Aims and objectives of the FutMan scenarios (2015 - 2020) (Pyrgiotis L.2010/ trnsl in Greek) recognizes that .local authorities have gained new powers. Regional governments determine policy priorities and drive regulation. Consumer and citizen groups push their agendas on local and environmental issues. Besides (a) From the development side (Kenneth Wilkinson 1991) focuses on the endogenous local development process/ “bottom-up approach” (bargain, locally) 2<sup>nd</sup>, Friedman/ Weaver – UCLA (1978) in their classic “Territory and Function” focused in the local development as an “ideology” , emphasizing in the endogenous local development (b) From the pure Sociological side ( J. Coleman 1988) as “Social Capital” describes the cooperation processes of individuals, which minimize possible dilemma,

coming from individuals’, networks and common actions. Putnam (2000) describes social capital as the basis of social schemes creation (i. e networks) Emphasis is given to the endogenous force’s (Garofoli G. and Latella F 1989) mainstreaming around a local “flag theme”: Endogenous development (in European, at least territories) is based on local peoples’ own criteria for change (Ó Cinnéide, M, 2004) and their vision for well-being based on the material, social and spiritual aspects of their livelihoods but in a constant and dynamic interface with external actors and the world around them (Wim Hiemstra 2011): In the case of the PAC system operation, endogenous local development is developed through PAC “bargaining relations” On that “frame” conflict conditions may lead in a pure cooperation, around the rural tourism-rural development The more characteristic case of local cooperation, starting from the “market trends” is the **L.E.A.D.E.R** (Liaison Entre Action de Developement de l’ Economies Rurale) Philosophy:

**A) LEADER** EU Initiative, is based on the EU Regulation 4253/88 [executive of Council Regulation 2052/88, Jun 24, 1988, “On the tasks of the Structural Funds and their effectiveness and on coordination of their activities..”] Built on the Local “**Cooperation** philosophy” (Papakonstantinidis,1993) the integrated local action plan, the bottom-up approach endogenous approach, the application of rural innovative ideas, it was a revolution in rural less developed areas of Europe: it brought out positive changes in the european rural community Under the Community’s innovative rural development policy, rural areas have embarked on a debate on their socio-economic role and are making structural adjustments in order to meet these important challenges effectively (EU Legislation) to encourage the development of new activities and sources of employment. The Community Initiatives Leader I (1991-94) Leader II (1994-99), Leader + also played an experimental role, which has made it possible

Five steps towards Local development (Arnstein, 1969)

				partnership
			Involvement	
		Participation		
	sensitization			
Information				

to define and implement innovative, integrated and participative local schemes; LEADER has been focused on the integrated rural local development goals i.e mobilizing of local actors to take control of the future of their area, decentralized, integrated and bottom-up approach to territorial development, the exchange and transfer of experience through the creation of networks; the ability to include small-scale projects and support small-scale promoters (Kokossis Ch. & al. 2002) The local actors implement the original strategy that they themselves have designed, experimenting with new ways of (a) enhancing natural and cultural heritage (b) reinforcing the economic environment in order to create jobs (c) improving the organizational capabilities of their community, through (d) **Local Cooperation and european networks** The final beneficiaries of assistance under LEADER are the **local action groups (LAGs)**. These groups draw up the development strategy for their territory and are responsible for implementing it on the basis of a specific development plan. The **LAGs** create an open local partnership which clearly allocates the powers and responsibilities to the different partners. (EEC Commission, 1993-Jun) They are made up of a balanced and representative selection of partners drawn from the different socio-economic sectors in the local area. The economic and social partners and non-profit (voluntary) associations must make up at least 50% of the local partnership .The members of the **LAGs** must be locally based

## **B) Market Forms that affect rural development through the proposed model**

**Market PAC Relations:** For the needs of the presentation, we have to define the market relation among the PAC parts. **The objective is** to find the market equilibrium point among the **PAC** best responses' intersection in a **3D** space, assuring the maximization of social justice and community welfare: The examination of the win-win-win papakonstantinidis model is starting from this market approach. **The idea is to examine** the local rural tourism market among the **PAC** poles of power locally. It is assumed that economic and non economic relations are developed among the **PAC** members, in and during the tourism activity. It is also assumed that the **PAC** members are both buyers and sellers, each other, as they sell and buy the same or slightly differentiated product (tourism) in the local tourism market Each of

the three of **PAC** “parts” is moved to an opposite direction, according to their position in the **PAC** system **(1)** Local people seek and expect both simultaneously: to maximize their profit, from providing tourist services with a minimum cost, and to benefit from their local authorities (ie less local taxes from tourism activity) **(2)** Local authorities seek and expect to gain the maximum profit from (a) local taxes imposed to owners of accommodation and (b) tourism taxes imposed to tourists at a minimum cost (i.e offering minimum local facilities and **(3)** Tourists expect and seek to maximize their pleasure and relaxation by paying the minimum, both for the accommodation owners and local authorities It is understood that the “price” (real and metaphoric) on 2 cases are the same (or slightly differentiated) and close to marginal cost.

So it is necessary to make a short review on the main “market forms” (perfect competition, oligopoly and its main versions, (duopoly triopoly) “**Market discussion**” is essential for understanding the **PAC system** operation's conditions. **(a) Perfect competition** is an ideal and unrealistic market situation: It is characterized by a numerous players who act independently (not interaction choices) and who have very little bargaining power to affect the bargaining result. Augustin Cournot (1838) gave such an imaginative situation in his

Cournot Theorem ( $P=MR=MC$  or  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} p = c$ )

This situation reflects the Principles of maximizing the social justice (higher production in the lowest price (Stanford Encyclopedia, 2013, T Arrow, K. J. 1959), the maximum potential amount of goods at lower price approaching marginal cost of production (Price = Marginal Cost= Marginal Revenue ( $P=MC=MR$ ) It's characterized as the “absolute market” leading in maximization of social justice and community welfare A more realistic market form is **(b) Oligopoly:** An oligopoly is defined as a market (Samuelson, W & Marks, 2003) which is dominated by a small number of sellers producing the same or homogeneous products Because there are few between them sellers, then each of them is aware or must be aware, of the likely (probability theory) actions of the others The decisions of one player influence and are influenced by the decisions of other players. The oligopolist must consider not only the behaviors of the consumers, but also those of the competitors and their reactions. Strategic Planning by each of the sellers needs to



take into account the likely/probability theory/ responses of the other market participants. The most famous oligopoly (c) “duopoly” known as “Cournot duopoly” model (1838) is based on the 2 competitors’ interaction between them (Cournot 1838) In the case of two competitors i.e (A)=owners” of “tourist accommodations” and (B)= “consumers of rural tourism services”.

The “Cournot Duopoly” is assumed that it concerns only 2 competitors (a) The Providers of the Rural Tourism services and (b) the Consumers of these services Duopoly Competitor (RTDC) which compete each-other through the equivalent “imaginative quantity” (service-money) offered

from and to the 2 competitors In the examined case “Duopoly” concerns only the A-B relations, under the assumptions: ((a) two at least competitors (b) no product differentiation, (c) RTDC do not cooperate,(d) The number of RTDC is fixed (e) RTDCs choose “quantities” at the same time, without former information: there is time absence (f) there is no collusion (g) The 2 (at least) RTDCs are economically rational and act strategically thus seeking to maximize profit given their competitors’ decisions Also, it is assumed that A and B compete on quantities given the equilibrium prices  $p_1 = p_2 = P(q_1 + q_2)$

*Local...People...owners..of..accomm ⇔ Rural..Tourism...Services...Consumers*

**MATH APPROACH** Starting from

The **inverse** demand function:  $P = f(Q)$ ..instead..of.. $Q = f(P)$  we have  $P = a - b(Q_1 + Q_2)$

Each part of duopoly marginal revenue (MR) depends on the output supplied by the other (RTDC) Equilibrium “quantities” must come from **maximization the total Profit (II)** The basic rule of profit maximization says that

$$\Pi = TR - TC = \max \dots \text{then} \dots \Pi' = (TR - TR)' = 0 \Rightarrow MR - MC = c_1 = 0$$

In that point there is **the intersection of MC and MR**  $MR = MC$

•

In a Cartesian system, the **P x Q** rectangle area reflects the total revenue of RTDC<sub>1</sub>

Total Revenue for RTDC<sub>1</sub> is  $PQ_1 - aQ_1 - bQ_1^2 - bQ_1Q_2$

Marginal revenues for RTDC<sub>1</sub>  $MR_1 = a - bQ_2 - 2bQ_1$

•

**But in the equilibrium point must be  $MR = MC$**

Marginal Cost for RTDC<sub>1</sub>  $MC = c_1 = a - bQ_2 - 2bQ_1$

$$MR - MC = a - bQ_1 - 2bQ_2 - [a - bQ_1 - 2bQ_2] = 0 \Rightarrow a - bQ_1 - 2bQ_2 = 0$$

**But**

$$MR = r_1(Q_2)$$

$$MC_1 = MC_2 = c_1 \Rightarrow c_1 - (a - bQ_2 - 2bQ_1) = 0 \Rightarrow c_1 - a + bQ_2 = 2bQ_1$$

$$(c_1 - a - bQ_2) / 2b = Q_1 \Rightarrow Q_1 = (c_1 - a) / 2b - 1/2 Q_2$$

The result of choice of the player (A) depends on the  $Q_1 = r_1(Q_2) = \frac{a-c_1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2}Q_2$ , his own expectation about payoff, as well as his own expectations about the choice of the player B (best response game) These expectations are weighted by the event expectation probability – The same for the player B

In duopoly, where prices what is asked is to find  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  which maximize total profit for both (A,B) : That's the equilibrium point (Nash-Cournot equilibrium)

If the quantities  $q_1, q_2$  represent “mixed” strategies (decisions)  $a_1, a_2$  and if  $b_1, b_2$  the (MRS- marginal rate of substitution or in geometry the slopes of the  $R_1, R_2$ ), then the max profit for A,B is given by the  $a_1 = b_1(a_2) \dots \text{and} \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1)$ .

It is a point where the two firm's best-response functions intersect (see the scheme below):

DUOPOLY: Reactions' ( **$R_1$  and  $R_2$** ) Intersection point ( $q_1, q_2$ ) Cournot equilibrium:

**RTDC**  $_1$  Best response Equilibrium quantity is

Similarly, **RTDC**  $_2$  Best response Equilibrium is  $Q_2 = r_2(Q_1) = \frac{a-c_2}{2b} - \frac{1}{2}Q_1$

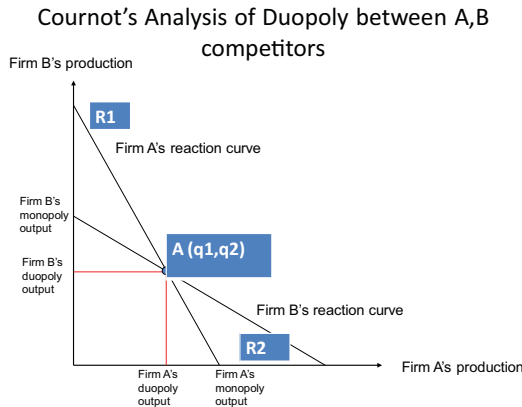
Besides, Cournot has introduced probabilities in his duopoly If the random variable  $X$  follows the binomial distribution with parameters  $n$  and  $p$ , we write  $X \sim \mathbf{B}(n, p)$ . The probability of getting

exactly  $k$  successes in  $n$  trials is given by the probability mass function:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \rightarrow$   
 $f(k; n, p) = \Pr(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

**FINALLY,**

**Generally speaking,** we found the pair  **$(q_1, q_2)$**  of actions with the property that player 1's action is a best response to player 2's action, and player 2's action is a best response to player 1's

action:  $q_1 = b_1(q_2) \dots \text{and} \dots q_2 = b_2(q_1)$



$$a_1 = b_1(a_2) \dots \text{and} \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1).$$



**GAME THEORY**

Game Theory is IN the core of my suggestion: Any kind of life has the interactive behavior as base. Human relations are also considered as a game, excluding feelings Win-win interactive relations are also included in the “Games Theory”. Generally speaking, “a game (Osborne Martin 2002/7/2) is defined as “strategic” if it is recognized as an interactive game among two or more interacting decision-makers (players of the game) Each player has a set of possible actions. The model captures interaction between the players by allowing each player to be affected by the actions of all players, not only his/her own action.(Varoufakis Yianis 2006) Specifically, each player has **preferences** about the action **profile**—the list of all the players’ actions. Preferences are ordinal, not cardinal that means “simple classification of preferences, not numerical mapping” A strategic game with ordinal preferences consists of: (a) a set of players (b) for each player, a set of actions (c) for each player, preferences over the set of action profiles. It is specified that players’ preferences reflect payoff functions that represent them (only in ordinal and not cardinal-numeric form). Time is absent from the model (simultaneous move game) (Myerson 1991). Nash’s 2 wonderful ideas (1950-53): **(i)** unlocked the minimax-maximin game theory stagnation (**Nash: 1951**, Non cooperative games. Annals of Mathematics), **(ii)** Approached the bargaining problem (a “very old problem”, Kuhn- Nassar, 2001) using the game model to the bargain conditions (**Nash 1950**, “The bargaining Problem”,

Econometrica) According to these, the objective of this presentation is to reverse a “conflict game” into a more socialized interaction, by introducing the third “win” in the “win-win game system Rural and Local Development has been proved to be achieved through a more socialized behavior at the local level. This idea-effort comes from a ten years personal experience during the LEADER EU Initiative application’s in Greece

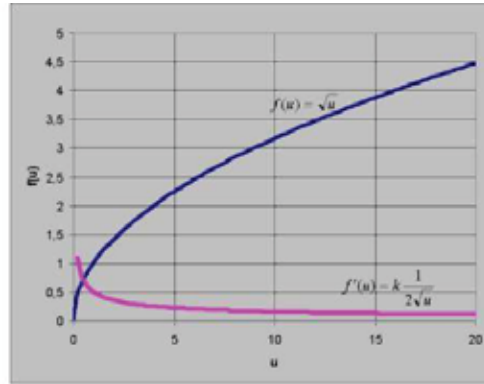
**NASH NON COOPERATIVE GAME THEORY**  
(NASH J.F, 1950, 1951, 1953)

In 1944 J von Neumann and Oscar Morgenstern (Neumann John von-Morgenstern Oscar (1944)2007) -suggested the **interactive** “zero sum two players game” based on “maximin- minimax” strategies towards a potential win-lose payoff function (weighted by its corresponding probability) It is obvious that the “interactive concept” was a “magic idea” such as Cournot introduced a century before (1838), by its famous “duopoly model” The Neumann-Morgenstern “maximin-minimax” was useful for the cold war period (or the war period) and only for this, as it concerned to an absolute situation of winners and losers. Neumann-Morgenstern introduced also the binomial probability distribution corresponding 1-1 to each payoff function: If I choose the “A” strategy I expect the “a” payoff under the “p” probability and so on. The probabilities introduction was necessary to describe the decision making under uncertainty conditions During the **1950-1953** the mathematician **John**

**Forbs Nash** reconsidered the game theory (Non-Cooperative Game Theory, 1953) highlighting the “payoff function”, rather, than the game itself: He focused on mutual profitable win-win situations, instead of prediction on win-lose, minimax-maximin. The solution of games is an equilibrium resulting from the combination of actions or strategic choices of players and subjective expectations (**S x U**) that push them to do these actions, or strategic choices (decisions) For Nash (Nash J,F, 1951) an **n-person** game is a set of n-players or positions each with an associate finite set of pure strategies and corresponding to each player **i** a payoff function **pi** which maps the set of all n-tuples of pure strategies into the real numbers (payoff function is reflected to a “matrix” instead of function prices) -“**n-tuples**” means a set of **n** items, with each item associated with a different player. It is necessary to analyze the Nash “non-cooperative- instant reflection game” /or a “win-win perception” as follow: Non-co-operative game is a game between two (2) players/ individuals who have opposite interests (Aumann, 1987). Each player makes his/her own choices, based on instant reflections’ rational movements, in a Common Knowledge Rationality environment (Nash J.F, 1951) Nash idea converse a win-lose game (von Neumann) into a win-win (Nash), in which **payoffs** are in centre

### UTILITY (PAYOFF) FUNCTION

In the utility theory of the individual, the “concept of anticipation” is the most important. Let’s, “**A**” and “**B**” two anticipations Then, if “**p**” is the property of anticipations, or the probability and  $0 < p < 1$  then, there is an anticipation, which we represent by  $p(A) + (1 - p)B$  which is a combination of the two anticipations. (Kuhun-Nassar, 2001) There is a probability “**p**” for the “**A**” anticipation and a probability “**1 - p**” for the “**B**” anticipation Thus assumptions suffice to show the existence of satisfactory utility function “**u**”, (not unique function) assigning a real number to each anticipation of an individual. (GRAPH)



Papakonstantinidis 2008

### Nash Equilibrium

Nash’s major contribution (Kuhun –Nassar, 2001) is the **concept of equilibrium** for non cooperative games A **Nash Equilibrium (NE)** is a situation in which no player, taking the other players’ strategies as given, can improve his position by choosing an alternative strategy. Nash proved that, for a very broad class of games of any number of players, at least one-1 equilibrium exists as long as mixed strategies are allowed. A mixed strategy is one in which the player does not take one action with certainty but, instead, has a range of actions he might take, each with a positive probability. Alternatively, Nash equilibrium (Kuhn HW- Nasar Sylvia, 2001) **is a solution concept** of a game involving two or more players, in which each player is assumed to know the equilibrium strategies of the other players, **and no player has anything to gain by changing only his own strategy unilaterally** A game may have multiple Nash equilibria or none at all (Aumann, R. J. 1976)- each strategy in a Nash equilibrium is a best response to all other strategies in that equilibrium(von Ahn, L. Von and alle 2006) According to win-win (non Cooperative Game) it must be, at the equilibrium point:

$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} U_{1i}(\&)U_{2i}(\&) = \max U_{1i}U_{2i}$  Where: (&) = winning strategies,  $U_{ji}$  = utilities

$i \rightarrow \infty$

The simple “win-win” math form is:  $(S, f) \ S = S_1XS_2...XS_n$

$f = (f_1(x), f_2(x), \dots, f_n(x)) \ x \in S$ . except for player  $i$ . When each player  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

$x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  then player  $i$  obtains payoff  $f_i(x) \in S$  is a Nash equilibrium (NE) if unilateral deviation in strategy by any single player is profitable for that player, that

$\forall_i, x_i \in S_i, x_i \neq x_i^* : f_i(x_i^*, x_{-i}^*) \geq f_i(x_i, x_{-i}^*)$  to satisfy the Pareto criterion:

$\max U(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  subject to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i \leq M \text{ under the constrain } x_i \geq 0 \quad \forall_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

Each participant in a negotiation was expected to benefit more by cooperation, than acting alone. Nash (1951-introduction) visualized a deal as the outcome of either a process of negotiations, or else independent strategizing by individuals, each of them pursuing his own interest (*win-win*).

## NASH-COURNOT EQUILIBRIUM

According to Cournot-Duopoly Model, as it has been described above,

$$q_1 = b_1(q_2) \dots \text{and} \dots q_2 = b_2(q_1) \quad (1)$$

$$Q_1 = r_1(Q_2) = \frac{a - c_1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2} Q_2 \quad Q_2 = r_2(Q_1) = \frac{a - c_2}{2b} - \frac{1}{2} Q_1$$

Combining (1) and (2)  $b_1(q_2) = (c + q_2) / 2$

Similarly, RTDC 2's best response function is given by  $b_2(q_1) = (c + q_1) / 2$

A Nash equilibrium is a pair  $(q_1^*, q_2^*)$  such that  $q_1^* = b_1(q_2^*) \dots \text{and} \dots q_2 = b_2(q_1^*)$

Thus Nash equilibrium is a **solution of the equations**

$$q_1^* = (c + q_2^*) / 2 \dots \text{and} \dots q_2^* = (c + q_1^*) / 2$$

**EXPECTED UTILITY:  
Choice under uncertainty for 2 competi-  
tors: Binomial Probability Distribution  
“Expected payoff by what probability?”**

Players’ possibility inconsistent beliefs about other players’ choices are described by unique subjective probabilities So are their beliefs about other players’ beliefs, etc. Cournot-Nash equilibrium is affected by the expectations of the 2 competitors, as it is based on imperfect information and uncertainty during the bargain That leads to infinity Both the difficulty of obtaining competitive information and

the uncertainty associated with predicting competitor behavior contribute to these perceptions current set of strategy choices and the corresponding payoffs constitute a Nash-Cournot equilibrium (Hammond, Peter J & Rodriguez-Clare, Andres, 1993) The fact that we are considering choice under uncertainty does add a special structure to the choice problem. In general, how a person values consumption in one state a.s compared to another will depend on the probability that the state in question will actually occur Example in the case of perfect substitutes:

$$u(c_1, c_2, p_1, p_2) = p_1c_1 + p_2c_2$$

$$U_{x_1} * U_{x_2} = .max \rightarrow \frac{\partial U_{x_1}}{\partial x_1} * \frac{\partial U_{x_2}}{\partial x_2} = 0$$

*..let..P = x,..(1 - P) = (100 - x)..then..x \* % = [[(x(100 - x)]<sup>k</sup>]' = 0 and*

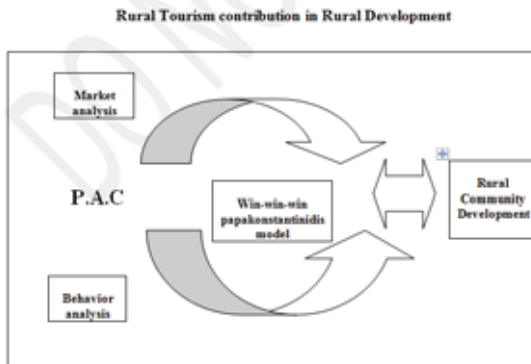
*X \* % = 100 / k + 1...where...."k" = the...key...factor...of...payoff...function*

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## PART III

### BEHAVIOR AND KNOWLEDGE “CREATION”

Coming from the above analysis, the PAC system reflects the two main trends (a) market trends and (b) the behavior trends inside the community (graph) Behavior reflects to human relations and thus to the market trends (above mentioned)



Papakonstantinidis, 2013

The next is to examine if (rural) community development will be—among others- the result of a specific PAC behavior, which could be taught, in the form of “sensitization” It is necessary, therefore, to focus on the “bargaining behavior” of each of the three main power poles (**P.A.C**): During the bargain, three different kind of behavioral theories can be identified: **(i)** Rational Choice Theory (RCT), **(ii)** Instrumental Rationality Theory (I.R.T) (*Zweckrational*) **(iii)** the **Applied Behavior Analysis –ABA**

- (i)** The Rational Choice Theory (**RCT**) suggests that a choice is said to be “rational when it is deliberative and consistent” or, “consumers have transitive preferences and they seek to maximize the utility that they derive from those preferences, subject to various constraints” (Ulen Thomas S 1999) **Transitive preferences** are those for which, if some good or bundle of goods denoted *A* is preferred to another good or bundle of goods denoted *B* and *B* is preferred to a third good or bundle of goods denoted *C*, then it must be the case that *A* is preferred to *C*. (Korobkint Rus. - Ulen Thomas S. 2000)
- (ii)** Instrumental Rationality (**I.R**) (*Zweckrational*) or purposive /instrumental rationality (Max Weber, 1910) is defined as “the behavior

which is related to the expectations about the behavior of other human beings or objects in the environment”. In social (Max Weber, 1910) and critical theory, instrumental rationality is often seen as a specific form of rationality focusing on the most efficient or cost-effective means to achieve a specific end. Instrumental rationality tends to focus on the ‘hows’ of an action, not on ‘whys’

- (iii)** the **Applied Behavior Analysis-ABA** (Pavlov, 1927) by which behavior scientists must take into consideration more than just the short-term behavior change, but also look at how behavior changes can affect the consumer (Ivey A. and alle,1968) Specifically, **ABA** is an applied science that develops methods of changing behavior and the application of behavioral analysis that positively modifies human behaviors, especially as part of a learning or treatment process: **ABA** helps the author to introduce the concept of “**sensitization**” (the **third “win**” of the model, or the **Tit For Tat**, in its “good” dynamical version) The literature research used by this presentation, allows the scientific community to understand the “**win-win-win papakonstantinidis**” conceptualization and its applications on the local development this presentation is influenced more by **behavior modification’** analysis and their techniques As Thorndike, (Thorndike, E.L. 1911) writes, “...such as altering an individual’s behaviors and reactions to stimuli through positive and negative reinforcement of adaptive behavior” **ABA** analysis may be one more “step” toward supporting the win-win-win situation: In my mind, it is combined by the unique Cournot-Nash equilibrium point in its limit-end. At the same time, **ABA** may be a “tool” for “teaching and learning or treating the “sensitization process” From this point, “behavioral analysis” is the cornerstone of building the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model Main assumptions, for supporting the model, are based on behavioral analysis, as a form of learning the sensitization, at the local-at least-level: Sensitization is a form of knowledge and at the same time a practical information which could be taught, thus influences (among the others) the human behavior (Papakonstantinidis, 2007 coming, from 20 years’ experience on the Leader EU Initiative application in Greece) From this point (W. Wolfenberger and alle, 1972), Local

Communities must be approached, through the principles of normalization as a system of human management, close as possible to the patterns of the mainstream of society (**Tit For Tat** in its “good” version). Pavlov (1927), introduced the Classical conditioning term, is a form of conditioning and learning by behavior stimulus (Boakes, Robert 1984).Of course, it refers to the sensitization process. Frederic Skinner (1938) described the reasons that a community can reinforce and thus develop reliable verbal reporting of public events: both the community and the individual have access to these events”, thus providing the suggested “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” with more than one arguments for its usefulness, at the local- at least- level

From the other hand, **Rational Behavior** for a consumer (Simon Herbert 1972) is an interaction behavior and an important indicator of the underlying relationship between individuals (Perkins, D.N. & Grotzer, T.A. 1997) In a Model of rational behavior for a consumer (a typical game theory / bargaining application), we assume a consumer faces a choice of n commodities labeled 1,2,...,n each with a market price  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ . The consumer is assumed to have a cardinal utility function **U** (cardinal in the sense that it assigns numerical values to utilities), depending on the amounts of commodities  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  consumed. The model further assumes that the consumer has a budget M which is used to purchase a vector  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  in such a way as to maximize  $U(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ . The problem of rational behavior in this model then becomes an optimization problem, that is:

$$\max U(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i \leq M \text{ under the constrain } x_i \geq 0 \quad \forall_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

This model has been used in “general equilibrium” theory, partcularly to show the “Pareto efficiency” economic equilibria: According to NE “a situation in which no player, taking the other players’ strategies as given, can improve his position by choosing an alternative strategy”

*Local...People...owners...of...accomm ↔ Rural..Tourism...Services...Consumers*

Concluding, the behavioral analysis, greatly interprets both (a) the interaction of the involved PAC members, (instrumental rationality) and (b) the knowledge that can affect the individual strategic decision. This point is crucial: The main objective is to “describe” the bargaining behavior “in terms of knowledge which may be taught

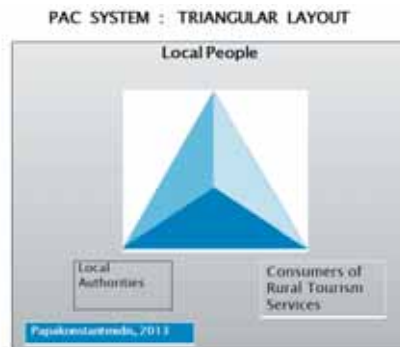
## PART IV

### PROPOSAL: BUILDING NEW SOCIOECONOMIC COMMUNITY RELATIONS

#### The market side: Triopoly The 3-tuples interactive game

The analysis of the 2-poles “**conflict interactive game**” was necessary for supporting the “win-win-win socialized suggestion As it was mentioned above, the idea was to define the conditions under which the development of (rural) local community based on rural tourism may (or must) success The three (**PAC**)’s, i.e (**RTTC<sub>1</sub>**), (**RTTC<sub>2</sub>**) and (**RTTC<sub>3</sub>**) [**Rural Tourism Triopoly Competitor 1,2 and 3**] are the actors in the rural development process based on rural tourism. For the presentation needs, toward supporting the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” it is assumed that the (**P.A.C**) members start negotiation –each of them seeking to maximize personal profit

Lets’ start from the **Cournot Triopoly** By the assumption that each of the PAC is simultaneously seller and buyer of the same good / activity (tourism) either slightly differentiate the question is to find the equilibrium point





The objective is to choose from a 3-tuples equilibria (potential solutions) those which must satisfy the unique Nash-Cournot equilibrium (the simultaneous game), taking into account the assumptions: In a simple model of a triopoly there are (3) actors or players, **RTTC<sub>1</sub>**, **RTTC<sub>2</sub>**, **RTTC<sub>3</sub>** in a game characterized by: (a) the linear function of strategies (b) time absence (simultaneous game)

(c) economic relation among them, around the “rural tourism activity” (d) 3-ple PAC competition (e) given (fixed) the output of rivals (f) existing barriers to entry (g) the assumption that Rural Tourism market demand reflects in a homogeneous product (tourism services). We saw that a Cournot duopoly is described as follows: A profile that is dominated, by any deviation of any player, the value of the benefit of the deviation is greater than the fixed profile

A normal form game is defined as  $G = (S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n, u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$

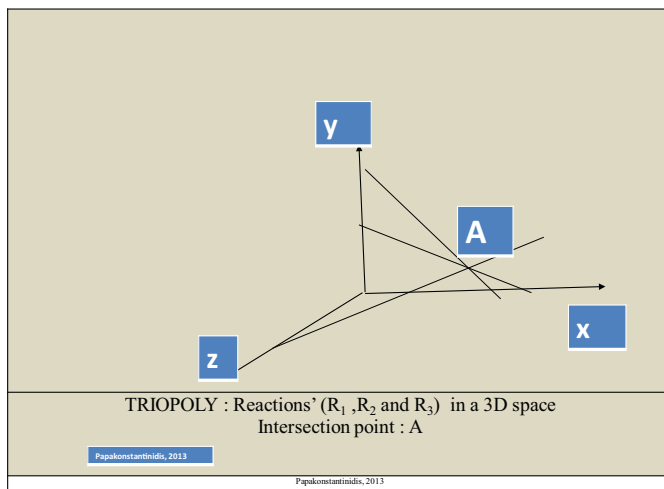
- (a)  $n = \text{number of players (1..n)}$
- (b)  $(S_1, \dots, S_n) \dots \text{the set of strategies for each player}$
- (c)  $(u_1, \dots, u_n) \dots \text{are the functions of benefit (payoff) for each player}$

By the same way, as the DUOPOLY (above) it must be found the triplet **( $q_1, q_2, q_3$ )** of actions with the property that player 1's action is a best response to player 2's and (at the same time) 3's action, player 2's a best response to player 1's and (at the same time) 3's action, and 3's action is a best response to player 1's and 2's action:  $q_1 = b_1(q_2, q_3) \dots q_2 = b_2(q_1, q_3) \dots \text{and} \dots q_3 = b_3(q_1, q_2)$  (Appendix note 1)

Or, in strategic level:

$$a_1 = b_1(a_2, a_3) \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1, a_3) \dots \text{and} \dots a_3 = b_3(a_1, a_2)$$

**TABLE:** TRIOPOLY Equilibrium point in a 3D space



A point where the three (3) best-response functions intersect in a 3D space – **GRAPH TRIOPOLY SELECTIVE RECENT BIBLIOGRAPHY** (see more APPENDIX)

1. **Agliari, Anna Gardini, Laura Puu, Tõnu** (2009) have tried to define the dynamics of a triopoly Cournot, the Cournot oligopoly (non-cooperative) game by reconsidering it with iso-elastic demand (i.e consumers are equally sensitive to price changes whatever the price may be) and constant marginal cost They had focused in the case of three competitors, and so also extends the critical line method for non-invertible maps to the study of critical surfaces in 3D.
  2. **Hong-Xing Yao, Lian Shi, Hao Xi (2012)** have analyzed a triopoly game model with fully heterogeneous players when the demand function is iso-elastic. The three players were considered to be bounded rational, adaptive, and naïve.
  3. **Marina Pireddu (2011)** rigorously proved the existence of chaotic dynamics for the triopoly game model already studied, mainly from a numerical viewpoint In the model considered, the three firms are heterogeneous and in fact each of them adopts a different decisional mechanism, i.e., linear approximation, best response and gradient mechanisms, respectively.
- THEOCHARIS RD.** (1959) reconsidered the Cournot oligopoly model assuming a linear demand function and constant marginal costs then he pointed out that an oligopoly system with  $n$  players would be only neutrally stable for three players ( $n=3$ ) and unstable for four and more players Especially, according to Hong-Xing Yao...“...**Cournot equilibrium is destabilized when the competitors be-**

**come more than three.** With three competitors the Cournot equilibrium point becomes neutrally stable, **so, even then, any perturbation throws the system into an endless oscillation.”**

**TRINOMIAL PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION**

Despite the easy use of the binomial probability distribution ( $p, \dots, 1 - p$ ) is the trinomial  $p, \theta, (1 - p - \theta)$ , in a 3D space that has been chosen for the paper’s needs A binomial random variable models the number of successes in  $n$  trials, where the trials are independent and the only options on each trial are success and failure (Wolfram Demonstration Project 2012) When there are three possibilities on each trial, call them “expectation of **absolute win**”, “expectation of the **absolute losing**”, and “expectation of the **intermediate position**”, the result is a trinomial random variable. Letting  $X$  be the number of the “expectation of absolute win” and  $Y$  the number of expectation of the intermediate position”, in  $n$  trials, the image is a rendering of the **joint probability mass function of  $X$  and  $Y$** . If  $p$  is the probability of a trial being absolute win” and  $\theta$  the probability of a trial being the “intermediate position” then the probability of the absolute loose on the trial is  $1 - p - \theta$  ( $p_1, p_2, p_3$ ). The probability distribution is

**THE INTERMEDIATE SOLUTION**

I think now, I have the material for my approach

$$P(X_1 = k, X_2 = l, X_3 = m) = \sum_{k,l,m} \binom{n}{k, l, m} p_1^k p_2^l p_3^m \dots \mu \epsilon \dots k + l + m = n, \dots p_1 + p_2 + p_3 = 1$$

$$P_1 = P, \dots P_2 = \theta, \dots P_3 = 1 - P - \theta, \dots \text{given. that } \dots P_1 + P_2 + P_3 = 1$$

Next step is to examine the “**p**” that the triopoly equilibrium) is sure to be occurred.

$$[(p\theta)^k][1 - p - \theta]^k + (p\theta)^k [1 - p - \theta]^k = 0 \rightarrow k(1 - p - \theta) = -1x * \% \quad x * \% = 1 / k(1 - p - \theta)$$

on the 3-win papakonstantinidis model” Basically I gathered necessary material from (i) the market and (ii) the behavioral side. Also, I’ve identify the basic actors of “rural community development, using the rural tourism as a tool” From the other side, the objective of the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” must (or may) be “conflict resolution”,

the collaboration round a local flag theme, the team psychology creation , socialization and then friendship, self-sacrifice, bravery, love, cooperation charity etc Let’s see : This means that the theoretical construction “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” utilizing the

**Market side:** We found that (a) Perfect Competition (ideal market form) is characterized from an infinity number of providers with zero power to affect price-quantity

$$\text{When...} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum p = c = MC \dots \text{then...} MR = MC = ATC = P$$

Cournot Duopoly  $a_1 = b_1(a_2) \dots \text{and} \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1)$ .  $PC \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum p = c = MC \dots$

Triopoly Cournot  $a_1 = b_1(a_2, a_3) \dots \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1, a_3) \dots \text{and} \dots a_3 = b_3(a_1, a_2)$

Comparing the 3 situations:

$$a_1 = b_1(a_2) \dots \text{and} \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1) < a_1 = b_1(a_2, a_3) \dots \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1, a_3) \dots \text{and} \dots a_3 = b_3(a_1, a_2) < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum p = c \dots$$

Duopoly < triopoly < perfect competition (max social profit, max Q, at lowest P)

**Theocharis (1959) proved:**  $|\lambda - \lambda \lambda| = \left( \lambda - \frac{1}{2} \right)^{n-1} \left( \lambda + \frac{n-1}{2} \right) = 0$

For  $\dots n > 3 \dots \left| \lambda_n \right| = \frac{n-1}{2} > 1 \dots \text{the...} \text{COURNOT...EQUILIBRIUM...is...UNSTABLE}$

In terms of social welfare:

$$\text{Monopoly} < \text{duopoly} < \text{triopoly} < \text{perfect competition}$$

But (Theocharis, 1959) for  $n > 3$  Cournot equilibrium is unstable: “endless oscillator”

Finally,

$$a_1 = b_1(a_2) \dots \text{and} \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1) < a_1 = b_1(a_2, a_3) \dots \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1, a_3) \dots \text{and} \dots a_3 = b_3(a_1, a_2) < \text{unstable}$$

$$a_1 = b_1(a_2, a_3) \dots \dots a_2 = b_2(a_1, a_3) \dots \text{and} \dots a_3 = b_3(a_1, a_2) = \text{the best “social” form of market}$$

(Appendix Note 1: graph)

In terms of win-win-win behavioral preferences:

Instrumental Rationality < ABA < behavior modification ≤ team psychology

ABA tool, aims to differentiate the behavior of negotiators, at least, leading in “group psychology” The creation of “group psychology” actually is the great prerequisite for Community Development, based in rural tourism Besides, each of the PAC members, has now, more than two possible choices with their corresponding “trinomial probability distribution” There are more free to decide and thus closer to a fair agreement Indeed, according to 3-win model in a sensitized “**triopoly**” there is much less likelihood injustice and inequality especially in local level, as the result of the sensitization process, thus preparing all the PAC actors be involved in the community development.

This should be done by implementing the step by step sensitization process to the ideal situation of “team psychology” On that point, the sensitization process stops. The “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” corresponds 1-1 to the triangular layout of a triopoly market, and under trinomial probability distribution

### **BUILDING UP THE WIN-WIN-WIN CONCEPTUALIZATION**

I think, I’ve argued, until now, in building the win-win-win conceptualization, up to the level of its basic understanding. I’ve tried to approach it both, through market and behavior side focusing on “interaction”, “choice under uncertainty”, “bargaining behavior” etc Now, some more “details” must be identified: (i) It must be the practical side be considered both as a market interaction game, as well as the behavioral interaction, locally

(ii) Should be considered that cases, in which “players” have incomplete information, either decide otherwise than that gives them personal utility (trembling hands) These “refinements” put by “Harsanyi (1967) and Selten (1988) the “game with incomplete information-Nature as the 3<sup>rd</sup> player” and Reinhardt Selten(perfect equilibrium, assuming that the players, through a “slip of the hand” or tremble, may choose unintended strategies, albeit with negligible probability) (iii) two important themes, “knowledge creation” and the “flag theme” must also considered as useful tools for someone who seeks to do positive changes in the community development (iv) Besides “win-win” perception is based on each side’s personal evaluation of a dispute (v) Since both sides could benefit from such a scenario (Spais, Papakonstantinidis and Papakonstantinidis, 2009), any resolutions to the conflict are likely to be accepted voluntarily (vi) The process of integrative bargaining must achieve, win-win-win outcomes, through cooperation. As for the Harsanyi refinement (Players with incomplete Information), which the suggested model is based on, it must be denoted that Nash-Equilibrium presupposes Players with Complete Information. Sequential Games (or dynamic games) are games where later players have some knowledge about earlier actions. Complete information requires (Harsanyi J, 1967) that every player know the strategies and payoffs available to the other players but **not necessarily the actions taken**. Games of incomplete information can be reduced, however, to games of imperfect information by introducing “moves by the Nature” as the 3<sup>rd</sup> player of game (Harsanyi J, 1967)

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The win-win-win papakonstantinidis model, is based-mainly- on Harsanyi Nash Refinement (Bayesian Analysis): According to Harsanyi J. (as the above quick review), in cases where the consistency assumption holds, the original game can be replaced by a game where **nature first conducts a lottery** (Harsanyi J. (1967) in accordance with the basic probability distribution, and the outcome of this lottery will decide which particular

sub-game will be played. According to Harsanyi, “Nature” is considered as the “3<sup>rd</sup> player, in a sub-game with incomplete information, conditional probability – Bayesian analysis) **The 3<sup>rd</sup> win** or the “intermediate win” of the model also first conducts a lottery, in a game with incomplete information: First it gives the lead in possibility of realizing the general welfare

Formal definition (Harsanyi, 1967),

The game is defined as:  $G = \langle N, \Omega, \langle A_i, u_i, T_i, \tau_i, p_i, C_i \rangle_{i \in N} \rangle$ , where

1.  $N$  is the set of players.
2.  $\Omega$  is the set of the states of the nature. For instance, in a card game, it can be any order of the cards.
3.  $A_i$  is the set of actions for player  $i$ . Let  $A = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_N$ .
4.  $T_i$  is the types of player  $i$ , decided by the function  $\tau_i : \Omega \rightarrow T_i$ . So for each state of the nature, the game will have different types of players. The outcome of the players is what determines its type. Players with the same outcome belong to the same type.
5.  $C_i \subseteq A_i \times T_i$  defines the available actions for player  $i$  of some type in  $T_i$ .
6.  $u_i : \Omega \times A \rightarrow R$  is the payoff function for player  $i$

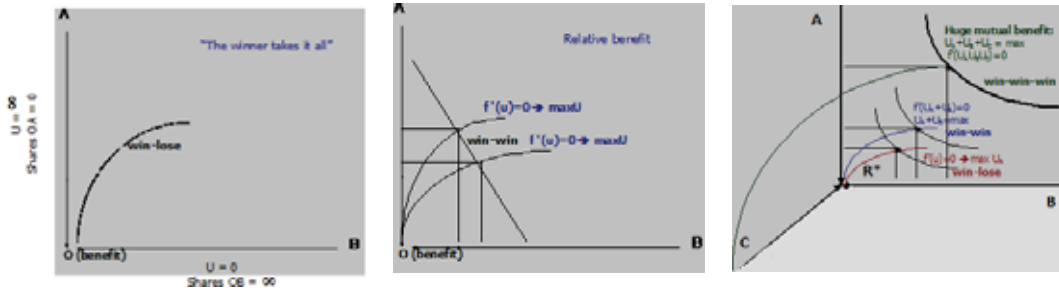
Now, we have to reproduce the Harsanyi Bayesian game's formal definition, with some difference which is the paper's contribution: introducing the “Intermediate Community” as the 3<sup>rd</sup> imaginary part of the negotiation between 2, as well as weighting of certain variables with coefficients, it should

be possible to define the suggested “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model”

As a synthesis Nash-Harsanyi the basic “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” (sensitized game) equation is (Papakonstantinidis, IJRCM, 2011)

$$G^{**} = \langle N, \Omega^*, \langle A_i, u_i, \phi T_i, t_i, p_i, C_i \rangle_{i \in N} \rangle \quad \text{where}$$

1.  $N$  is the set of players.
2.  $\Omega^*$  is the set of the states of the “Intermediate Community”, depended on local people bargaining intra-community behavior
3.  $A_i$  is the set of actions for player  $i$ .  $A = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_N$ .
4.  $T_i$  is the types of player  $i$ , decided by the function  $\tau_i : \Omega \rightarrow T_i$ . So for each state of the nature, the game will have different types of players. The outcome of the players is what determines its type. Players with the same outcome belong to the same type.
5.  $C_i \subseteq A_i \times T_i$  defines the available actions for player  $i$  of some type in  $T_i$ .
6.  $u_i : \Omega \times A \rightarrow R$  is the payoff function for player  $i$
7.  $\phi$  : the **sensitization** coefficient of  $T_i$  : Each state of the Community (Nature, Local Community, Physical Environment etc) must be (according to model definition) weighted by the “ $\phi$ ” appropriate sensitization coefficient of  $T_i$ , thus providing behavioral convergence towards community prevailing ethos (Friedman John, Weaver Clyde, 1979)



win- win-win papakonstantinidis model Utility Functions

## FINAL PROPOSITION

### WIN - WIN-WIN: FROM THE BEHAVIOR SIDE

According to Spais (Spais 2012) the win-win-win papakonstantinidis model is a methodological tool for conflict resolution, especially in the case of decision-making, or in forming “instant reflection winning strategies” in the bargain (which is the frame

From the other, “sensitization” may be concerned as an information, thus changed the 3 parts’ imperfect information, into a complete information as Harsanyi’s conditional probabilities claims. It is a hard process in the bargain, which smoothes the angles of conflict or the payoffs/utilities (according to Nash) The “third win” may be an umbrella, which conjoins different “dipolar relationships” Especially, in the local management context, it must be understood that the existence of a “distinguishable entity”, depends upon the degree of understanding and sensitization of knowing better the other

polar (Spais, Papakonstantinidis and Papakonstantinidis, 2009; For the needs of the study, I adjust the conceptualization, in order to deal with local management and development decisions The *win-win-win perception* is based on the assumptions of information accessibility and diffusion that characterize the modern globalized societies as well as the complexity in the decision-making values that the “third win” (the “C” factor) could unlock a series of obstacles. Another idea, is that the individual three-by-two, (although doubts) must take into consideration at each time that there is the third distinguishable part(Spais, 2012) in the bargain, based on behaviorist analysis through the “neural networks” Recent literature on behavioral analysis, provides us with the relation between knowledge and behavior So, an overview is attempt (Papakonstantinidis L.A: (2005)“, as to find the relation between “knowledge transfer and knowledge creation”, in the frame of the “Modern Innovation Theory- M.I.T” (Fischer M.M, 2006 Nonaka and others) Behavior thus may resulted from this knowledge types’ synthesis, as the table below

$$\left[ \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{knowledge} \rightarrow \text{knowledge's}.. \text{synthesis} \rightarrow \text{behavior}... \text{synthesis} \rightarrow \text{behavior}.. \text{change} \rightarrow \text{new}.. \text{bargaining}.. \text{conditions} \right]$$

Table: Knowledge Creation and Transfer- Types of Behavior

Type of Knowledge-1	Type of Knowledge-2	Synthesis	Resulted Behavior
tacit	tacit	Sympathetic	Socialization
tacit	codified	Conceptual	Externalization
codified	tacit	Procedural	Internalization
codified	codified	Systemic	Networking
<u>sympathetic</u>	<u>systemic</u>	<u>Conceptual</u>	<u>Sensitization</u>
systemic	systemic	Procedural	<b>Strategic</b>

This table shows us, all the possible combinations of different types of knowledge and its results of a “new behavior” coming from this combination: For example, “tacit” to “tacit” knowledge leads to “sympathetic” thus producing “socialization” as a form of new behavior etc

Sensitization is introduced (regarding to integrated information), as the main variable of the bargain (the third part of the negotiation)/ the “C” factor) The implementation of the LEADER EU (EEC) Commission Initiative of the in less developed mountainous and island regions of my country was an excellent opportunity implementing the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” in the form of sensitization of the local population around a central priority theme (Flag theme) –see



**EPILOG**

**TRIPOLAR STRATEGIC STRUCTURE AND THE IMPOSSIBILITY THEOREM**

Building a tripolar economic relation based on the sensitization process, it has been acceptable, as a “social need”: According to the suggested model, strengthening of the third “win” in an extending “non cooperative win-win game” situation leads to a new bargaining behavior, which is step by step born locally Triopoly seems to empower the “intermediate position, or the 3rd win, for the reasons that : (a) According to Cournot Theorem,  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} p = c$  This situation reflects the Principles of the Absolute Competition (the invisible Hand of the Market /Adam Smith, 1760) of maximizing the **social justice** (higher production in the lowest price) and so the social welfare: The maximum potential amount of goods at lower price approaching marginal cost of production (P=MC=MR), but (b) Theocharis

(1959) pointed out that an oligopoly system with **n** players would be only neutrally stable for three players (**n=3**) and unstable for four and more players: (c) Combining (a) ,(b) “triopoly” seems to be the best market toward social welfare **and at the same time is a more realistic market** Each of the **3PAC** seeks to maximize individual profit, but, at the same time, each of them has more little power (in comparison with duopoly -2 competitors) to affect this market, even if it is based on the “best responses” philosophy. That means, **more** production, **less** prices, **less** possibility to make coalitions or collusions, more transparency Furthermore, in the suggested model, each of the three, making choices under uncertainty, has more probability for expectations of success:

Each of them has three possibilities (instead of 2) on each trial, thus forming the utility function:

$$u(c_1, c_2, c_3, p_1, p_2, p_3) = p_1c_1 + p_2c_2 + p_3c_3$$

The win-win-win papakonstantinidis model is (a) a methodological tool for conflict resolution, especially in the case of decision-making, (b) a “path” to social justice, (c) the basic process for sensitizing local population on the development, around a local “flag theme” (d) a way to “feel free” through involvement in the development process (e) to develop “new” bargaining behavior (f) to convert conflict into cooperation. (g) As the sensitization process tends to infinity, then the limit of PAC relations tend to the absolute collaboration. That’s the end of the real development process

$$\lim_{sen \rightarrow \infty} P.AC..r = absolute..collaboration$$

**Finally**, I wonder ‘if and under what conditions, the “win-win-win” approach (locally, at least) should in a position to face the classical “Impossibility Theorem” (Kenneth Arrow, 1951) and thus to produce social welfare During the 50s Kenneth Arrow, argued that there is no “social welfare”, as there is no “social conscience” as there is no rank-order voting systems, for the reasons that (a) If every voter prefers alternative X over alternative Y, then the group prefers X over Y (b) If every voter’s preference between X and Y remains unchanged, then the group’s preference between X and Y will also remain unchanged (even if voters’ preferences between other pairs like X and Z, Y and Z, or Z and W change) (c) There is no “dictator”: no single voter possesses the power to always determine the group’s preference. Despite its accessibility, I think that there is only one case (in the conceptual level),

of not applicable In a pure theoretical situation this will be done: The limit of the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” as the sensitization process tends to infinity, is the ultimate collaboration. In that ideal case,  $X=Y=Z=W$  That’s the end of the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” Even if impossible to go to the end, this model provides the PAC members with a direction toward community development due to rural tourism This is not a wish It is a goal, It’s life . We owe it to the next generation

## CASE STUDIES:

### 1. RURAL TOURISM WOMEN COOPERATIVE –GARGALIANI

**Gargaliani** is a small town (typical case of a Greek traditional place) in Trifilia District (South-West Peloponnese) with increasing population’s rate 9083 (2011) 5.500 (2001) It is located in a plain, near Marathos, a popular destination for both Greek and foreign tourists. Until 2002 local people were employed, basically in the agricultural sector (oil olives, raisin, vegetables etc), fishing and tourism activities, during the summer, with a very low average annual income, between 1,500 and 1,800 euro In November of 2002 the E.U Commission “Local Integrated Program” project organized a 3-months training course for local women related to the challenges and opportunities of **rural tourism** development I suggested the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” as an experimental methodological tool for sensitizing these women, to work around the local “flag theme” It was its first application in rural space. This model was launched on Aug 2002 in Gotland Island-SW Fifty (50) women took part and this led to the formation of the “Gargaliani Women’s Rural Tourism Cooperative”, which started with 35 members and then, 50 The aim of the cooperative was to support the local economy; to provide a supplementary income to women in the area; and to improve the social status and cultural level of women villagers During the 3-months training course, the “tacit” knowledge was transferred by the EU experts, to these women, in the form of conceptual and then to “codified” knowledge, through the “collective choice game”. Coming from different places (sea coast, plain, mountain places) the 50 women had different interests, as well as, different thoughts about the “form” and the kind of cooperative crea-

tion. During the training, coalitions were being formed, as a “team psychology” between these women. Then they encouraged to obtain a common goal which was local development, As a result -choosing the rural tourism as a flag-theme- helped them to converge their efforts toward implementing this goal This process worked as an incentive to the people locally to be involved in the local development process through the spillover effect One and half month after starting the training course, women had already decided on what they had to do through the collective choice psychological approach : (a) To create a cooperative mainly engaged in the production of traditional sweets, food and drinks with traditional recipes and pure material to provide authentic and unique tastes. The cooperative started in the very early of 2003, supported by the new mayor Among the delicacies they produce, are sweets, as “pate” jams and preserves made of seasonal fruit; pastries and other traditional food, cheese pies The cooperative also promotes traditional local customs through organizing weddings, christenings and other public celebrations, planned in a way that marks the area’s cultural identity They provide catering services to conferences in and outside the area of municipality (with its local departments) Over the time, the women succeeded in building a team spirit encouraged by a small group of younger inhabitants, who acted as an “animator team” under the supervision of an outside expert (in particular, the author) Through the game of “collective choice” (a win-win-win rural tourism application) they found their “flag theme” (Papakonstantinidis, 2002, p. 322-“the magic way” & 2003, p.359 ) namely, the home-made sweets to promote the local identity and “family games” in preparing meals and sweets which are offered during the first days of August as a cultural activity for tourists. Awareness of local problems needs and resources was raised among the local community. People got involved in the decision making process regarding future development of their area through a “business plan” composed in the context of the “Urban Development” E.U Program/Initiative, formed a Local Action Group and started to ask for financial resources. Now the women cooperative has 35 women and the average annual income per family gas increased by 20.000 Euro Moreover, young people have begun to return to Gargaliani and the only primary school in the small town which was planned to close, due to lack of children has stayed open. I’ve been declared Honorary Citizen, of this town, for this work, some years later (2009)- see p.p



## 2. THE WERT EUROPEAN RURAL TOURISM PROJECT

The **Women Entrepreneurs in Rural Tourism** project (**WERT**) is a collaborative partnership between eight training institutions and networks from six countries across Europe (DESTI NET, 2012). From the Greek side, “**PRISMA** Development Studies S.A” with a very important contribution in the rural development in Greece, was the WERT partner. The project is supported by the European Union through the Leonardo da Vinci programme, aimed at improving the vocational education systems of Europe. The project aims to meet the needs and build the skills of women entrepreneurs involved in rural tourism and crafts and to improve the quality of training provided by the vocational education sector. The WERT training programme developed within this pilot initiative is aimed to help the following groups (a) Women entrepreneurs involved in rural tourism, crafts and food production (b) Women who wish to enter the sector in order to become economically active and independent (c) Vocational training providers to help women entrepreneurs develop the required business skills e.g. Management, Information Technology and Marketing. The WERT training course helps women entrepreneurs across Europe to build new skills and jobs in rural economies. During the period March–June 2012, twenty-two (22) Women candidate entrepreneurs in Rural Tourism in a small Greek village, “Rovies” (Evia Island, Middle Greece) were trained on how it should be possible to work together in the rural tourism. I was invited by the PRISMA Development Studies SA to work as trainer, in Rovies-Evia Isle. During the 3-months training, I had the chance to develop the “win-win-win papakonstantinidis model” as a methodological tool for producing the conditions of closer collaboration among them. After training, the 22 women established a rural tourism cooperative, covering not only “accommodation”, but also “local food and sweets”, “cultural activities”, swimming/climbing activities etc. After training, the 22 women established a rural tourism cooperative, covering not only “accommodation”, but also “local food and sweets”, “cultural activities”, swimming/climbing activities etc. so that they have obtained a higher income (2012). The success of the Agricultural Co Rovies of Evia, mobilized the entire endogenous potential of the village, involving residents in the development process. In its final evaluation in Crete (Greece), WERT evaluated the experiment as a successful one because it led in the creation of Women Cooperative. The project leader of the WERT Dr Rosaleen Courtney Planning and

Development (Norton Radstock College South Hill Park Radstock BA3 3RW UK) asked from me the “Power Point” copy to include it in the educational material WERT (e-school training). This material is now presented simultaneously to all actors involved in the educational process WERT (this material is attached to my presentation).

**Athens, July 5, 2013**



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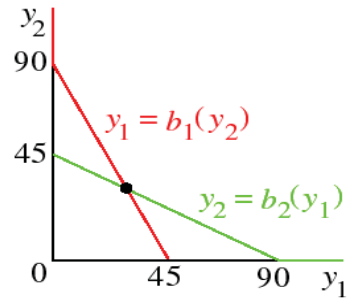
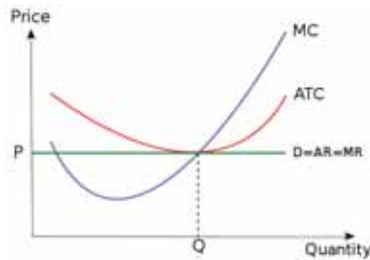
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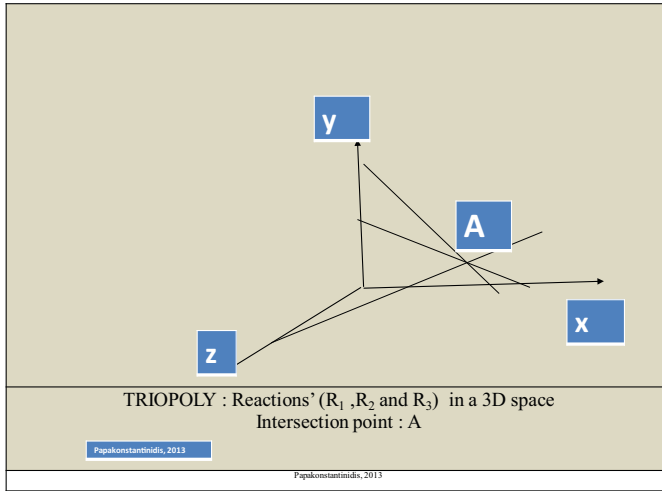
# APPENDIX:

## APPENDIX NOTE 1



Comparing perfect competition, monopoly, duopoly and their impact in Social Welfare (surplus-losses for producer-consumer in relations with the price: LIMITS Perfect Competition-Monopoly,

TRIOPOLY: the intermediate position:



## APPENDIX NOTE 2: TRIOPLY

Starting from

$$Q = f(P) \Rightarrow (Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3) = Q = a + bP \Rightarrow -bP = Q - a \Rightarrow P = a - bQ \Rightarrow P = a - b(Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3)$$

The inverse demand function:  $P = f(Q)$ ..instead,,of,, $Q = f(P)$  we have

$$P = a - b(Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3) \quad (1)$$

Total Revenue from rural tourism services firm (RTSF) 1 is (PxQ = rectangle area)

$$PQ_1 = aQ_1 - bQ_1^2 - bQ_1Q_2 - bQ_1Q_3$$

Total Revenue for (RTSF) 2 is

$$PQ_2 = aQ_2 - bQ_2^2 - bQ_1Q_2 - bQ_2Q_3$$

Total Revenue for (RTSF) 3 is

$$PQ_3 = aQ_3 - bQ_1Q_3 - bQ_2Q_3 - bQ_3^2$$

Marginal revenues for (RTSF) 1 and 2 and 3

$$MR_3 = a - bQ_1 - bQ_2 - 2bQ_3 \quad MR_2 = a - bQ_1 - 2bQ_2 \quad MR_1 = a - bQ_2 - bQ_3 - 2bQ_1$$

Total Revenues for (RTSF) 1 and 2 and 3

$$TR_1 = PQ_1 = aQ_1 - bQ_1^2 - bQ_1Q_2 - bQ_1Q_3$$

$$TR_3 = PQ_3 = aQ_3 - bQ_1Q_3 - bQ_2Q_3 - bQ_3^2$$

$$PQ_2 = aQ_2 - bQ_2^2 - bQ_1Q_2 - bQ_2Q_3$$

Each (RTSF) marginal revenue (MR) depends on the output supplied by the other (RTSF)

**Equilibrium quantities must come from maximization the total Profit  $\Pi$**

In that point:  $\Pi = TR - TC$

**Maximizing  $\Pi$**

$\Pi(Q) = \max \rightarrow d\Pi/dQ = 0$

Golden rule of profit maximization says get the output from **the intersection of MC and MR**

Steps:

MC=MR (1)	MR=MC = $c_1$	MR = a- bQ <sub>2</sub> - 2bQ <sub>1</sub> -bQ <sub>3</sub>
<b>(RTSF) 1'</b> MC = $c_1$	MR-MC=0	$c_1 = a- bQ_2 - 2bQ_1 - bQ_3$

So, For (RTSF) 1.  $2bQ_1 = a - c_1 - b(Q_2 + Q_3)$

$$Q_1 = r_1(Q_2) = \frac{a - c_1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2}(Q_2 + Q_3)$$

$Q_1 =$  best response for  $Q_2+Q_3$

This is called **(RTSF) 1's best response function**

**But,**

$Q_1$  depends on  $Q_2$  and  $Q_3$

All the three **(RTSF)** supply the market with identical products (tourism services)

So if the **RTSF 1** produces more tourism services  $\rightarrow$  **(RTSF) 2 and 3** must produce **less than ideal**

Best-Response Function for a Cournot TRIOPOLY

**(RTSF) 1'** best-response function is  $(c)_1 =$  **(RTSF) 2's+ (RTSF) 3's MC**  $Q_1 = r_1(Q_2) = \frac{a - c_1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2}(Q_2 + Q_3)$

Similarly, **(RTSF) 2'** best-response function is  $(c)_2 =$  **(RTSF) 1's+ (RTSF) 3's MC**  $Q_2 = r_2(Q_1) = \frac{a - c_2}{2b} - \frac{1}{2}(Q_1 + Q_3)$

**(RTSF) 3'** best-response function is  $(c)_3 =$  **(RTSF) 2's+ (RTSF) 1' MC**  $Q_3 = r_3(Q_1, Q_2) = \frac{a - c_3}{2b} - \frac{1}{2}(Q_1 + Q_2)$

**FINALLY,**

Cournot equilibrium: A point where the three (3) best-response functions intersect **in a 3D space**  
**(Equilibrium point in a 3D space)**

# SUSTAINABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY IN RURAL TOURISM: THE ROLE OF TOURISM IN RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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## ABSTRACT

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The idea of sustainable development has been discussed in rural and tourism development research for a quarter of a century. During that time, sustainability has become an important policy framework for tourism and rural developers and researchers guiding their planning and development thinking. However, there are also a growing amount of criticism among scholars on the conceptual nature of sustainability and how (rural) tourism as an economic activity relates to the wider ideals of sustainable development. This has created a need to understand the nature and role of tourism and sustainability in rural contexts. The purpose of this paper is to overview the idea of sustainable rural tourism, and to discuss the relations of tourism and rural community development in the context of sustainable development.

**Keywords:** sustainable tourism; rural tourism, rurality, responsible tourism

## INTRODUCTION: CALL FOR SUSTAINABILITY AND RESPONSIBILITY IN RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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In the past few decades, rural areas have experienced major socioeconomic changes. Due to modernisation, deepening globalisation and neoliberal governance processes, the economic and employment potential of traditional rural livelihoods has

decreased. This has also triggered the process of rural outmigration with the resultant demographic changes in rural populations. The transforming processes in rural areas have forced communities themselves and national and regional planning and development agencies to find new economic uses for rural environments and establish specific diversification and development policies.

In many rural places, tourism has been selected or it has emerged through externally driven processes as a major replacement economic activity to be promoted and developed. This has created a growing number of development initiatives and projects with high expectations concerning the growth potential of tourism and the contribution of tourism for rural communities. As a result many traditional rural areas have evolved or are evolving towards socio-economic structures and situation labelled as 'new rurality'. In general, the term new rurality and the related transformations arise from the processes of neoliberal globalisation (see Kay 2008). The term refers to the development of new, innovative and 'attractive' uses for rural landscapes combining 'multifunctionality' i.e. rural spaces characterised by overlapping economic land use forms (in contrast to a single purpose economic activities taking place in rural areas) (see Hecht 2008).

Tourism as a large scale and growing industry has great potential to provide benefits to its destination areas and communities and it can introduce new economic uses for regional economies. Especially in rural and other peripheral areas the promotion of tourism has been regarded as highly beneficial for the goals of rural development. Emphasis on sustainability in tourism has further highlighted the role of tourism as a viable and 'soft' tool for using local and regional resources for rural



development (Saarinen 2007). In this respect sustainability has emerged as a hegemonic paradigm in rural tourism planning and development with increasing calls for responsibility (see Berry and Ladkin 1997; Sharpley 2009, 2013). As a result of this the tourism industry has recently been framed as ‘responsible’ i.e. potentially usable for various aims and goals on global-local nexus, such as poverty alleviation (UNWTO 2002; Scheyvens 2009; Saarinen and Rogerson 2014).

Responsibility in tourism and tourism development is not totally new issue. In general, responsible tourism refers to tourism development principles and practices aiming to make places better for people to live and visit (Goodwin 2009, pp. 384). As a policy tool for tourism development it aims to minimise the negative and maximise the positive impacts of tourism in rural communities and environments by promoting ethical consumption and production among all stakeholders. The concept of responsible tourism is often used as a specific form of tourism. However, its principles and guidelines are rather similar to the general aims of sustainable tourism. According to Sharpley (2013, pp. 385) “it is difficult, or even impossible, to distinguish responsible tourism from the concept of sustainable tourism”. While this may be the case in a definitional sense the responsibility discourse in tourism has its own historically contingent background that partially separates it from the sustainable tourism: the current idea of responsibility is also a product of neoliberal ‘self-organising’ modes of new governance (see Rhodes 1996) taking place in many rural and tourism development contexts. This also connects responsible tourism discussions to the idea of new rurality. In addition, one manifestation of this process is the idea and implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in tourism (Scheyvens 2009) and the ideological creation of a ‘perfect green consumer’ who does not consume less but consumes in a responsible way (Rutherford 2011; see Hughes 1995).

Overall, the demand for sustainability and responsibility in tourism is an outcome of a complex set of processes and aims that are heavily interrelated in current rural tourism development discussions. While there are high hopes in rural areas to use sustainable or responsible tourism in community development there are also increasing criticism concerning the clarity and meaning of the concepts and their applicability in rural tourism (see Hunter 1995; Garrod and Fyall 1998; Butler 1999; Liu 2003). Some scholars have recently suggested that we should actually get rid of the idea of sustainability in tourism (Sharpley, 2009:xiii).

While academic frustrations are understandable due to the conceptual challenges, the demand for sustainability and responsibility in rural tourism development has not disappeared. Indeed, the growth of tourism has not shown a recession and the future prospects are seen relatively positively (World Bank 2012). According to UNWTO (2013), for example, the number of international tourist arrivals reached one billion limit in 2012 and the organization estimates that the future growth of tourism will reach 1.6 billion international tourists arrivals by 2020. As the international tourism (statistics) forms a tip of the iceberg the factual numbers of global tourist flows (including international and domestic and statistical and non-statistical tourism) must be quite staggering.

Thus, it is not a surprise that many rural places are increasingly looking towards the possibilities for using tourism as a tool for development by thinking how to attract international and domestic tourists and investors. At the same time, however, in many rural development policies and communities the aim is to maintain rurality and rural way of living while being increasingly part of the global tourism business (Lane 1994; Hall and Jenkins 1998). This setting creates a need to think possible limits for tourism growth in rural areas if the impacts of tourism emerge too dramatic. In that management thinking the ideas of sustainability and responsibility have been in the central position (Butler 1999). Based on this, the paper aims to discuss and overview the conceptual dimensions of sustainability in rural tourism. After the conceptual overview focusing the sustainability and rural tourism, some of the main sources of criticisms are discussed. Finally, the critical points of departure and the nature of sustainability in the future of rural tourism and rural development are shortly evaluated.

## SUSTAINABLE RURAL TOURISM

The general idea of sustainable development (see WCED 1987) has been described as complex and difficult to operationalise (see Lélé 1991; Duffy 2002; Spangenberg 2005). Due to conceptual ambiguity many scholars in tourism research have stated that there are no exact working definitions of sustainable tourism (see Butler 1991; Hunter and Green 1995; Hall and Lew 1998; Clarke 1997). Sustainable tourism can be defined as “tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing

the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP & WTO 2005, pp. 12; see also World Tourism Organization 1993). Such definition carries the similar elements as sustainable development and, thus, is value-laden and open to multiple interpretations and perspectives (Sharpley 2009) which has resulted in different understandings of sustainable rural tourism development (see Saarinen 2006). Basically, the key issue is how the role of tourism is positioned in rural community development contexts. According to Hall and Jenkins (1998, pp. 28–29) rural tourism should: sustain and create local incomes, employment and growth; contribute to the costs of providing economic and social infrastructure; encourage the development of other industrial sectors (e.g. through local purchasing links); contribute to local resident amenities and services; and contribute to the conservation of environmental and cultural resources.

Thus, the goals of rural tourism development are quite identical with the ones of sustainable tourism (see Lane 1994; Swarbrooke, 1999; Saarinen 2007). The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in Finland, for example, has emphasised that the basis of rural tourism is on environmental responsibility, health and preservation of the rural cultural heritage (Rural Policy... 2000). In that context rural tourism is seen to be dependent on the intrinsic characteristics of the countryside and it aims to benefit rural communities and their well-being and to maintain rurality, rural values and way of living (see also Hall and Jenkins 1998; Lane 1994). This kind of definition of rural tourism makes it an ideological concept that is used for supporting a rural way of living without changing the countryside too much (see Countryside Commission 1995; Hardy et al. 2002). From that perspective tourism is seen as a tool for rural community development.

Contrast to this ideological perspective, however, rural tourism can also be seen as a tourism activity that is ‘just’ placed in the countryside (see Gilbert and Tung 1990). From that perspective rural communities and contexts represent no more than one category of environments in a wilderness-urban continuum which can allow major changes in rural landscapes and communities (Saarinen 2007). In this respect ‘rurality’ represents only a stage i.e. setting for tourism activities to take place in general. From this perspective there are no limits to growth concerning rural values or rural way of living, for example, and new rurality can evolve quite far away from the currently socially constructed ideas of rurality (see Cloke and Little 1997). This may result that instead of being tool

tourism becomes an end in the development process taking place in rural areas. Peter Burns (1999) defines this outcome with the term ‘tourism first’, in which the tourism industry and its needs dominate the development discourses, aims and practices (see Britton 1991). Obviously, this challenges the connection between rural tourism and sustainability as the desired goals of rural and community development may not necessarily be the same as the tourism industry’s goals and needs and needs (see Butler 1999, pp. 11).

## CHALLENGES IN SUSTAINABLE RURAL TOURISM THINKING

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Since the early 1990s, the idea of sustainable tourism has interested tourism developers, NGOs and policy-makers. However, from the beginning of sustainable tourism discussions and research it has also attracted harsh criticism (McKercher 1993; Hunter 1995; Wall 1997). Indeed, there are many challenges involved in sustainable tourism or sustainable rural tourism and their relation to sustainable development (see Butler 1999; Liu 2003; Sharpley 2000, 2009; Wall 1997; Saarinen 2006). Some of the main sources of frustration relate to conceptual problems and locating responsibility in the implementation of sustainability in rural tourism.

Similar to the idea of sustainable development, the concept of sustainable tourism is said to be complex and academically vague (Hunter 1995; Sharpley 2000; Liu 2003). There are numerous conceptualisations of sustainability in tourism and some of them are obviously even conflicting with each other. Swarbrooke (1999, pp. 13), for example, has defined sustainable tourism as “tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community.” While this kind of definition is widely utilised in sustainable rural tourism discussions, it evidently focuses on the needs of the industry and the sustainable use of its resources (see Hardy, Beeton and Pearson 2002). This is on contrast with the ideologically loaded idea of sustainable rural tourism and it is in a potential conflict situation with the very idea of sustainable development focusing on the use of resources in respect of people, environment and their well-being.

Numerous perspectives and competing ideas of the concept of sustainability in rural tourism can be seen as a major problem (Sharpley 2009), but conceptual plurality is a common challenge in research and development discussions in general. Indeed, there are very few conceptual definitions in the social sciences or development thinking, for example, that we collectively accept as being ‘the definition’ or the only possible way to understand an issue. Sustainable rural tourism is very value-laden idea focusing on how to develop and what kind of rural areas and communities we would prefer to see in future (Saarinen 2007). Basically, concepts and ideas in the social sciences and policy-making tend to be loaded with values and by rejecting sustainability as a complex and value-based idea (see Sharpley 2000, 2009) may not change the situation. In addition, rurality and rural development are complex and politically laden landscapes which would be difficult to analyse in ‘neutral’ terms.

However, the acceptance of the definitional plurality and ideological nature of (sustainable) rural tourism development does not remove the other major challenges of the conceptualisation(s) of sustainable tourism. While sustainable rural tourism rhetorically refers to sustainable development, it seems to fail to deliver a similar kind of holistic framework (Sharpley 2000), especially in relation to spatial and temporal scales. Tourism is a global scale economy but the focus of sustainability in rural or any other kind of tourism has mainly been on the destinations or their sub-parts (Inskeep 1991, pp. xviii). The focus on destinations or their sub-parts grasps the most visible processes and impacts related to rural tourism development, but only a fragment of the total (see Gössling 2000). Gössling et al. (2002, pp. 208), for example, have stated in their ecological footprint analysis of tourism in the Seychelles that those efforts to make the destination more sustainable through the installation of energy-saving devices and use of renewable energy sources etc. contributes only to marginal scale of sustainability as 97% of the footprint is a result of air travel to the destination and back home.

It seems to be a major challenge for the tourism industry to implement the known or estimated wider scale and/or future costs of growth to local and present day decisions and practices (see Scott, Hall & Gössling 2012). This relates to the responsibility and the question of whose responsibility sustainability in rural tourism development is (see Sharpley 2013). On one hand, modern consumers are seen to lead the industry towards more sustainable operations due to better and increasing environmental awareness in (western) societies.

This consumer awareness is assumed to evolve towards increasing demand for sustainable products in tourism (see Poon 1993). On the other hand, the industry is said to be adopting sustainable development principles and are therefore seen to lead the progress towards sustainable modes of production in rural tourism development. The assumed higher environmental awareness of the customers is seen to support the progress in sustainable tourism businesses (see Orams 1997).

This twofold logic of progressive responsibility in tourism consumption and production is tempting. However, according to Sharpley (2013), most academic studies show that despite ‘greening’ attitudes, environmental concerns still remain low in modern tourists’ consumption priorities (see e.g. Swarbrooke and Horner 1999). Similarly, in terms of rural tourism operators adopting sustainable tourism principles, the adopted or modified principles are often rather industry-oriented and, thus, they do not reflect the ideals of sustainability focusing on the needs of people, environment and their wellbeing (see Buckley 1999; Burns 1999). In addition, although there are many good examples of sustainable rural tourism businesses only relatively small number of businesses in general are aiming ‘high’ in sustainability or even beyond their legal obligations (Sharpley 2013).

## CONCLUSIONS: THE WAY FORWARD?

The idea of sustainability is important for the rural tourism development and especially for the future of rural areas and communities. While there are criticisms towards the sustainable rural tourism as a concept, the existing frustrations haven’t resulted viable alternatives to sustainability as a development and policy paradigm. Nevertheless, while conceptual plurality seems unavoidable the expressed wider challenges underline the need to understand and potentially reframe the concept and how to overcome the noted shortcomings of sustainable tourism (Wheeller 1993). A key question is on what conditions sustainable rural tourism could represent sustainable development beyond the local destination scale as the local solutions to global challenges may not be enough for the future (Saarinen 2006). Sustainability in tourism is a matter of both local and global responsibilities. Instead of tourism-centric approaches, the industry as an economic actor needs to be decentralised in the

rural development discourses and practices. Tourism's role in rural development can be seen as positive but it is often evaluated in terms of tourism employment, tourism revenue and tourist flows, etc. However, rural development involves deeper and qualitative goals, referring to an improvement in the quality of life and well-being of the people (see Pike et al. 2000) which are not automatic results of tourism development/growth indicators (Sharpley 2009). Thus, based on the original conceptualisation of sustainable development (see WCED 1987), sustainability in rural tourism development should primarily be connected with the needs of communities – not a certain industry – and the use of natural and cultural resources in rural areas in a way that will safeguard human needs and provide quality of life and well-being in the future (Redcliffe 1987). Obviously, the needs of communities and the tourism industry are not necessarily conflicting as tourism can be a fruitful tool for sustainable rural development but as indicated it may not always be the most favourable use of resources in specific locations (Butler 1999, see Bianchi 2004; Cohen 2002; Wall 1997).

The search for responsibility in sustainable tourism has demonstrated 'a market failure'. This indicates that an external intervention is quite clearly needed: the on-going new governance hollowing out state responsibilities and emphasising corporate, non-governmental or citizen (customer) responsibilities (see Rhodes 1996) has not delivered responsibility in practice for sustainable rural tourism development. Therefore, as volunteer, individual and self-organising modes of tourism development are not creating structures that would guide the main stream tourism sector towards sustainability, at least the process is taking too long time, stronger governmental and inter-governmental policies and regulations are most probably needed (see Jessop 2010). Otherwise, it seems to be almost impossible to include the future costs of current tourism development practices and development discourses, for example (see Jamal 2013). Obviously, this is very challenging but unavoidable direction to take – if the tourism industry is aimed to be guided towards sustainability beyond economic and industry-centred reasoning.

Thus, instead of going beyond sustainability in tourism, as suggested by some contemporary views, there is rather a need to take steps back towards the original ideas of sustainable development as ethically oriented approach based on the triple-bottom line of sustainability. The ethical (and ideological) element in sustainable rural tourism development is built upon both theory and practice. To seriously

expect the industry (as a private sector economic actor) to substantially share its benefits or decentralise its position in its own operations may not be realistic in practice. Therefore, the industry as a whole and its customers need to have much firmer regulative frameworks that would create and guide a wider responsibility and a path towards sustainable rural development in tourism emphasizing ecological, sociocultural and economic dimensions equally.

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# LOCAL COMMUNITY IN RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: CASE OF THE REPUBLIC OF KARELIA

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At the turn of the XX-XXI centuries tourism has become one of the world's largest industries and one of its fastest growing economic sectors. Many countries consider tourism as a main instrument for regional development, which can stimulate new economic activities. In the last few years a change has been observed in the behavior of tourists, who are now looking for another means of discovering locations, demonstrating themselves to be actively involved in their travels. Therefore, they are looking to explore new destinations where local culture, ethics, indigenous customs and the historical heritage are increasingly important, and, in this respect, they are seeking to experience cultural diversity as a means of self-enrichment (López-Guzmán T., 2011). Rural tourism provides opportunities to fully realize the needs of tourists, where rural tourism services and products can take many forms, from a simple accommodation such as bed-and-breakfasts or tours around the territory, also organization festivals, events and others

In the scientific literature we can find a great diversity of concepts about rural tourism and local community that allow a wide field for discussions and debate. Community-based Tourism (first appeared in the work of Murphy, 1985) is gaining prestige all over the world as an alternative to mass tourism. This new type of tourism favours a contact with the local community and the experimentation of different sensations (López-Guzmán T., 2011).

Rural tourism development is becoming a perspective and actual activity in rural areas. Positives and negatives impacts associated with tourism have a long time debated among researchers (Becker B, Bradbury S, 1994; Calado L., Rodrigues A., 2011).

One of the benefits of rural tourism development show the generation of income for local communities, which can be used by these communities towards the sustainability of their traditional activities, the promotion and conservation of their local arts and cultures, and the prevention of rural-urban migration (Stepanova Sv. V, Chubieva I.V, 2009; Tsephe N. P., Eyono Obono, 2013). Researchers underline that the process of tourism development in local communities is the process of community development is concluded the following aspects which include five aspects (Aref Faribors, Gill Sarjit S., 2010):

1. *Economic* - create jobs in tourism; raise the income of local people; raise funds for community development.
2. *Political* - enable the participation of local people; increase the power of the community; ensure rights in natural resource management; community is more respected by "outsiders".
3. *Social* - raise the quality of life; promote community pride; divide roles fairly between women, men/ elderly, youth; build community management organization; education.
4. *Cultural* - encourage respect for different cultures; foster cultural exchange; embed development in local culture.
5. *Environmental* - study the potential pollution of the area; manage waste disposal; raise awareness of the need for conservation; environmental education.

Rural tourism can constitute an alternative for keep young population in rural areas. At the same time as with any other type of economic activity several problems can arise from rural tourism such as (Calado L., Rodrigues A., 2011):

- environmental degradation caused by garbage, noise, depletion of the natural heritage, its fauna and flora;
- degeneration of local culture, due to the interaction of the local community with tourists from different sources;
- increase in the transit of persons and population mobility;
- abandonment of farming activities, with rural tourism constituting the main source of family income;
- increase in the cost of life in communities due;
- others.

Also, rural tourism can generate low income for local rural population, when constituting visits organized by urban tourism agencies, which also use urban tour guides. This often constitutes short visits, being that both meals and overnight staying are made in the city nearest to the place visited. This type of tourism uses the rural space and its basic infrastructures, with most of the value generated remaining in urban enterprises and employees. However, the rural community can benefit from it, since ultimately it shares the benefits generated indirectly, such as the improvement of infrastructure and public services (Calado L., Rodrigues A., 2011). Furthermore, one should not forget that many types of the jobs created by tourism development are seasonal. Another negative aspect in tourism development can be when much of the development taking place is outside the control of the local population (Becker B, Bradbury S, 1994).

Necessary to understand that rural tourism development is not the only and always successful type of the economic activity, is not the panacea for all rural problems (Bori-Sanz M., Niskanen A., 2002; Aref Faribors, Gill Sarjit S., 2010) but can consider it as the best suited for achieving rural development

Undoubtedly, tourism could favour the progress of local communities, offering tourists the opportunity to learn about its cultural heritage and to enjoy its natural resources, always on the basis of one **fundamental central** theme: the initiative and the management of the use of these natural and cultural resources for tourism purposes must come from the local community itself, which must also establish the limits of such tourism development (Johnoson P, 2010; Aref Faribors, Gill Sarjit S., 2010; Calado L., Rodrigues, 2011; López-Guzmán, T. 2011). Nevertheless, tourist activity in natural areas needs to be managed carefully, as well as planned and organized in advance, in order to maximise the benefits for locals, and enhance

nature conservation at the same time (Bori-Sanz M, Niskanen A, 2002).

In this paper consideration of the inclusion of local communities in tourism development is represented on an example of one of the rural areas of the Republic of Karelia. Region is located in the northwest of Russia and makes 1 % of territory of the Russian Federation with a share of population of 0,53% from the population of Russia (average population density - makes 0,4%) have long been known as a tourist and recreation area. More than half of territory of the Republic is covered with woods, 23% - the reservoirs, the processable grounds 1%. On the territory of Karelia there are 1,5 thousand monuments on the state account. The lake fund totals more than 60 thousand lakes and more than 23 thousand rivers. Presence of protected territories and territories having the nature protection status (5,4% of territory of the Republic of Karelia) is a base component of development of tourism.

The significance of tourism for regional development in the Republic of Karelia has increased considerably in recent 15 years. Now tourism is recognized as a business, as a factor for economic and social development of the region, but about 20-30 years ago tourism is commonly looked recreation sphere without monetary income in regional economy. Tourism is starting development as a sector for regional economy only since 90 years of the XX century, but research indexes of tourism during 2000-2010 years demonstrate high and stable trends or tourism development. The gross regional product from the all types of entrance tourism to the Republic has increased more than 300 per cent. The same period the growth of the amount of non-budget investments to tourism infrastructure is more than 450 per cent, growth of the tourism and excursion service – by 350 per cent, hotel service – by 600 percent. The growing economic role of tourism is showed qualitative transformations in tourism in the Republic of Karelia that are based on (Stepanova Sv. V, 2012):

- diversification of tourist services,
- consumption of more tourist services,
- increasing demand for more expensive tourist services,
- increasing the duration of the visit to Karelia.

At present tourism development is considered as one of the perspective guidelines of social-economic development of rural areas because can play the important role in economic growth, increase of viability of the underdeveloped rural areas and improvement of a standard of living of local popula-



tion. Involving local population to development of the rural tourism and interest of community can be a factor of stability and sustainable development of tourism in rural area and socio-economic development of territory on the whole. Tourism development is largely determined by a unique tourist potential of the territory (natural and cultural resources), material-technical base of tourism, as well as the interests of the local population in the development of this area of economic activity and support by government. That is why can suppose that territory which located in the area of influence of unique tourist objects have a comparative advantage in relation to other similar areas that aren't located in the immediate vicinity of the center of attraction of tourist flows. In this connection can assume theoretically that the development of these territories will develop more actively than in areas that do not have this advantage.

Sometimes a unique tourist potential is not perceived by the community as a possible powerful resource of its own development and socio-economic development of the area and / or has no idea about potential using to their advantage. In the case of the development of rural tourism, the possibilities can be linked precisely to the implementation of tourism services (accommodation, meals, guide service, rental equipment, etc.), sales of souvenirs, food, and others, generating additional and / or a basic income to the local community.

Inclusion local population to development of the rural tourism and interest of community can be a factor of stability and sustainable development of tourism in rural area and socio-economic development of territory on the whole.

The aim of this study is to investigate of involving local community in rural tourism development and to identify existing opportunities using tourism as a tool for community development. In this paper an example of the development of local community in rural area be represent on the one of the rural settlement of Karelia (Velikogubskoe) in territorial borders of which is situated a particularly valuable object of cultural heritage - Museum "Kizhi".

The most part of the local population live in the two villages: Velikaya Guba (51%) and on Lambasruchi (24%), the remaining 25% of the population - in 24 settlements (in 19 settlement population ranges from 1 to 25 people. and in 12 the permanent population is absent). According to the age structure of 66% of the population is a people of working age, 11% - the younger and 23% older of working age.

Pearl of the historical and cultural heritage of the Zaonezhja (where is located several rural settlements) and of the Republic of Karelia in general is ensemble of the Kizhi Pogost is an outstanding monument of Russian wooden architecture of XVII-XIX centuries. The Architectural Ensemble of the Kizhi Pogost is a UNESCO World Heritage-listed site. The Kizhi island cultural historical and natural complex is included into the State Code of Cultural Heritage Sites of Special Value of the Russian Federation (The Kizhi.). The total number of visitors since the creation is more than 6 million people, during the period 2006-2011 years - 905.771 thousand people. The dynamics of tourist flows for more than 30 year period tends to increase at the same time in 1990-1995 years recorded a significant reduction in flow that may be taking place due to the socio-economic changes in the state.

However, the purpose visiting Zaonezhje for the most tourists is a visiting the World Heritage site "Kizhi churchyard" and they is not interested in a longer meeting and stay in the territory in the immediate vicinity of the facility. Thus, the territory, located in the area of influence of the World Heritage practically excepted from the receiving of tourist flow formed by the object. That can be explained by absence of a developed modern tourist and transport infrastructure in rural area, by lack of a developed tourist programs, by insufficient development of the field of leisure and entertainment, by lack of a developed tourist products for different tourists in the category of "price-quality", by poor promotion of tourist offer in the tourist markets and others. At the same time the process of redistribution of tourist flow is a very important both for local community, for socio-economic development and also for reduce recreational pressure on about Kizhi, which is experiencing its since 2002.

It is difficult to overestimate the role of the community in protecting, preserving and ensuring the proper management of a World Heritage Site "Kizhi", as well as its role in the co storage and reproduction of the surrounding landscapes that form the integrity of the protected value of the World (most of the land and buildings in the areas of protection Kizhi area is located in private ownership). Need underline that local population can represented as a base of preservation and development of traditional land use including development of the traditional farming (the formation of the image of the Kizhi implemented in the context of the surrounding areas with open panoramic land, etc.), also as a base of the preservation and development of traditional crafts especially, the development of traditional carpentry, fishing, weaving,

embroidery. Preservation and development of the traditions, customs and ceremonies Zaonezhje culture with the possibility of showing to tourists and presentation of the traditional way of life can only by local community.

However, it should be emphasized during last century, the community itself is on the verge of extinction and almost lost as a carrier of their cultural self-identity. Thus, over the last 14 years the population has decreased by 10 times (for example, by 14 times in the village Yamka and 11 times in the village Longassi, etc.). By 2011, five localities have become former locations (Boyarschina, Eglovo, Nasonovschina, Rechka and Schepina). In the villages Vorobji, Petri, Plesca and settlement on Kizhi island (by 01.01.2012 - Former settlement) live only one person.

In addition, attention should be focused on changes for the period 1998-2010 years of the permanent and temporary population ratio of in the protected area of the object, where are located 19 of the 38 settlements of the Velikogubskogo rural settlement. So, if in 1998 year in the protected (buffer) zone the number of resident population exceed 2 times the number of seasonal people coming to this area in the spring and autumn, while in 2010 the ratio is 1:8. The increase of the population size in the buffer zone in the summer- autumn period is due to the seasonal workers of Museum, security personnel and fire inspection, tourists and seasonal entrepreneurs. During this period old village

converted into housing estates urban residents and number of population in protected Kizhi areas increases to 600 people. This raises the threat landscape degradation due to uncontrollable processes, loss of the traditional way of life of the traditional method of cultivation, which leads to loss of species characteristics, it is important for the conservation of the World Heritage, and to retain the original of Zaonezhje area. Of particular concern is the construction of new and reconstruction of historic buildings with modern materials that don't fit into the overall picture of the integrity of the object.

In protected areas of Kizhi live less 3% of the population of the Velikogubskogo rural settlement at the same time there is located about 50% of tourist accommodations of the settlement (Table 1.).

The most of accommodation (18 units) are small cottages and guest houses that can simultaneously serve 4 to 15 people (a total of about 80 % of the one-time number of tourist accommodations). The only means of accommodation where can stay about 30 people is located in the village of Sennaya Guba (protected area).

Hotel services and facilities offered accommodation in rooms of different comfort level, food, organization of excursions and workshops, equipment hire, the organization of fishing and hunting. However, the organization of the transport carriage, hunting and fishing without the appropriate licenses and requirements of safety rules can be a threat to the life and health of tourists. Also organi-

**Table 1.** Comparative characteristics of accommodations of the Velikogubskogo rural settlement (01.01.2012)

No	INDEX	VELIKOUBSKOE RURAL SETTLEMENT IN GENERAL	PROTECTED AREA	OTHER PART OF THE SETTLEMENT
1	The total number of settlements of which (units): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ former settlement</li> <li>■ settlements with a population of 1 to 5 people.</li> </ul>	<b>38</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>19</b>
		<b>13</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
		<b>12</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>
2	The share of the population, %	<b>100</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>97</b>
3	The total number of tourist accommodation, units	<b>26</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>14</b>
4	The one-time number of tourist accommodation, of which (units): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ number of beds in the former settlements</li> </ul>	<b>265</b>	<b>137</b>	<b>128</b>
		<b>52</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>32</b>
5	The ratio of one-time number of tourist accommodation to the number of local population (units - people)	<b>1:10</b>	<b>2:1</b>	<b>1:20</b>

zation of the excursion around the territory without the guides of the Museum “Kizhi” can’t provide a high quality of tour services. One of the important steps to address the implementation of the capacity development of the local community is to prolongation the Agreement on Cooperation between the museum “Kizhi” and Velikogubskoe rural community (2011). The subject of this Agreement is cooperation in the field of social and cultural activities to preserve and update the historical and cultural heritage of the Republic of Karelia, the creation of conditions to ensure the rights of citizens to have access to culture, the joint implementation of long-term socio-cultural programs and projects.

Development of rural tourism in the Karelia can play the important role in economic growth, increase of viability of the underdeveloped rural areas and improvement of a standard of living of local population. Development of rural tourism promotes preservation of an environment, culture and traditions of people living in territory of Karelia. Realization these goals is possible when the initiative and the management of the use of natural and cultural resources for tourism purpose can come from the local community itself. Involving of local community in rural tourism development can include following:

1. creating, organizing and holding cultural events (national holidays, folk festivals) with inclusion of local gastronomy, traditional music, games and costumes in the tourist products, enriches the tourist experiences, helping to create a relationship between the local community and visitors and also allow to local culture pass on to the next generation (Stepanova Sv. V, Chubieva I.V, 2009; Aref Faribors, Gill Sarjit S., 2010; Calado L., Rodrigues A., 2011; López-Guzmán T., Sánchez-Cañizares S., 2011). The revival and development of traditional crafts and formation of calendar of cultural events.
2. the creation of cooperatives and other forms of social association for creation competitive tourist product which creates a positive image and recognizability of rural area (Zaonehje) in the regional, national and international markets (Stepanova Sv. V, Chubieva I.V, 2009; López-Guzmán, T. 2011).
3. manufacturing of non-polluting production.
4. organization of training of qualified manpower is an important tool to promote adaptation of local community to be able to implement rural tourism projects (Stepanova Sv. V, Chubieva I.V, 2009; Calado L., Rodrigues A., 2011).

Thus, management of the process of rural tourism development in the Republic of Karelia is a prospective trend of social-economic development of the particular areas all Karelia on the whole. It can stabilize economic situation, soften social problems, and become a real factor of preservation, reproduction of natural and cultural-historic potential of the areas.

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# COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM IN GREENLAND: POTENTIALS AND PITFALLS IN THE VILLAGES OF UKKUSISSAT, NARSAQ AND QAANAQ

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## ABSTRACT

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Communities in the High North, peripheral and of small scale, struggling from their economic situation and from population decrease, are trying to find other development options and ways to bring in revenues. Tourism has proven to be one of the options, but not all places respond in an equal way. I will present here first hand examples, resulting from field work, showing three different experiences of community based-tourism.

- A successful experience, in Ukkusissat, a fisherman village in the West-North of Greenland, where cruise ship visits are welcomed in the village, offering a variety of activities, involving in turn several of the inhabitants. The benefits of these visits are shared among the people involved and used for social purposes in the community.
- The next example is Narsaq, the farmers' area in the South of Greenland, where rural tourism involving the sheep farmers started during the Eighties and looked very promising. Tourist expenditures were an important source of additional and sure revenue. This promising form of community-based tourism declined during the 1990s, where other forms of tourism based on ice and sledge activities have been privileged.

- The third example involves the village of Qaanaq in the High North of Greenland, a scenic but economically depressed region, where subsistence hunting is the predominant activity. The community considers community-based tourism as “the option” for future development, and some seasonal tourism activities involving the local population are going on in the area thanks, to the impressive landscape and culture. Tourism is a recurrent issue on the community discourse but so far, except for very few and limited exceptions, it is still at level of hopes and dreams.

The issues of community-based tourism, small-scale businesses and the involvement of the local population as well as the kind and pace of development, together with local control and responsibility are presented here. Achievements and drawbacks are discussed, from the role of the focus person to the lack of information and access to resources, from the aspirations tourists put in the experience to the goals set by the community, often too ambitious and therefore difficult to achieve.

**Key words:** local development; community-based tourism; peripheral places.

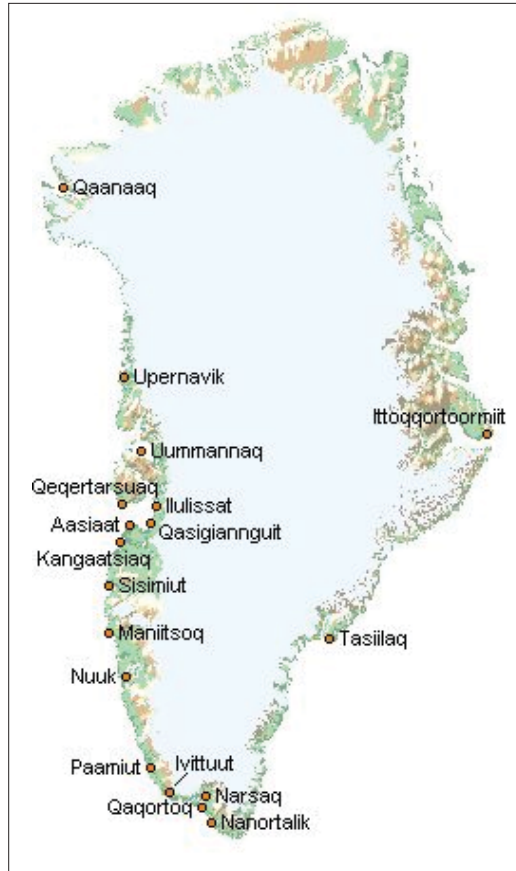
The last two decades have seen a rapid expansion of tourist activity in the Polar Regions (Stewart et al., 2005). The natural beauty, the fascination with the Far North, the never-ending search for what is new, changes in consumer preferences in combination with improved accessibility and increased technology have made the Arctic a highly attractive place. The first motivation of tourists in the Arctic nowadays is still the wildness of the landscapes, its huge and not over polluted areas. This region is exotic in view of its fascinating landscapes of tundra, icebergs, huge fjords, its ice-cap and its marvellous animals such as polar bears, musk ox and whales. Tourists want to see the midnight sun and experience the geographic conditions in the “last frontier”.

The Arctic is also attractive because of the quite relatively unknown local people (Smith, 1989). Another motivation is adventure. Some travellers need farther distances and extreme sensations to surpass their own previous achievements, to climb glaciers and hike where they hope other humans have not left a mark. This yearning to go where only explorers have been before has been emphasised by sport-oriented expeditions, popularised by the media.

Demand for new forms of tourism, such as community-based tourism, arises from increased concern and interest in unique and fragile ecosystems and, on the other hand, there is a growing desire from the tourists’ side to travel to new and exotic places. Tourism is a combination of travel and sightseeing as well as leisure and recreation, and the environment is tourism’s resource. Every survey of motivations of tourists includes on the list of reasons for visiting destination areas, factors such as sightseeing, natural and cultural heritage, and landscape impressions and there is a growing interest for new destinations, far away from the ordinary daily life that can give the visitors remarkable memories of places and encounters (Tommasini, 2011).

The three cases presented here result from field work and research projects done in Greenland at different points of time: in the South of Greenland, Narsaq and its area in 2001, in West-North Greenland, Ukkusissat part of the Uummannaq area in 2005 and in Greenland High North, Qaanaaq in 2007.

The main purpose of the surveys was to investigate how the local community perceives tourism, particularly in view as a possible source of additional income, and generally intended as a tool for development in the area. The interest of the community to start or increase tourism activities, in



Map of Greenland with the research areas. Source: Greenland Tourism, Nuuk, Greenland.

addition to the traditional ones, has been one of the interests of the research project.

It is generally said that usually a community tends to be in favour of tourism development but knows too little about it; therefore topics such as how tourism and tourism development are perceived at local level, how the population is impacted by visitors, and how the challenges of developing tourism are perceived have been in focus. The attitudes, and interest of starting tourism activities, as an attempt to increase the revenues and the local economy, the opinions about what tourism is and who the tourists are, were asked to the respondents. Opinions about tourism thought to be an agent of positive development, which could bring jobs and benefits or, on the contrary, bring only changes and alteration in the community’s way of life, were part of the investigation.

Other questions relating to the level of information about tourism as well as tourism development planning were asked, with the purpose to learn how

informed the population was about how to start and develop business in tourism, and how to benefit from it, possibly avoiding the negative effects.

## UKKUSISSAT, WEST-NORTH GREENLAND

The following is part of the outcome of the field work done in 2005 in the areas of Sisimiut, Ilulissat and Uummannaq, where Ukkusissat is one of the surrounding villages for the research project: “Local involvement on tourism business, the dynamics of development at community-base”.

One of Greenland’s northernmost towns (and former municipality) Uummannaq, although considered to be a peripheral location is, from a touristic point of view, a highly attractive tourist destination. Its impressive landscape contains all the elements of the tourist attraction: harsh landscape with tall mountains, rare vegetation, and many glaciers and icebergs. It is also attractive for its being “peripheral” which is also part of the tourist lure. Beside the landscape, many attractions can be found in the area, the Qilakitsoq mummies (a burial site containing a number of mummies around 500 years old), the rich geology of the area, extreme events such as the shark challenge and the settlements, like Ukkusissat, where hunting and trapping activities are a great cultural attraction for tourists.

In these area cases of tourism, development initiatives have an alternate fate, thus, as commonly stated in many parts, tourism is considered to be the option for future development.

Part of the Uummannaq area, the settlement of Ukkusissat (“soapstone” in Greenlandic) at the time of field work had 184 inhabitants.

Fishing is the main activity and there is a fish factory from Royal Greenland in the village; in 2004 the Ulu- Nujus fish factory for drying fish started again.

Tourist activities started after 1997, when they contacted the cruise ship *Disko* that passed by and ask them to come ashore and visit. Ukkusissat won an “initiation prize” for initiatives in the tourist sector.

Ukkusissat, started tourism activities in connection with the cruise ship *Disko II*, in 1997 when it first stopped there, and singing, dancing and kayak exhibition was performed for tourists. Otherwise no other experiences on tourism, except for the visit of few kayak drivers and a couple of skiers were experienced before.



Ukkusissat and the West-North Greenland area.  
Source: Greenland Tourism, Nuuk, Greenland.

The tourist committee, made of members of the village, is quite active, and young people are interested in future development and in more involvement on tourism activities. People declared to be ready to have more tourists, and prepared to offer more activities, such as visiting the old mine of Maarmorilik, fishing in the fjord, offering Kaffemik, which is the traditional coffee and cake meeting. For this purpose the tourist committee is working on a tourism development plan consisting among others on a list of attractions and how to get tourists there.

There are several ideas for future tourism development, from making a web page to consider buying a boat for tourist tours. Sometimes, the tourist committee declared to get good inspiration by happenings, for instance when the hotel owner in Uummannaq asked to give fully accommodation in a private house for a couple of days for two tour-



Ukkusissat, West North Greenland. Picture: D. Tommasini.

ists. This gave the idea of restoring the old empty houses to be used for tourism purposes.

In Ukkusissat there is good cooperation between the different institutions and among people. The village is cooperative, there are different associations and many occasions to meet and discuss about matters. Once a year a general meeting is held, and the whole population of the village is invited to participate and discuss the different issues. The social situation in this small and peripheral village is not as problematic as in other places, unemployment is almost non-existent and there are no significant social problems.

The salient aspect which came out from all the interviews is that the village want to do its development by their own pace. They want to keep the control over the resource and its development. They want to decide the kind of development that is suitable for the size and the structure of the village.

The village of Ukkusissat represents an exceptional case, probably unique in all Greenland. This village brings together all the issues of community-base development.

Ukkusissat responds to all the conditions requested by the research. It is of small-scale and is peripheral, the presence of hunting and fishing activities is dominant and, most of all, the local dynamism is an important element of the village, as it is the involvement and the initiative of the local

population for the development of tourism, firmly considered the option for future development.

The relevant aspects making this village special are indeed

- Local dynamism,
- Local cooperation,
- Local discourse about tourism,
- Local discourse about development,
- Local discourse about the future for the community.

## NARSAQ, SOUTH GREENLAND

The following is part of the outcome of the fieldwork done in South Greenland during summer 2001 for the research project “Tourism as a tool for development in rural areas: the sheep farmers in the South of Greenland”.

The Southern part of Greenland, where Narsaq is part of, is the most diverse region in Greenland, rich in natural, historical, and cultural attractions. Within relatively short distance it is possible to find sheep farming farmsteads, villages depending on fisheries, hunting and sheep farming, as well as towns dominated by fishing industries, tanneries, administration and education.





Map of South Greenland. Source: Greenland Tourism, Nuuk, Greenland.

Forms of rural tourist activities started in the area during the '60s. Tourists - mostly hikers with limited travel budgets - adventured there in order to experience the beauties of the landscape, and enjoy the contact with the local population, staying by the sheep farmers who provided plain accommodation and facilities. Tourism became very popular and seemed, during the 70s and 80s, to be a growing activity. Despite these potentials the activity has been neglected during the recent years, where other forms of tourism have been privileged.

From the point of view of tourism, South Greenland is known as the area of the sheep farms (commercial sheep farming activity dates back to the beginning of 1900, introduced as an attempt to create new livelihoods for the local population), Norse and Inuit ruins, tiny villages and great scenery. The major tourist season is mainly the summer season, from the beginning of July to the end of September.

During the 1970s and the 1980s in South Greenland, the Danish Hikers Organisation *Dansk Vandrelaug* was very active in organising outdoor recreational activities such as trekking and hiking around the municipalities of Qaqortoq, Narsaq and Nanortalik. The main purpose was to offer specially targeted tourists the beauties of the landscape, to enjoy the sporting activities and have a pleasant stay at reasonable prices in direct contact with the inhabitants. Sheep farmers offered houses or cabins and provided facilities to the tourists-hikers. This kind of accommodation became very popular in many ways and for both tourists as well as the local population the special unique experience was possible without high expenses, and gave way to close contacts with the relatively unknown, local population. For the inhabitants, besides offering the accommodation, there was a possibility to sell souvenirs, such as carved and sewed items, and to sell local products like fresh lamb meat, which generated supplementary income.



Farms in the Narsaq area, South Greenland. Picture: D. Tommasini

There has never been any continuous monitoring of the economic outcome of the South Greenland tourism. An analysis of the costs and benefits from sheep farming made in 1989 indicates that the total revenue directly for the sheep farmers was around 250,000 Dkk. for cabin rents, and another 41,000 for the local transportation [Rasmussen et al., 1989: 29]. In addition, the sale of sheep products directly to the tourists' also generated income straight to the farmers, just as local boat transportation generated around 1,000 Dkk. per tourist. An important aspect to highlight, and contrary to the organised package tours, the tourist expenditures were retained locally for the benefit of the local population, and despite the shortness of the "good" season this was an important source of additional and most of all, secure revenue. Accessibility to the area was not a problem thanks to the vicinity of the international airport of Narsarsuaq, and to bring the tourists to the settlements was not a problem either. Farmers provided the transport from harbour to cabin by tractor, and local outfitters managed the local boat transportation. Usually a two-week tour would mean subsequent staying in Narsarsuaq, then in two or three different villages, and finally a couple of days in one of the larger towns. The settlement structure in the region, with farms located along the coast, assured a good spread of potential possible accommodation in a large part of the territory, as well as a good spread of the generated revenues.

Hiking tourism in South Greenland started declining during the 1990s. Different reasons for the decline can be found, and probably the most important, at least at an institutional/decisional level, is that the Home Rule Government of Greenland by the deputy organisation for tourism: *Greenland Tourism* was seeking for a different image of tourism in Greenland. The strategy at that time emphasised the wealthy tourists seeking "ice-attractions" and all the activities related to by the tourists perceived the traditional way of life in Greenland, such as the dog sledge activities. These types of tourists were generally perceived as visitors spending large amounts of money for the holidays unlike the hikers and trekkers.

The general impression is of dynamic, motivated farmers, looking for new ideas to increase revenues and increased quality of life. The most concrete ideas seem at present to be tourism development and the production of vegetables. The latter presently nothing more than selling the surplus of own production at the local markets in Narsaq. Indeed, to boost the cultivation of potatoes, turnip and carrots can be an interesting alternative be-

sides sheep farming. The other concrete alternative to get additional revenue is represented by tourism. The farms are located in beautiful surroundings, close to the sea, or a waterfall or a lake; this unusual landscape and the isolation of the farm is the perfect idyllic situation, and confer the holiday a special flair, and constitutes a tremendous advantage when talking about tourism potentials.

Many have thought about initiating activities related to tourism, and some have already started. Starting points are different, some have been involved by an external organisation, the local tourist office or a tour operator, while others have been self initiated.

Many things influence the decision to start a tourist activity, but not only from the perspective of extra revenue. Sometimes there is a wish to do something different, and tourism seems to be a suitable activity. However, too often, when people start to be involved with tourist activities, they know too little about it. This is very common when tourism is meant to be an additional activity, and is done by non-professional people. According to the interviews there is a lack of information and support, and even the strongest motivation to start something new sometimes gives way to some disenchantment.

For instance, in regard to revenue, it takes time to have some tangible effects. Clearly start up capital has to be put into the initiative, and for some time gains will not be significant, even with good performances. Only after a certain time, and a consolidated activity, gains will develop.

Nothing is immediate and tourists - despite what is too often said by governments and agencies - are not bringing a "lot of money". Most of the tourist payment for transportation and package tours goes towards the airline and tour operators, usually located outside the region. In this way, a big part of tourist expenditure (travel and tour) leaks out of the local economy (Smith, 1992).

The discrepancy between all the talks about "tourism equal money" and the reality has been somehow recognised by some of the interviewees. Nonetheless, after an initial disappointment they declared to be satisfied with starting the activity for all what it brings with, money, meeting other people, having interesting experiences, and some of them were pleased to declare that after the second season all the debts were paid.

Usually in the Arctic, the lack of infrastructure and accommodation is one of the key problems. However in South Greenland accommodating tourists is not a problem, since the farms are big and some farmers declared to have a hut that can be

refurbished and used for tourist purposes. Farmers declared that tourism seems to be an opportunity, but they wish to know more about it. They need to be informed on how to start and develop business in tourism, how to benefit from it, and how to possibly avoid the negative effects.

In general, tourism is positively considered. The idea of hosting tourists or being involved in some tourist activity is well considered by the farmers, thinking not only of the perceived economic advantages, but also on the possibilities of meeting people, and becoming acquainted with new places and ways of life. No dangers are perceived so far, except for some concern on massive numbers of tourists coming at once.

People expressed the need for more local presence. They would like to have more meetings and exchanges with leaders and representatives of the institutions. They feel that experts, municipalities, tourist office (local or general) representatives are too far away, and not only physically.

They demand a local association for the development of tourism, and to be connected with the main ones. They would like to have more contact with the people in charge for the development of tourism, for the farming opportunities, e.g. vegetables production, etc. There is a lack of a local leader, or expert to collect all matters, wishes and problems, and be the referent to the above organisation.

## QAANAQ, GREENLAND HIGH NORTH

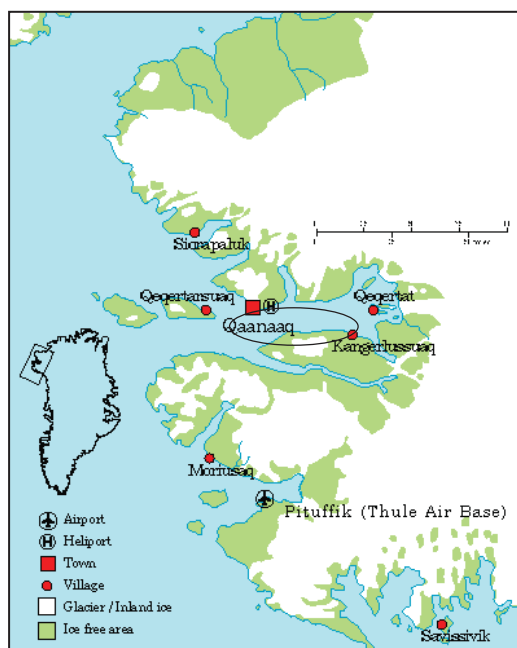
The community of Qaanaaq (pop. 640 in Qaanaaq, and 850 in the whole area in 2007) is to be found in the most northerly district in Greenland “*Avanersuaq*”, which means the place of the farthest north, and stretches between 70 and 80 degrees North, from Melville Bay in the south up to Smith Sound. Archaeological evidence, suggests that the first settlers of Avanersuaq arrived some 5000 years ago after crossing Smith Sound from Canada. The direct ancestors of today’s Inuit belonged to the “Thule” culture and reached Avanersuaq soon after 1000 A.D.

Qaanaaq was established in 1952 following the Danish authorities’ decision to move the local population, “*Inughuit*” (the great people) from their home village Ummannaq (Dundas) because of its close proximity to the American Thule Air Base. Greenland’s most northern town, has a number of facilities (the hotel, the supermarket, the bakery, the post office, the tourist office, and a little,

well-equipped hospital), and a museum, which is housed in the former home of the famous arctic explorer Knud Rasmussen, who in 1910 established the district’s first trading post called “Thule” after the Latin name of Ultima Thule.

Of all the settlements showed in the detailed map only Siorapaluk, Savissivik, Moriusaq and Qeqertaq are permanently inhabited. The other places have been gradually abandoned at different points of time, although, some of the settlements are still visited for hunting activities and for dog sledge trips with tourists, and the huts are used as shelter for hunting parties going out hunting for longer periods.

In Qaanaaq town like in the other peripheral districts, hunting activities are predominant and are substantial components of the informal economy, and of the subsistence sector. The possibilities to diversify the activities, and thus, having an extra income, are rather limited in this peripheral and scarcely populated area. Beside some administrative jobs, there is a Handicrafts Centre, *The Ultima Thule*, managed on a cooperative basis but administratively and financially supported by municipal authorities, with facilities for making handicrafts (in a different building) and a shop for displaying and selling. The raw materials (narwhale and walrus tusk, polar bear claws, and skin from fox, seal and polar bear) used for producing are bought from the local hunters.



Qaanaaq and the surrounding area, Greenland High North. Source: Greenland Tourism, Nuuk, Greenland.

A sparsely populated, scenic, but economically depressed and quite isolated area. Hunting is the predominant economic (and subsistence) activity. Some tourism activities are taking place in the area, thanks to the impressive landscape and its remoteness. This together with the mythical aura of the *Ultima Thule*, has a great tourism potential. The region, not always easy to reach, symbolizes one of the last frontiers in tourism. As literature shows (Smith, 1989; Osherenko, and Young, 1989; Sugden, 1989; Johnston, 1995; Jacobsen, 1997), some travelers need farther distances, extreme sensations, and to surpass their own previous achievements, Qaanaaq embodies all this, and the community may consider tourism as an economic development option in the near future development.

The remote and quite unknown place has a great potential from a touristic point of view being perceived, in the eyes of the visitors, as a far away and untouched destination representing the myth of the *Ultima Thule*.

The Tourist Office in Qaanaaq has a large variety of activities to offer to the tourists; from dog sledge to kayak or motorboat tours, to hiking trips also to the ice cap, the icebergs, and the glaciers. Whale and bird watching trips are offered as well as ice fishing, and arctic char fishing parties. Tourists can buy a tourist's license to hunt most game, except polar bear, walrus and whales. Short hikes

to the ice cap and visit to archaeological sites can be arranged. The cultural offer includes drum dancing, choir singing, showing and telling about the traditional costume, and kayak show. The tourist office also provides accommodation in Qaanaaq and the surrounding settlements. In Qaanaaq, besides the hotel (5 double rooms), there are nine rooms which can be rented (at telegraph and ionosphere stations), and in the settlements the accommodation is offered in private homes.

At present there are no qualified outfitters in the area; the local hunters and fishermen are involved in the tourist activities.

About income deriving for tourism-related activities, hunters involved as guides declared to be satisfied about the money earned from the tours. They declared that when the tourist season arrives and they have the opportunity to go out with tourists by sledge they are glad to slow down a little bit the hunting and go out with tourists being the money gained "good money" even though, they say, prices are cheaper than before (where there was more tourism activities going on) and tourists pay different prices (different agreements, if groups or according to the amount of days), the revenue from tourism activities is important. In the community the main income source is from hunting products (narwhal mattaq and narwhal tusk) followed by tourism. Actually, economic transfers are probably the main source of income in the community.



Qaanaaq, Greenland High North. Picture: D. Tommasini

Generally, interviewees agree that it is a good income to have tourists, especially now, that the ice is going thinner making hunting places difficult to reach. Many affirmed to have started to work with tourists in the 90ies, when the hunting was not so good and they needed to have an extra income.

Some interviewees see tourism as a good “beside” option, also because of the hunting restrictions; some of them would like to be guides as first occupation, with hunting as beside activity.

They declared to have not so many sled dog tourists as wished but recognize that the profit stays in the community. Cruise ship tourism is not seen as an opportunity because - they said- cruise ship tourists do not leave any money. They suggest to bring cruise ship tourists in the inside water area with small boats, so tourists can enjoy the whales without disturbing for the animals and hunters can earn some money.

In Qaanaaq a real tourism development has not taken place yet, the tangible benefits are presently limited to a small fraction of the population, the tourist season is limited, and so the benefits that can be derived having an offer spreading also to the off season (peak is considered the sledge tour season, in summer mainly cruise ships, where arrivals depending on ice conditions). There is a lack of infrastructure and of professionalism. When the season is approaching, hunters call the hotel and the tourist office but, as they declared, not much is happening.

In general the interviewees would like to have more contact with tourists, they miss the large groups (of 10 – 16) they had in the 90ies. Tourist groups have then declined to small groups of two to four tourists. Interviewees recognise that there is urgent need “to do something” being clear that there is not so much going on with tourism like in other places in Greenland.

The interest in developing “tourism” exists in the community, what is not clear yet - as interviewees declared, is how and when. A lot of talks are going on in the community in general and among families.

About seasonality, interviewees think that in April, May and June it will be good to have the opportunity of guiding tourists; they represent a very good beside income in a time where hunting is poor, being only based on seals and the sealskin is not for selling because at this time the animals change the fur.

Furthermore, they expressed a need of an association, with a web page where they can be contacted directly by the tourists, allowing them to know more about the tourists and what they want to do when they come.

Another issue is about a place for tourists, a place where they can go, have refreshments and some entertainment. Presently only the hotel can possibly provide this.

In summer 5 or 6 cruise ship arrives, normally 50 to 200 passengers. Tourists come ashore and go to Ultima Thule souvenir shop, to the museum and around in town to take a look and then go again. Interviewees agree in saying that cruise ship tourists are not so profitable, because hunters cannot do some activities with them, but they could be taken to some places by boat, i.e. to see the abandoned settlements or in the near abandoned village of Qeqertarsuaq.

A general consensus is that language is a problem. Hunters have a very limited knowledge of the English language, mainly just a few words. Aware of that, interviewees feel the need to have to learn in order to give tourists a complete experience. Some of the hunters feel unease because of this hindrance, saying that tourists buy the trip and the hunters are not supposed to be paid only for bringing tourists around, but they should also be adept with the language to be able to communicate with them.

## CONCLUSIONS

A peripheral region is one that suffers from geographical isolation, being distant from the core sphere activities, with poor access to and from the markets, and also from economic marginalization, a low level of economic vitality, lacking in infrastructures and amenities, with reliance on imports, suffering from poor information flows, outmigration (usually the more active and talented), and an ageing structure, with low or frequently declining population, accruing the sense of remoteness. Peripheral areas often lack in effective control over major decisions, lack of planning, of education and of entrepreneurship (Botterill et al, 2000). From an economic point of view the world is divided into core and periphery. In the tourism context the concept has been applied to the relationship between the rich tourist-generating countries and the less developed tourist-receiving regions where businesses from the rich countries remain in control of the industry and reap most of the profits (Turner and Ash, 1975; Brown, Hall, 2000). In the case of Greenland the concept of periphery is more a matter of perception: a place that is remote and difficult to reach may be perceived by tourists (and others) as having certain emblematic qualities such as natural beauty, quaintness (appeal),

and otherness which can constitute the attraction, even with the presence of some typical elements of peripherality. It is this perception which represents the key to the development of tourism in peripheral areas. In terms of tourism, the characteristic of peripherality, long seen as a drawback, are now seen as offering opportunities (see the new Greenland Tourism campaign). Nowadays isolation and remoteness represent peace, difference, even exoticism. (Brown, Hall 2000).

Peripheral tourism usually also suffers from a high proportion of small and/or family owned businesses, which limit tourism development. This may not be the case for the type of tourism which has emerged in peripheral areas in Greenland, i.e., in the settlements, where hunters offer tourism services, boat trips or sledge rides, which are well-suited as a secondary activity. The style and level of tourism developed in each region varies; the cases also differ in terms of the nature of their peripherality. The common factor is the need to develop alternative economic activities (cf. Blackman et al. 2004). Effectively, the impact made by tourism depends on both the volume and profile characteristics of the tourists (including their length of stay, activity, mode of transport, and travel arrangement). In this respect, a number of authors have attempted to classify tourists according to their impact on the destinations (see, for example, Smith, 1977; 1989). The character of the resource (including its natural features, level of development, political and social structure) is equally important because it determines the degree of its robustness to tourism and tourism development (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). As to the need for strategic alliances and cooperative partnerships, research indicates that successful alliances require strong leaders, good administrative support, and adequate representation of all interests, a shared vision and communication. (Selin, Myers, 1998)

Many small-scale regions and peripheral remote areas have attempted to enhance their economic situation through the promotion of tourism (Blackman et al., 2004).

Much has been written about the need to involve local population in the planning and development of tourism (Lewis and Newsome 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2002; Smending, 1993; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Pearce, 1992; Pigram, 1992; Anderson, 1991; Murphy, 1985). Less has been written on how to accomplish this ideal and to reach the high expectations of better income, more jobs and an improved quality of life, created by policy-makers and tourism developers.

A general question, however, is to what extent can the development of tourism in a remote peripheral area be seen as a concrete possibility for viable economic and socio-cultural sustainability, and to what extent can the local communities obtain some benefits from tourist development.

There is often a lack of access to the requisite capital and skills. The opportunity costs of resident involvement in the industry must also be considered. For example a tour guide's investment of time and money may hinder the ability to hunt (Nickels, Milne, and Wenzel, 1991).

With only local ownership there may also be some hindrances to the external markets, which are the main component of the product. Tourists are largely coming from outside and local communities may lack in knowhow and familiarity in how to approach these markets. It is vital for peripheral communities to attract new and different markets (Pearce, 2002). These places are rarely destinations that are repeatedly visited by tourists, distance and costs are decisive and usually these remote places remain once-in-a-life-time destinations.

Tourism planning should be based on the priorities and goals of community residents (Hall, 2000; Murphy, 1985). Sustainable tourism development requires local input and involvement and it is imperative that local people have continual access to information about the tourist development, starting from the earliest stages of its growth. Every effort should be made to inform the community as thoroughly as possible about the impacts of tourist development, to allow them to make informed decisions about their community's future (Nickels, Milne, Wenzel, 1991:166).

Common aspects which emerged from the three cases are:

- Local communities in peripheral areas seldom have the business skills necessary to engage successfully over the long term.
- The level of information among the local population regarding tourism development options, and support is quite limited.
- At community level, there is a request for more support in terms of financial and technical assistance but also in training on the different skills necessary when starting with tourism activities.
- The efforts of the institutions to involve the local community in the process of development and planning seems to be almost incomplete when not absent
- There is a need for a clear definition and planning for future development.

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# RURAL TOURISM IN SOUTH TYROL (DOLOMITES, ITALY): COMMUNITY COHESION, LOCAL DEVELOPMENT AND FARMER'S IDENTITY

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## ABSTRACT

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After WWII rural peripheral areas of South Tyrol were suffering from an acute economic crisis.

The idea of rural tourism came spontaneously in the late Fifties from the farmers. The winning cards have been the community cohesion and the willingness of the local population, especially the women.

On account of the success of rural tourism at the community-base, the spontaneous form became a political project in the Seventies with development plans; special (local) laws were made and funding was given to the isolated farmers of the mountains.

Within 20 years the economic situation changed radically. The well being of the farmers became a reality; rural tourism has been the major additional resource to the income of the high mountain farmers, which are permanently appropriately informed and courses are still held for people who want to start or to improve their knowledge on rural tourism.

The process has occurred without compromising the cultural heritage. South Tyrol has, to a significant degree, been able to preserve its cultural identity and tradition through rural tourism, and the farmers have primarily been involved in the protection and the care of the environment.

Presented here is a brief summary of my twenty years evaluation of the "*Urlaub am Bauernhof*" (holiday at the farm).

South Tyrol is one of the self-governing provinces of Italy. A mountainous region with 85,9% of

the 7.400 km<sup>2</sup> of the surface area is above 1.000 m. of altitude. Its population of 450.000 has three ethnic groups: German 68%, Italian 28%, Ladin (retho-romanian) 4%. The main town is Bolzano/Bozen. The people in the economic sector are employed in: agriculture and forestry 12.3%; industry 24.8%; and services 62.9%. This region was part of the Austrian monarchy and became part of Italy after the First World War in 1919. The German-speaking population struggled for political autonomy, for equal recognition of the German language at every level (administration, schools, justice) with the goal of achieving a large independence from the central state. After long negotiations (from 1945 to 1997) Italy conceded a wide degree of autonomy and an important financial support to South Tyrol.

Tourism is historically well established, in a modern sense it took off at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, favoured by the beauties of the landscape and its location in the southern slope of the Alps, which means sunny weather and mild temperatures also during the autumn and the spring. At that time tourism was synonymous with health-tourism. The discovery of this mountains, in this case the Dolomites, in the sense of climbing and skiing, came later and prepared the way for the development of alpine tourism.

One of the expressions of Alpine tourism is rural or farm tourism, which has represented an important opportunity for the development of remote areas with traditional way of living. Rural mountain areas of South Tyrol could not benefit from growing apples and grapes like in the valleys and did not have many ways to bring in revenues. At





Seiser Alm, is one of the tourism icons of South Tyrol. Picture: D. Tommasini

the political level there was an urgent need to find a solution for the economical situation, especially for the farmers of the high mountains. The need for a solution was an imperative also to avoid cultural disruption.

The South Tyrolean agriculture is typical mountain agriculture, with a total surface of 740.000 hectares two thirds (64%) are above 1.500 meters above sea level (masl) and 86% is over 1.000 masl (Lerop, 1992). The main problems for the farmers are the morphology, the scarcity of the harvested products and little possibility of mechanization.

At the beginning of the Fifties 80% of the farms was located in the mountains and 43% of the total labour force was constituted by farmers. In 1961 the farmers were equal to 31% of the total labour force. In 2010, the 6<sup>th</sup> general census of agriculture counted 20.212 farms, 12.7% less than the 23.150 of year 2000 (Astat, 2010: 2). It is impossible for many farms to live only from the income of the farming activity, more than the half need to supplement their incomes with additional, beside activities outside the farm. The activity which had the major development in the last 10 years is tourism

at the farm, here “*Urlaub am Bauernhof*”. For the farmers tourism was an option to be considered, farmers were already involved with tourism but it was only sporadically and marginal activities, such as transport, or as carriers or guides. With rural tourism the possibility to get directly involved arose, giving way to new economic possibilities.

By large, the majority of the farmers belong to the German ethnic and speaking group. In South Tyrol to be a farmer is a cultural, social status and one becomes farmer through family tradition. Being a farmer means also being in charge of taking care of the identity, which is strongly connected to the territory and the landscape. It has to be mentioned that after WWI, when this part of Tyrol became part of the Kingdom of Italy and of the Fascist regime- eager to Italianize this new territories “imported” industries and Italian workers for these industries, who then settled in the towns. As a reaction, the farmers in the countryside took special care of the environment, made a distinctive landscape as part of their identity. Still today, the towns are of Italian speaking majority, the countryside is almost totally German-speaking.

The general process of development and economic growth characterising Italy during the Fifties and the Sixties is that agriculture became marginal and the rural world enter a period of crisis. This happened also in South Tyrol and one of the suggestions to stop the mass migration from the countryside is the creation of subsidiary activities to farming, such as the development of small industrial entities to be located in the proximity of the villages, or rural tourism. (Brugger, 1963: 61; Brugger, 1967: 19; Pan 1967: 10, 11.). The main goal was to avoid the abandonment of the farm and to keep and reinforce the strong ties with the earth and the farm (*Hof, Geschlossener Hof*) and the value of being a “farmer”.

It is from these aspects that the idea of rural tourism entered the political debate and received its institutional status. With the economical and developmental plans at a local level this was among the goals for the farms located in mountainous areas: economical and social advantages of binding tourism development with agriculture, through rural tourism.

The main actors of the idea of “*Urlaub auf den Bauernhof*” (literally: holiday at the farm) are the Catholic Church, and the South Tyrolean Farmers Association, “*Südtiroler Bauernbund*”.

At the beginning of the Sixties, the catholic movement has some worries about the growing occurrence of “opening to tourism” that was taking place in South Tyrol. The main problem, according to the Bishop (Josef Gargitter) was the kind of influence tourism may have on the Christian faith, particularly if tourism will disconnect Christians from God. However, the Church was in favour of tourism if the observants would follow the precepts of the Bible and of the Gospel, and would not pay much attention to the materialistic interests, such as money and by doing so- not forget the fundamentals of Christianity, which does not only pertain to hospitality but also to the private and personal sphere: the family and the children (J. Gargitter, “*Der Christ und der Fremdenverkehr*”, *Fastenhirtenbrief* 1959, Brixen 1959).

In all probability, the most effective information drives were the ones organized from the beginning of the Sixties in every village, even in the tiny settlements. These conferences were conducted by two ladies from the agricultural department and a priest. The aim was to publicize and propagate the idea of “*Urlaub auf den Bauernhof*”. To offer hospitality at the farm was not a new idea; new was the “formula”: from the simple way of hosting typical of the “*Sommerfrische*” (as a usual escape from the



Farms in Ulten Valley, Südtirol. Picture: RB studio, Bozen.

warm heat of the valleys) to more professionalism at the farm. This originated from the guests' demand of more comfort: they wished to have at least electricity and running water in the room beside the possibility to reach the farm by car.

At the same time, it was important to let farmers understand that the expenses to improve the structure were limited, only minimal adjustments were required: it was sufficient to make one of two rooms comfortable. To make the plan more attractive, the “sure” perspective- that with the new activity, money was soon available- was spread. The possibility to have hard cash available, compared to the usual profits of the farm, was very attractive because it was immediate, and it was extremely infrequent and unusual to have money available at the farm.

The goal was to propagate this form of hospitality at the farm in order to increase the revenues especially for the more peripheral, isolated farms. The first regulation came in 1973 with the Provincial Law (1973, n.42) “Provvidenze per il turismo rurale/Massnahmen zur Förderung des Urlaubes auf dem Bauernhof” with fixed principles and standards, which secured the possibility to access very favourable credits to ameliorate the farm and the infrastructure. Now the initiative “*Urlaub auf den Bauernhof*” is growing, when not even booming among farmers and is spearheaded by the

South Tyrolean Farmers Association (*Südtiroler Bauernbund*). If the most tangible effect was the availability of hard cash at the farm, and the opinion was that with little additional work the benefits were more than considerable and substantial other things made the initiative attractive. Particularly interested were the women farmers, who, despite of the extra work they were having, considered the profits to be significant and direct. In addition, the possibility to stay at the farm and take care of the children- and by this way keeping the family at the farm was also deemed vital.

The goal of “*Urlaub auf den Bauernhof*” was not only economic but also of social and cultural character, the aim was to impede the abandonment of the farm, to stop the exodus towards the valley floor. This was only possible through ameliorating the life condition, giving possibilities to the population living in the mountains and breaking the isolation- also culturally by means of hosting and being in contact with people of same cultural roots and language (still, the majority of the tourists of “*Urlaub auf den Bauernhof*” come from the German-speaking area).

An average of 3.000 farms offer “*Urlaub auf den Bauernhof*”. Their main objectives consist of supporting and promoting the tourism-at-the-farm activities. Training courses of different subjects are conducted, such as assistance for tax regime, mar-



Urlaub am Bauernhof in Pfitsch, Wipp Valley, Südtirol. Picture: courtesy of Südtiroler Bauernbund, Bozen.

keting and other support activities. In 1999 the Association of the South Tyrolean farmers created a brand, “Roter Hahn - Gallo Rosso” (the red rooster) which, with 1,500 farms, offers different forms of rural tourism and quality products.

As we have seen at the first stages, rural tourism in South Tyrol was very spontaneous and pioneer; it was the initiative and the spirit of venture of single “entrepreneurs”. An important precedent was the past experience of the “*Sommerfrische*” the simple, almost austere way of making holiday that nonetheless prepared the mentality of hosting people at home, with the family, in the private sphere. The first steps of rural tourism depended totally on self-initiative and self-financing. These investments were of course minimal but important for the precarious situation of many of the farms. Savings were usually put aside to compensate the other siblings, who were excluded from the farm. Following the institution of “Geschlossener Hof”, in order to avoid splitting the property the family hands over the whole farm to only one child, who is usually the firstborn. This is to underline how important the decision to enter the “adventure” of “*Urlaub am Bauernhof*” was.

At the institutional level, very little was known about the size and consistency of this still new happening “*Urlaub am Bauernhof*” at the end of the Sixties. Only estimations were made; for example, numbers solely based on the farmer women’s growing demand for training courses from the department for agriculture and forestry. Exactly this department promoted the law (1973, n.42) which was inspired by the necessity to integrate the revenues and ameliorate the quality of life of the mountain’s farmers by using the favourable circumstance of the development of tourism and rural tourism. Consequently in 1973, after more than 10 years of pioneering and experimenting, specific legislative measures were taken to discipline tourism at the farm and rural tourism in general (L.P. 1973, n.42). This law had an immediate effect on the development of tourism at the farm: in 1980, already 1.000 farms were involved in tourism at the farm activities or engaged in rural tourism activities

In 1985 the provincial law (1988, n.57) “La disciplina e lo sviluppo dell’agriturismo / Regelung und Förderung des Urlaubes auf dem Bauernhof und des entsprechenden Nebenerwerbes” promoted the harmonisation between State laws and European laws (797/ 1985), aiming at the development of the agriculture, the improvement of the farmer’s quality of life and the better use of the building stock of the natural patrimony and highlighting the typical products. Some fundamentals

are integrated, such as limitations on who can conduct a tourism-at-the-farm business: it is a requirement to be listed on a dedicated register, where all the tourism-at-the-farm operators are enrolled. This register specifies also the activities, which can be done at the farm, from hospitality to offering meals, selling own products, and organising leisure and cultural activities within the farm. The requirement for food and beverages is that almost 50% of the product has to be produced in the farm and for the 40% coming from cooperatives (Assessorato all’agricoltura e foreste, 1993: art.2 comma 3 e 4). The last regulatory action is from 2008 (L. P. 2008, n. 7) and introduces professional training as mandatory for every rural tourism activity. A new activity is contemplated: the party service- a catering of food and beverages that have to be produced at the farm or in the adjacent agricultural area, wherein the products have to be typical and traditional orf South Tyrol.

The idea to develop tourism in a rural context in South Tyrol had important social and cultural implications, beside the economic gains. It was essential to reconstruct the solid bind with the own land after the difficult years of the “*Option*” (the South Tyrol Option Agreement refers to the “option” given to the native German speaking people in South Tyrol of either emigrating to Germany or remaining in Italy between 1939 and 1943) and the post-war period. It was necessary to find a solution for the Geschlossener Hof rules that allow the siblings excluded from the heritage of the farm to continue to stay at the farm having another activity, which is tourism. Moreover, it was vital to secure the survival of the minor rural communities through the improvement of the services, at least through electrification and road connection.

For the Church, tourism is seen as an opportunity for improvement but needs to know in advance the risks it poses for the rural family, for the local tradition and way of life. Nonetheless the Church has a positive opinion of its community, considered as sober and industrious. For the Church doing tourism is an occasion of promoting the catholic principles emphasizes the cultural, natural and historical patrimony for itself and for the others.

The “*Urlaub am Bauernhof*” model is essentially of German matrix and is an evolution of the “*Sommerfrische*” practice adapted to the changes of the times. Professionalism was the new element for “relation”, which with the *Sommerfrische* was more meant for families and relatives who went to the farms in the mountains, visiting and relaxing. Being rural and mountainous regions, which tend to be quite closed and strongly rooted to the tradi-



Farms in Oberhausgut, Südtirol. Picture: courtesy of Südtiroler Bauernbund, Bozen.

tion, the experience of opening and having contact with people from the valley or the town, even for the limited time of the “*Sommerfrische*” have had a significant, cultural, precedent in the first experiences of tourism at the farm. Now the farmers cater to “foreigners”, which in turn challenges them to adapt the farm to the new demands, one of which is to train the farmer women. The opening of the *Hof* (the farm) to tourism gives way, probably for the first time, to the appreciation and esteem of the women, who are the central element and the focus of the new venture.

The Sixties are the years of the pioneer experimentation of this model. The legal instrument comes later in 1973, when the transition from a more structured and professional form of reception has already taken place. This model reveals its validity, with the necessary adjustments, after the years. Avoiding the abandonment of the mountains allows the farmers to be connected to the tradition and to continue the activities at the farm, which is essentially a great tourist attraction. To rely on an additional, secure revenue, sometimes even the first source of income of the farm, allowed safeguarding traditional activity models, avoiding the flight to the town, avoiding commuting and have

time, for instance to take care of the herd, bring the cows to the pastures, cut the grass and do all the activities following traditional methods; traditional activities that confer a specific, traditional sign to the landscape, a cultural footprint that has a tremendous tourism appeal. Giving the farmer women the possibility to stay at the farm and take care of the tourists without having to commute to town, gives them more time to take care of the flowers and the vegetable garden, and once more create a charming landscape, one of the major tourism attractions of South Tyrol.

In South Tyrol, tourism is a solid reality. Developing tourism instead of industrialisation, whatever may the reasons be - resisting industrialisation during fascism, creating a well functioning tourism sector before the war, or return of the traditional German clientele after the war – it allowed to perpetuate and safeguard aspects of the territory that otherwise would have disappeared.

The landscape, a fundamental resource of tourism, instead of being destroyed from industrialisation is still a leading factor of tourism, which is a development of the old, plain practice of spending some days of vacation on a farm in South Tyrol.



Traditional costumes in Reinswald, South Tyrol. Picture: courtesy of Sarner Tourismusverein.

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# LOCAL COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN TOURISM IN YENICE COUNTY (YC), KARABUK, TURKEY

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## ABSTRACT

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This study is intended to contribute to the community-based tourism literature in Turkey via the detailed analysis of tourism development in Yenice County (YC). YC, whose tourism industry has been growing over the last five years, is a region in which nature-based tourism has been developing. It attracts tourists for its unique ecosystem, unspoiled forest, and biodiversity. The main aim of this study is to find out the effects of the tourism industry in the local community, to determine the perceptions of local people towards tourism, and to identify the contributions of tourism from the viewpoint of local authorities. The study involves primary data obtained from open, qualitative interviews; most of the quantitative data were obtained from household surveys, whereas much of the qualitative data came from local authorities. The results of the survey indicate that the local people show a positive attitude towards the increasing number of tourists in the region because they have high expectations of the tourists on a long-term basis. The results also show that the economic benefits from nature-based tourism in YC are smaller than is commonly expected. In addition, some social changes can be observed in the area, such as the changing mentality towards tourists and strangers, even if the level of touristic development is not high enough. Although residents of Yenice are very hospitable to strangers, when they first saw visitors in their area they avoided building friendly relationships with them, especially with the foreign tourists, because they were not in favor of what they saw as unconventional behavior. The development of the tourism industry has not yet created a noticeable differ-

ence in the region's economy, but it has in terms of social life. It also needs to be borne in mind that the local people have had little capital to invest and have experienced great difficulty in entering the tourism industry.

**Keywords:** Community-based tourism, community participation, impacts of tourism, Yenice County (YC).

## INTRODUCTION

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Tourism has been frequently taken as an alternative option, in developing countries, to maintain the continuous development of the economy in remote or rural areas where the primary traditional industries are in decline (Ying and Zhou, 2007). This is also true in Turkey, where a large number of rural and cultural tourism destinations have emerged since the 1990s. The need to break with routine has changed the monotony of traditional sea-sand-and-sun tourism in Turkey.

At the beginning of the 21st century, a change was observed in the motivations of tourists, new tourists, or "postfordist tourists" (Urry, 1995, cited in Fiorello and Bo, 2012), who rejected mass tourism and demanded alternative forms of tourism. New tourists are attracted by opportunities that offer authentic contact with other cultures and sustained traditions. They are looking for an unfamiliar scene, which involves a new landscape as well as the discovery of new cultural elements and civilizations. Indeed, these travelers do not want to limit their contacts with the host community to commercial contacts. They appreciate locally grown products and traditional dishes. In reaction

to the destructive impact of mass tourism and the expectations of the new tourists, alternative forms of tourism have developed, such as pro-poor tourism, ecotourism, and CBT (Fiorello and Bo, 2012). This could also have been due to knowledge of new destinations, up to that point unexplored by tourists, and the search for a destination with a greater focus on local customs, history, ethics, and a particular culture (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011). In this sense, unexpected local culture, unspoilt natural beauty, wildlife, and the habitat of the destination are looked on as means of enriching the enjoyment of increasingly active tourists who are looking for new experiences and adventure (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011).

The effect of all this is that rural areas are undergoing a transformation that is changing both the local economic structure on the one hand and its traditional production activities on the other (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011). For many years, tourism was considered as a magic formula for promoting regional development and reducing poverty in developing countries (Mowforth and Munt, 2003; UNWTO, 2007; Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Rural areas, with unique natural and unexplored cultural resources, have a great opportunity to attract these tourists who are looking for new and extraordinary experiences. Therefore communities that have indigenous cultures could benefit from the tourism industry.

The community-based tourism that has developed in rural areas is a fundamental tool for economic development and increasing the standard of living of those communities. It contributes to the livelihoods of people living in rural areas. The main benefits of community tourism are the direct economic impact on families, socioeconomic improvements, and sustainable diversification of lifestyles (Manyara and Jones, 2007; Rastegar, 2010). It is possible to create businesses selling goods and services by means of the area's own cultural and environmental resources, offering low-scale opportunities for job creation, especially for women and young people (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011).

Turkey's tourism policy encourages the conservation of natural and cultural resources and focuses on providing local communities, mainly from rural areas, with direct and indirect benefits from tourism and promoting employment, development, and services in those rural areas. In the Tourism Strategy of Turkey 2023 (kulturturizm.gov.tr, 2013), a special emphasis is placed on the diversification of tourism products, promotion of new destinations, development of rural areas, and

spreading the economic benefits of tourism to all parts of the country. New destinations that feature unspoilt nature and a well-preserved local culture are promoted in this strategy, therefore aiming to offer communities new employment opportunities, in order that local people will benefit from the tourism industry as an economic tool and long-term sustainability will be fostered. In this sense, the Western Black Sea region has been designated an ecotourism development zone. These developments have given impetus to the local authorities to develop the rural economy by means of the tourism industry. At the workshop on Sustainable Tourism for Yenice Forests, which was held on 24–25 May 2012 as part of the preparation of the Nature-based Tourism Master Plan of the Western Black Sea Region by the Ministry of Forestry and Water Affairs Regional Directorate of Sinop, an action plan was prepared for the development of tourism while concentrating on the needs of local people, the sustainability of the environment and local culture, and presenting strategic plans to improve the tourism industry in the region.

Healy (1994) observes that there is an extensive literature on tourism and employment creation, but relatively few studies have involved rural areas affected by nature tourism in developing nations. Taking into consideration the importance of community-based tourism for rural areas and the development of the local community, this paper has three main objectives: (1) to determine the local community's perceptions towards tourism, its assessment of tourism and of its potential improvement in the area; (2) to present residents' evaluation of tourism resources in the area, as well as of the infrastructure and accommodation facilities for the development of tourism; (3) to identify the opportunities for local economic development through tourism as well as the constraints of the region.

## LITERATURE

The concept of community-based tourism (CBT) emerged in the mid-1980s and can be found in the early work of Murphy (1985), where the relationship between tourism and local communities was analyzed, as well as in subsequent studies (Murphy and Murphy, 2004; Richards and Hall, 2000). Internationally a number of different terms are used for very similar activities, including rural tourism, ecotourism, and pro-poor tourism. Typically these types of tourism have similar objectives (APEC, 2010).



CBT is based on the creation of tourist products characterised by community participation in their development. It emerged as a possible solution to the negative impacts of mass tourism in developing countries, and was, at the same time, a strategy for community organization in order to attain better living conditions. Its core idea is the integration of hotel management, food and beverages, complementary services, and tourism management, but also includes other subsystems (infrastructure, health, education, and environment) as main characteristics, thus presenting a sustainable development project created by the community, and encouraging an interrelation between the local community and visitors as a key element in the development of a tourist product (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011).

CBT is a form of “local” tourism, favoring local service providers and suppliers and focused on interpreting and communicating the local culture and environment. Community-based tourism has been popular as a means of supporting biodiversity conservation, particularly in developing countries, and of linking livelihoods with preserving biodiversity while reducing rural poverty and achieving both objectives sustainably. CBT is generally small scale and involves interactions between visitors and the host community that are particularly suited to rural and regional areas (APEC, 2010). It is certainly an effective way of implementing policy coordination, avoiding conflicts between different actors in tourism, and obtaining synergies based on the exchange of knowledge, analysis, and ability among all members of the community (Kibicho, 2008).

The structure of CBT can be broken down into four categories. First, there are small tourist offices, which in some cases also work as tourist guides, and whose are not yet particularly relevant due to a lack of planning in the majority of the areas that tourists visit. Secondly, there are institutions that collaborate with the local tourism industry, mainly local public administrations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and universities. Thirdly, there are direct service companies, which can be further divided into two groups: accommodation and food and beverage; and shops selling local products, which are becoming increasingly important. Finally, there are various transport and financial businesses (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011).

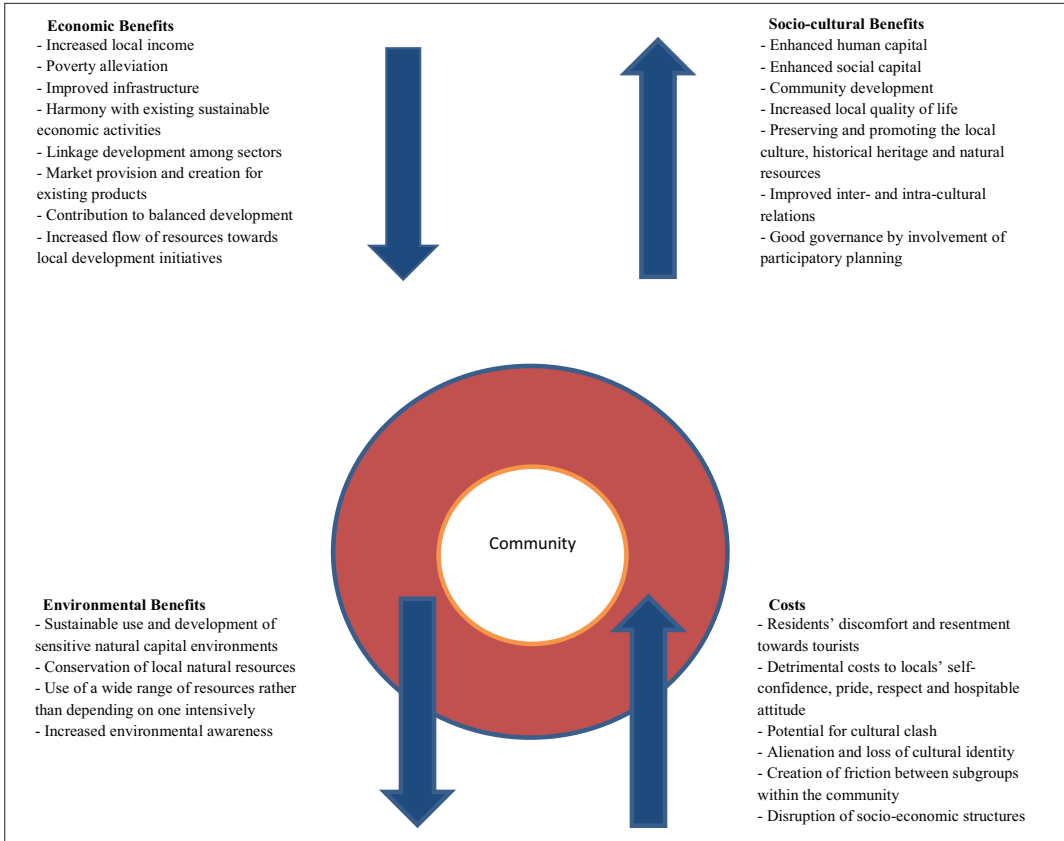
CBT development can bring many potential benefits for a community’s economy, society, and environment. Job creation and employment are important economic benefits, as for many community members employment means stable jobs and

regular income generation (COMCEC, 2013b). For example, in Mt Kenya National Park local people work in the tourism industry as guides and porters for climbers as well as hikers. The Mt Kenya Guides and Porters Safari Club (GPSC), a community-based organization, runs tours along various routes with the guidance of local people. GPSC jobs represent one of the few sources of monetary income for porters and guides living around Mt Kenya National Park, and indeed may be the only source (Steinicke and Neuburger, 2012).

CBT has the potential to facilitate the expansion of the target market for local products. For example, the increased tourism inflow to Peru’s Taquile Island contributed to the fame and income-generation capacity of traditional weaving practices (Mitchell and Reid, 2001). As another instance, the Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust in the Central District of Botswana implemented a unique Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) program that involved the conservation of natural resources (e.g., rhinos) and the improvement of local community livelihoods. The sourcing and purchasing of goods and services from the local community have resulted in small, medium, and micro enterprises, as well as some informal-sector operators, incurring economic benefits from the Sanctuary’s operations and visiting tourists. In addition, tourists have increased their purchases of local arts and crafts that are sold in villages (Stone and Stone, 2011). However, if tourism development is not assessed, planned, and managed effectively with the communities involved, it may also come with costs to the society and the environment and the dynamics between them (APEC, 2010). Figure 1 shows the benefits and costs of CBT for the local people.

CBT provides planning for tourism in order to safeguard the destination’s cultural heritage and enhance its natural heritage while at the same time improving the socio-economic welfare of its community. For example, in Manyallaluk, Australia, tourism development represents a true community-based approach. The Manyallaluk community prevented cultural erosion and protected their integrity and privacy through planning and well-established rules that were effectively communicated to tourists. The community separated sites that were open to visitors from actual living spaces and prohibited photography of community homes (COMCEC, 2013b).

CBT is on the agenda of the Turkish tourism industry, in that some successful projects have been implemented and have brought a number of benefits to local communities. For example, the Çoruh Valley Eastern Anatolia Development Pro-



**Figure 1.** Benefits and Costs of CBT  
 Source: Adapted from [http://kalkinma.gov.tr/DocObjects/View/14962/COMCEC\\_COMMUNITY\\_BASED\\_TOU-RISM.pdf](http://kalkinma.gov.tr/DocObjects/View/14962/COMCEC_COMMUNITY_BASED_TOU-RISM.pdf)

ject (TDEAP), implemented by the UNDP Turkey Office in cooperation with the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, was started in 2007. The general goal of this project was to contribute to the living standards of local people by enhancing tourist activities in the Çoruh Valley in northeastern Turkey. Within this framework, the Çoruh Valley has been hosting many activities, namely ceramic workshops, family pension training, gastronomy festivals, bird-watching festivals, rafting, trekking, and mountain biking. As a result, special interest tourism has been promoted in the region and international and domestic tourist flows to the Çoruh Valley have increased remarkably. With respect to income generation, local people have benefited from tourism activities as the owners of tourist accommodation facilities (COMCEC, 2013a).

The Nallihan Developing Rural Tourism Project was initiated in 2010 by the cooperation of the local municipality, NGOs, and local citizens in order to utilize the potential of Nallihan as a rural tourism destination. In this project, some of the

inactive governmental and private buildings have been turned into accommodation and others have been converted into facilities where local products are sold and local food is served to tourists (COMCEC, 2013a).

## THE RESEARCH AREA

Yenice, located in the Black Sea Region in the north of Turkey, is a county in the Karabuk province. It is 35km far from the province (see Figure 2). Its territory encompasses an area of 1150 km<sup>2</sup> (Turker and Çetinkaya, 2009). It has a population of 22,000 (according to the address-based population registration system, 2011) of which 11,000 live in villages. The villages of YC are characterized by scattered settlements in rough terrain.

The region attracts the attention of tourists because of its monumental trees, which are rarely seen outside tropical regions, its mountains, whose heights reach 2000m, canyons, especially the Şeker

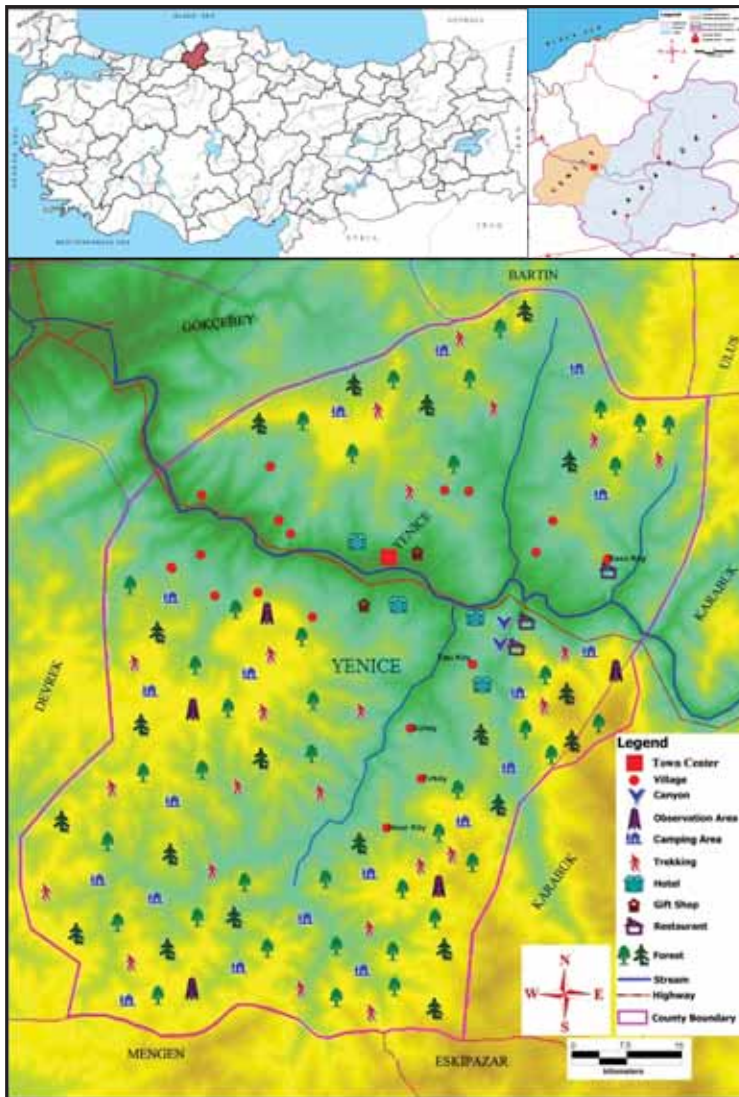


Figure 2. The study area

Canyon, wildlife, and flora. Because of its unique, extraordinary nature, in 1999 the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) identified the area as one of the 'European Forest Hot-Spots', among 100 Hot-Spots that are the most precious and whose biodiversity needs immediate protection. The town hosts 33 species of trees, 8 species of shrubs, and 16 different kinds of medicinal herbs. Kavaklı and Citdere were declared Nature Protection Areas in 1987, because these virgin forests contain many species of trees, some of which reached dimensions and heights that are rarely seen anywhere in the world, and their wildlife diversity and ecosystems are also

rare and about to become extinct. Because of their extraordinary diameter and height, the trees in the Gokpinar Arboretum Site are registered as natural monuments and are protected, such as the yew, with its 2.5m diameter and 25m height, and the *colyrus colurna* (Turkish hazel tree), with its 1m diameter and 20m height (Governership of Karabuk, 2010:16).

The town's economy is heavily based on forestry, from which 89% of people earn their living (Turker and Çetinkaya, 2009), and 73% of the area is covered by forests, a total of 115,000 hectares. Because of the economy's dependence on forestry

and wood processing and the low income level of the residents, most of the local people moved to industrialized urban areas. Some residents work for coal-mining companies in Zonguldak, 60km away from YC, others for the Karabük Iron and Steel Factory. Most of the current residents of YC are retired people.

Yenice is not a favored area for agriculture. Because of the scarce and shallow agricultural lands and their joint ownership by many siblings, agriculture has not developed in the rural area. Stockbreeding also constitutes a small part of the economic activity of YC, in that the villagers raise cattle for their own consumption. In some villages beekeeping is a limited economic activity and produces 4 tons of honey a year (Lise and Karabiyik, 2005). Although wooden spoon carving is a traditional handicraft of the region (especially in Yazıkoy), it does not presently occupy the place in the town's economy that it did in the past. Only two craftsmen work in this business nowadays. In the last five years, as a result of turmoil and civil wars in the Middle East and North Africa, the market for wood has been shrinking, and with it the income level of the woodsmen. Local authorities and opinion leaders have thus been seeking remedies for the development of the local economy in the last decade.

YC was first brought to prominence by a 1995 article in *Atlas* magazine and the broadcast of a documentary film about the Şeker Canyon in 1997. Some adventurers, canyoning in Şeker Canyon, first discovered the unique nature of YC in the mid-2000s. The first scientific research on tourism was conducted by Nuray Türker, who proposed to promote ecotourism in the area because of its incomparable natural resources. The local authorities gradually found that they could develop touristic facilities and activities in the region in order to promote rural development. Therefore it became possible for local people to make their living from tourism, although the income was very limited and unstable at this initial stage of tourism development. The first promotional activity started in 2010, initiated by Karabük Governor Nurullah Çakır, with the publication of the book *Yenice Forest Nature Walking Routes*. This made an overwhelming impression, especially in Turkey's nature-based tourism market, and fostered the notion of tourism development in the local community.

Although records on tourism have only been kept by the Department of Forestry of Yenice since 2009, the estimated number of visitors to the area is 4,000 per year. The town has limited accommodation and dining facilities, consisting of only

four 78-bed small tourism enterprises and 14 restaurants/cafes. Most of the adventure tourists and members of university sporting and mountaineering clubs set up their own camps in natural areas. The Directorate of the National Parks of Turkey is planning to construct eight camping sites in order to meet the accommodation needs of tourists.

The natural area with its virgin texture and authentic geography, as well as rich flora and fauna, provides outdoor activities for tourists such as trekking, hiking, rock climbing, camping, hunting, mountain biking, canyoning, bird watching, and flora observation. Canyoning, hiking, and trekking are the main tourism activities in the region, which has 21 marked trails along 210km; together with alternative trails, the total route is 396km. There is also a total of 292km of mountain bike trails (Governorship of Karabük, 2010).

## METHODOLOGY

In this study a qualitative method was used as the research technique. In-depth interviews were carried out among residents, representatives of the local authorities such as the district governor and mayor, tourism officers for the municipality, experts on forestry and protected areas (chief of the national parks and wildlife branch of Karabük, head of the forestry department), and NGOs. The observations of the writers and their personal experiences were also sources of data for this study.

To carry out the interviews, two semi-structured, open-ended two-page questionnaires, each with 40 questions, were developed, one for the residents and the other for the local authorities based on the related literature (Mitchell and Reid, 2001; Lapeyre, 2010; López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011). The residents' questionnaire was made up of three sections: (1) socio-demographic profile; (2) analysis of the community's perceptions of tourism development, regarding the current situation of tourism and its potential development; and (3) evaluation of tourism resources, infrastructure, and superstructure in the area. The researchers also conducted interviews with local authorities and NGOs: (1) to get their views on the impacts and benefits of tourism that had been discussed with the communities; (2) to identify their assessments of tourism development in relation to the current situation and potential developments in the future, as well as the main problems and obstacles in the development of the tourism industry in YC; and (3) to determine their activities to develop, market, and promote the tourism industry in the area. It is believed that such

efforts helped the researchers maintain their objectivity and protected the field research from the community's unilateral influence.

In order to analyze the development of tourism in the area and the hosts' perceptions, the Incebacaklar district of Yazıköy village, located near the Şeker Canyon, was selected as the study area. Yazıköy comprises a total of 400 people, while Incebacaklar has a population of 100. Incebacaklar district is the end point of the Şeker Canyon and many tourists can be seen there.

The field work was carried out between September and November 2012. A total of 32 residents were interviewed in person, usually at their place of residence. Those interviewees belonged to different interest groups within the community, including households and six residents who were owners of small tourism businesses (small hotels, restaurants, and souvenir shops) in YC and its environs. In addition to the 10 local authorities, interviews with 2 NGOs were carried out in the interviewee's office. All of the respondents were sampled utilizing a purposive snowball sampling method (Jennings, 2001) because of the limitation of the study that most of the residents did not have interactions with tourists. In addition, it was very difficult to interview women participants because of communication problems related to the conservative culture: they spent most of their time at home and had a lower educational level than men, therefore they did not always understand the questions; this was especially true for the older interviewees.

Interviews ranged from 20–40 minutes and were tape-recorded. The resident interviews were conducted with adult family members considered as community residents (those older than 20 who lived in the community permanently), and who were able to answer relevant questions effectively. Local authority interviews were conducted to obtain a more detailed perspective on tourism development, the county's tourism development policies, the parameters of the tourism sector, and other pertinent factors. Nine of the interviewees both within and outside the county were selected for their extensive knowledge of or involvement with the local tourism sector, including the mayor, district governor, guide, and officials of the Karabuk and Yenice branches of the Ministry of National Parks and Wildlife. In addition to the data collected from the participants, in order to qualify the research the observation method was used to obtain additional data from the writers' former visits for other research studies conducted in the past. Secondary sources of data were consulted including journals, published books, unpublished reports

and newsletters, governmental documents, and the internet.

## RESULTS

The socio-demographic variables of the interviewees are shown in Table 1. Most of the interviewees are men. They are between the age of 30 and 49; 41 of them are married; 14 of the interviewees have a primary school education while 13 have a high school degree. Half of the respondents earn between €501 and €1,000 a month, so they have a low income level, although half of the interviewees stated that their income was sufficient to support the family. There are four family members and two working adults on average in a household.

The results indicate that 31 residents have their own house and 26 have agricultural land, although their plot of land is very small, around 5–10 hectares. Most of the land is divided into shares among siblings. Because the land is not fruitful, agriculture is not an important economic sector in the area.

**Table 1.** Socio-demographic profile

VARIABLE	n	VARIABLE	n
<b>Interviewee</b>		<b>Education</b>	
Resident	32	Primary school	14
Local authority	10	Secondary school	7
NGOs	2	High school	13
<b>Gender</b>		University	10
Man	38	<b>Monthly income</b>	
Woman	6	Below €500	7
<b>Age</b>		€501–1000	17
20–29	5	€1001–2000	7
30–39	14	€2000 +	4
40–49	11	<b>Occupation</b>	
50–59	9	Worker	8
60 +	5	Officer	9
<b>Marital status</b>		Shopkeeper	6
Married	41	Retiree	5
Single	3	Housewife	4

The first aspect of this study is to identify the local community's perceptions of the impacts of tourism development in YC. The main outcomes of the study are that tourism is assessed by the local community in a very positive way, because it is

perceived as a way of generating economic benefits. Nevertheless, although tourism is considered as a tool for economic development, the creation of jobs, and the increase of income, the interviewees indicated that tourism development created only a small improvement in the local economy of YC.

The increase in the number of tourists in the area has led to new initiatives such as hotels and restaurants, but the interviewees believe that very few employment opportunities are created by the tourism industry because of the lack of tourism enterprises. In addition, because of the low tourist numbers, residents believe that the benefits are not evenly distributed among all members and the community as a whole. Only a few residents, such as the owners of hotels and restaurants/cafes, are seen to benefit from the tourism business. One restaurant owner indicated that he prefers buying local products (bread, butter, grape molasses, etc.) from the villagers but that this creates only a slender economic impact, although a few villagers do benefit by selling local food such as honey, rose-hip marmalade, and home-made jams to tourists. There is also a slight improvement in the production of handicrafts (such as wooden spoons and walking sticks) due to the development of the tourism industry.

Residents would like to see more tourists in the area and, if there is an increase in tourist numbers, believe that the tourism industry will have a positive impact on the local community in the near future. It is very important that the local community is able to see that the development of tourism generates benefits specifically for the local community (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004; Christou and Saveriades, 2010). If more residents perceive themselves as benefiting from tourism, they may support the tourism industry, feel a greater sense of ownership, and perceive a need to ensure its continued growth (albeit on a sustainable basis), particularly if their livelihood depends on its survival (Mitchell and Reid, 2001).

In many rural areas in Turkey where a conventional lifestyle is still important, the locals have concerns about changing traditions, lifestyles, and family relations because of the development of tourism. It is evident that in many mass tourism areas in Turkey such as Antalya, Marmaris, and Bodrum, the local culture and customs have been spoilt. Therefore in many rural areas the majority of residents may not be open to the development of tourism because of its negative impacts and the undesirable results of a high number of tourists, such as the loss of cultural identity and the degradation

of natural resources. For the region as a whole, tourism has only a limited effect on socio-cultural development. In this study most of the people interviewed reported shifts in their social life in that interacting with people of other cultures created a positive change, especially for young people and women. Some middle-aged and older people think that the younger generation is affected by the development of tourism and that this can be seen in their physical appearance, such as hairstyles and clothing.

The mayor indicated that one of the main societal changes that the development of tourism has brought about is the locals' prejudice against tourism. He also commented, "10–20 years ago nobody, including me, can have realized that tourism would be an economic sector in the area, but now they believe that they can earn their living from the tourism industry." All of the residents interviewed declared that they would be supportive if their sons and daughters wanted to work in the tourism industry.

All of the residents also reported that they like having interactions with tourists. One man noted, "I am very happy meeting people from big cities and from foreign countries. I experience a lot of things which are new to me. I know how to talk to more kinds of people now." Tourism will produce social changes in the community and offer the chance to have contact with people from other parts of the country or the world that have different cultures and customs (APEC, 2010).

It is interesting to discover that the majority of those interviewed highlight the possibility of hiring out one of their rooms to a guest if they need accommodation. Some of the interviewees indicated that they would not require money for the room, because it is offensive to take money from a guest according to Turkish hospitality. This shows that residents look positively on the development of tourism in their area. Furthermore, only two residents indicated that they are disturbed by the informal clothing of tourists who are emerging from the Şeker Canyon in their swimming costumes, shorts, or other "half naked" clothes. These conservative residents believe that the clothing of tourists that is not suitable to the traditional Turkish way of life – in other words, "bawdy clothes" – is disgraceful because they believe that this situation may create a decline in morals in their community, especially among their wives and young children. In addition, one conservative interviewee reported, "I don't want to see tourists drinking here. They set a bad example for the children."

One surprising comment was from a resident who said he could tolerate foreign tourists' behavior and immodest clothes because they have a different culture, understanding, and way of life, but he could not tolerate the same among tourists from his own culture, as they are members of the Turkish culture and must respect the traditional way of life and the rules of the society. One young man mentioned that he does not want a developed tourism industry in his home town because he believes that the development of the tourism industry will destroy the local economies, such as agriculture and forestry. Locals must keep in mind that tourism can change (or even destroy) the local culture if it aims at rapid development of the area (Dyer *et al.*, 2003). Development of the tourism industry in the area must therefore be complementary to the local economic structure, which is based primarily on forestry, agriculture, and livestock farming. One interviewee reported that it is possible to get benefit from the forest without cutting it down.

Half of the residents believe that the municipal services, transportation facilities, and roads to the villages were improved due to tourism development. However, residents also indicated that there would still need to be an improvement in aspects such as the roads to the villages and to the forest. One of the restaurant owners reported that communication facilities (phone, internet) and security services had improved due to the development of tourism.

The second aspect analyzed in this study is residents' evaluation of tourism resources in the area, as well as of superstructure such as hotels and restaurants/cafes and other necessary elements for the development of tourism. In this regard, 42 of the interviewees indicated that YC possesses remarkable tourism resources that attract visitors. Hence, Yenice's forests, Seker Canyon, and the wildlife, which obtained high scores, are the area's basic tourism resources. The residents indicated that they are proud of their town.

Most of the residents and local authorities agreed that the main shortcoming of tourism development in YC is the superstructure, in that Yenice has limited accommodation and dining facilities. This is the main obstacle to the development of the tourism industry in YC, according to both residents and local authorities. Other problems reported by residents are a lack of qualified tourism staff, the mentality of entrepreneurs (they prefer investing in conventional sectors), and inadequate promotional and marketing activities. Most of the residents greatly value the promotion of the destination, which they say has to be done by the municipality and the district governor of YC. To solve

the accommodation problems, the Department of Forestry has been planning to construct eight campsites for trekkers.

One of the main problems in the Şeker Canyon is litter and villages throwing their garbage into the canyon. Residents and local authorities believe that tourists do not create environmental problems and that they are very sensitive to the need to protect the environment. They also appreciate and are respectful to the nature and culture of YC. However, as Jacobson and Robles (1992) mentioned, nature-based tourism has several downsides, including the environmental impacts of pollution and habitat modification. On the other hand, tourism may create incentives for the protection of these resources by making local communities more conscious of their value and importance (Vincent and Thompson, 2002). A high degree of community integration with tourism would reduce the negative environmental impacts. If residents feel directly responsible for their tourism resources as full players in the industry, they will be more likely to protect the destination from various destructive forces (Mitchell and Reid, 2001).

In spite of these moderate benefits, the tourism industry cannot kick-start regional development in YC. However, local authorities do foresee that visitor numbers will increase in the near future. The local authorities (such as the governor of Karabuk, the Karabuk branch of the General Directorate of the National Parks of Turkey, the district governor, and the mayor of Yenice county) attach remarkable economic importance to nature-based tourism in the scenically very attractive forests of YC. Despite the lack of entrepreneurs, the municipality of the county has an initiator role in tourism investment by encouraging local residents through financial support for the tourism business and promoting tourism nationwide. CBT has been adopted in the development of tourism in recent years and has been used as a regional development strategy by these local authorities. Several interviewees suggested it was the determination of ex-district governor Mehmet Fatih Çiçekli, who was in charge between 2000 and 2007, that raised residents' awareness of tourism and its economic advantages, drew the attention of some investors outside the region to run tourism enterprises, and motivated local people to invest in tourism businesses. His efforts had the advantageous result that one of the entrepreneurs hired two old houses in Incebacaklar district, one of which was restored and put into service as a small hotel.

This research found that, in the opinion of those interviewed, local authorities should be the ones to provide residents with the necessary incen-

tives to put tourism development into action. The municipality makes the effort to market and promote the tourism industry in YC by attending national tourism fairs, publishing tourism brochures, and organizing local festivals and bicycle races in the region. It also tries to develop municipal services, such as the infrastructure of the town. Local authorities must lead local communities in projects that will create alternative sources of income. For example, the Mapu Lahual Network of Indigenous Parks (RML), an ecotourism development and conservation project in Chile, had noteworthy success in increasing and diversifying the incomes of local people through tourism and in preserving the area's environment and culture by establishing tourism based on a system of parks, trails, campsites, and local services. Appraisals of successful projects add to the available knowledge that policy makers can use to improve decision making (McAlpin, 2008). The municipality of YC has the "Cirapazari" project, which aims to build a hotel complex in the center of the town to increase accommodation facilities and offer employment opportunities for locals.

Visitors in YC are predominantly younger people and are interested in nature-based activities such as trekking, hiking, canyoning, climbing, and camping. Most of them are excursionists: because of the lack of accommodation facilities one-day trips are popular, and overnight visitors prefer camping for their accommodation. A few national tour operators and a local travel agency have begun to market YC in the last three years, offering limited activities such as trekking and canyoning.

The questionnaire results indicate that there are a number of constraints in YC that make it difficult for the community to get involved in the tourism industry. These include inadequate financial resources, dependence on external funding, and not having a spirit of entrepreneurship.

To develop the tourism industry in the town, the collaboration of local authorities is essential. The Karabuk branch of the General Directorate of the National Parks of Turkey has prepared a nature-based Tourism Master Plan for the development of tourism. It also has made an effort to prevent illegal hunting in Yenice forests and has designated an area for hunting. Education of local guides for trekkers is another activity planned by the Directorate. A further problem that must be solved by the national authority is that tourism activities are not legally allowed in protected areas. A new regulation is needed that provides for the mutual use of forests by visitors and foresters.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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This study was carried out to obtain the community's perceptions of the benefits of tourism. This paper has also aimed to outline the opinions of residents and local authorities about YC's remarkable tourism resources. The assessment of the community's attitudes and perceptions towards tourism is an important issue for the success of tourism development because the community has a powerful influence on the tourist's experience. If the perceived positive impacts of tourism are higher than the negative ones, the community supports the development of tourism in its area. This study has highlighted that the local community does have a positive perception towards tourism. Local residents agree that tourism development can improve the rural economy, create jobs, generate wealth, and create socio-cultural change in the community. They also believe that they could benefit from community-based tourism and increase their income.

The community of YC perceives the potential benefits as well as threats of tourism development. Therefore this study is also important to suggest the perceived potential threats of tourism. For the success of the tourism industry the threats must be managed well and provision must be made to reduce the risks and negative impacts of tourism. If stakeholders are able to identify threats in the assessment phase, these can be managed to reduce the potential harm during the planning and implementation periods. Careful planning, awareness, and education are required to balance the opportunities and threats in a way that enhances the positive outcomes and minimizes the potential for harm (APEC, 2010). Therefore the community's involvement is an important factor in the development of the tourism industry.

McIntosh and Goeldner (1986, cited in Ying and Zhou, 2007) examined community participation in tourism from two perspectives: in the decision-making process and tourism benefits sharing. Unfortunately, most decisions affecting tourism communities are driven by the industry in concert with national governments; in other words, local people and their communities have become the objects of development but not the subjects of it (Mitchell and Reid, 2001). However, the residents of YC have participated in meetings concerning tourism-related issues, although it was considered "attendance" by many respondents rather than active involvement. Tourism- and nature-related meetings in YC are



generally held to inform residents about upcoming projects, rather than to seek public ideas on significant issues. Personal observations in this research indicated that women play a less vocal role in community decision making, while men have more influential roles publicly. In this sense, it is important to highlight the role of women as crucial actors in the planning and development of tourist activities, and in the management of prospective businesses (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011).

Planning, delivering, and managing tourism should involve community-led discussion and participation. Residents' more active involvement in the tourism development process will be conducive to more sustainable tourism development in the local community (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004; Haywood, 1988). Community participation is believed to lessen opposition to development, minimize its negative impacts, and revitalize economies (Hardy *et al.*, 2002).

The assistance of public administrations, NGOs, and universities is required for adequate planning of activities, together with the necessary support from different public and private institutions to develop tourist activities. The Department of Tourism should be involved in product development, policy formulation, and financial assistance for infrastructure, but local authorities should take the lead in capacity building, infrastructure development, and monitoring. Therefore, the small businesses to be created in the future in these areas should be diversified, not only offering accommodation and food services, but also working towards the sale of local products, tourist guides, complementary activities such as extreme or sports tourism, and, in many cases, ground transportation (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011).

Out-migration is a significant problem in rural areas in Turkey because of unfavorable economic conditions in many rural areas; tourism has been seen as a partial remedy through creating new jobs for young people. Many residents of YC had to migrate to other parts of Turkey in the 1990s to find employment, to live in better conditions, and to get a better education for their children. The total population of Yenice was 31,000 in 1990, 27,000 in 2000, and 22,500 in 2010. The development of the tourism industry to a satisfactory level may contribute to decreasing out-migration from the region. It will lead to the establishment of several micro-enterprises that will create employment, particularly for women, and this will in turn reinvigorate the local economy, attracting ex-residents to return to the community and retaining young people who are currently there (APEC, 2010).

Even though CBT helps to alleviate poverty and to trigger empowerment processes, as a whole it provides only limited impulses to regional development. Community-based tourism alone cannot initiate sustainable regional development. For example, studies on tourism in Kenya show a much less-developed tourism sector, demonstrating its proportionately low impact at the local and regional levels (Steinicke and Neuburger, 2012). The results of the research in YC indicate that people participate to a relatively low degree in tourism management and services because of the low numbers of visitors to the area. Development endeavors at the regional level are hardly noticeable, neither in accommodation facilities nor in terms of employment effects. Therefore tourism should be seen as an activity that is complementary to, and never a substitute for, traditional activities based primarily on forestry, agriculture, livestock farming, and beekeeping (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011). To obtain whole-community benefit from the tourism industry, residents of YC must sell local handicrafts (wood-carving objects such as spoons, walking sticks, etc.) and food (honey, jam, homemade dried macaroni, molasses, dried herbs, tarhana soup – a sundried food made of curd, tomato, and flour – etc.) to tourists.

The local food that villagers sell to the restaurants and hotels is generally limited to dairy products, like butter, honey, molasses, and eggs. Local food and other products or services must be introduced into Yenice's economy. Locals should open stands to sell food and handicrafts to visitors to their villages or near attractions or campsites. This will increase the "tourist offering" and help to include more of the community members and share the benefits of tourism. In addition, a visitors' centre should be constructed in the center of YC, where craftsmen could show traditional handicrafts such as spoon carving, walking-stick making, and the arts of Yenice. This would provide an authentic cultural experience for tourists while sustaining these performance traditions within the community.

To solve the accommodation problems and increase the household income, local communities could provide home-stays for tourists. Because of insufficient accommodation facilities, most visitors currently prefer staying on campsites or undertaking one-day excursions. Camping, however, provides no job opportunities for rural communities. On the other hand, as stated by Kearns and Collins (2006), the construction of large accommodation enterprises by investors from outside the region would transform the local culture and character and could destroy the authenticity of Yenice's rural

lifestyle, with its distinct social values. Local families should therefore prepare at least one room in their home for home-stays. Since rural communities do not have the capital to establish such enterprises (Fuller, Bultjens, and Cummings, 2005; Tosun, 1998), external support is needed. Financial support for the initial investment and government assistance would be necessary; the community should be able to obtain financial support from funds provided by the governmental agencies allocated for the development of rural areas. Home-stays will provide an economic alternative to supplement rural people's livelihoods and contribute to sustainable rural development. Furthermore, tourists will have a combination of experiences during their home-stays: sharing the local culture and traditional food with local host families, while exploring the wild and extraordinary nature of YC, trekking or hiking, and canyoning.

CBT is most likely to succeed where the surrounding areas offer complementary tourism experiences. For the international market in particular, tourists are unlikely to invest substantial funds and time to travel to and visit one CBT site. This is important for both product development and marketing, as the most successful approach is likely to be one that demonstrates how a particular CBT experience fits with other nearby tourist attractions. Indeed, positioning the CBT product as complementary to surrounding tourist activities can assist with marketing (APEC, 2010). Residents noted that Safranbolu, a UNESCO heritage site famous for its Ottoman-style wooden houses, could be a complementary tourism destination for YC. They also indicated that tourism enterprises must help to promote and market the tourism industry in YC.

Tourism conciousness has not developed in the area to a satisfactory level, so some educational activities are essential. In this context, residents indicated that the necessary training for the community and for tourism staff must be provided by Karabuk University. Instituting a vocational school and organizing short courses run by Karabuk University may meet the tourism education needs of the community. Universities have a significant role in the improvement of the educational levels of local people by bettering their technical qualifications (López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011). This is part of the proposal for developing community-based tourism suggested by Bringas and Israel (2004, cited in López-Guzmán *et al.*, 2011), who recommend establishing a suitable regional tourism policy based on three activities: first, training of local people and raising awareness; second, infrastructure and equipment; and third, promotion.

The limited number of visitors reduces the economic impacts of tourism in YC. A tourism cooperative should be established to allow the community to manage its own tourist resources in order to build stronger efforts and harmonize the activities of the community. This cooperative must work with elected and regularly rotating managers in order to prevent the enrichment of only few members and to ensure an even distribution of benefits to all members and to the whole community. From the beginning, the community must work together to provide the best possible experiences for tourists, rather than competing among themselves, and make full use of the internet and social media in the local community telecenter for promoting tourism in YC.

In YC there is also a need for eco guides, educated about the wildlife and the area, and it is evident that governmental assistance is necessary to train some eco guides for trekking, hiking, camping, climbing, and bird-watching activities. The Ministry of Forestry and Water Affairs Regional Directorate of Sinop educated 60 eco guides through a short course to work in the Kure Mountains National Park in 2012. A similar course could be organized for YC by the Karabuk branch of the General Directorate of the National Parks of Turkey. In these kinds of ways the community benefit of tourism can be increased, particularly by creating new job opportunities for young people.

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