Building knowledge for
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander remote tourism
Lessons from comparable tourism initiatives around the world

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NINTI ONE: CRC REMOTE ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION

An Australian Government Initiative

CRC AUSTRALIA

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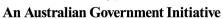
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Executive summary

This report was developed as part of the CRC for Remote Economic Participation Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Tourism Product project. The report aims to build knowledge about what issues Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people may need to consider in remote tourism by reviewing, compiling and drawing insights from comparable tourism initiatives around the world.

This report is based on information from a range of sources that highlight remote tourism issues at many different levels of strategy and development, from the micro level of ensuring engagement with local service providers, to the broad level of collaboration strategies with diverse interest groups. The examples identify a wealth of remote tourism roles available to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, demonstrating that remote tourism is complicated and people should examine which roles are appropriate and achievable.

The report covers the main remote area landscape settings: remote arid and semi-arid areas (deserts), remote rainforests, remote high altitude mountainous areas, and remote cold and warm water islands. Each section discusses a collection of cases and other tourism initiatives by peoples indigenous to the respective remote landscape settings. Many cases illustrate the desires of people around the world to preserve natural and cultural qualities while sharing remote areas through tourism. Summaries from each case identify issues that progressively build further insight into the challenges and strategies people from around the world have applied to remote tourism.

A limitation of the report is that the review provides a snapshot of remote tourism activity throughout the world; it has not been able to say which of these activities are sustainable. Nevertheless, this approach uncovers the gravity of challenges faced by Indigenous peoples around the world involved in remote tourism, with the common dependence on external sources particularly noted. While presenting the strategies used in the various international contexts to contend with the challenges, the report suggests that local knowledge and insight cannot be underestimated as a major factor in developing successful Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism businesses.

1. Introduction

Remote and very remote Australia covers around 80% of the continent, crossing a spectrum of environments from arid to semi-arid rangelands, to rainforests and isolated coastal zones of the tropical north, to islands such as the Tiwis and the various communities of the Torres Strait (see Figure 1). Remoteness is not a geographical feature only, as some geography and regions have evolved in human (largely Western) consciousness to remain at and beyond the margins. Remoteness is a question of proximity: how far are you from infrastructure, essential services and convenient living conditions? Are you enveloped by vast tracts of 'wilderness'? Throughout the history of tourism, remoteness has remained a constant allure for travellers seeking distant places, the exotic or reprieve from 'civilisation'. While the history of travel includes many cases of tourism exploiting and providing minimal benefit to Indigenous peoples, recent decades have seen a push from peoples indigenous to remote areas to assert greater levels of involvement and control.

The purpose of this report is to build knowledge about remote tourism for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people by reviewing and drawing lessons from comparable tourism initiatives around the world. Peoples indigenous to many remote parts of the world participate in tourism to varying degrees and often utilise innovative ideas to overcome challenges such as limited infrastructure, narrow market opportunities, high overheads and low population density. The cases reviewed in this paper highlight that challenges are often place specific, and the tourism development responses can be just as unique.

This report is a summary of material published in a range of journals, reports and websites about remote tourism initiatives. The examples shed light on remote area tourism issues, including long- and short-term strategies, start-up phase considerations, ecotourism, sustainability, visitor management, networking, collaborative approaches, implementing change, culturally appropriate tourism and more. The lessons learnt through these examples are not a 'how to' guide for tourism development. Instead, the lessons highlight what different elements and issues should be assessed when implementing a broad planning approach.

REMOTE AUSTRALIA

Figure 1: Remote Australia
Source: CRC-REP 2012

Knowing the issues that need to be considered can be useful for remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people and their advisors when starting new initiatives or adapting existing tourism activities. Comparable remote tourism initiatives around the world illustrate tourism possibilities that provide Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people with some precedent for what to consider when making their own remote tourism decisions. For many remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people involved in tourism, perhaps only one or a couple of the lessons in this report may be useful. Overall, the lessons provide a very broad background in remote tourism development, offering knowledge and principles that may assist, but do not replace, decision making based on unique local contexts and considerations.

1.1 Report structure

After a brief description of who the remote peoples of the world are, and of what 'remoteness' means, this report documents tourism development by peoples indigenous to four different types of remote landscape: arid to semi-arid zones, rainforests, high altitude mountainous areas, and cold and warm water islands. Each remote landscape has different natural features and unique attractions for tourists. Yet despite these differences, peoples indigenous to each of these landscapes have to find ways to deal with factors such as distance from services, limited infrastructure, limited access to visitors and low population density. This report illustrates how peoples indigenous to these remote landscapes have undertaken tourism initiatives despite these challenges.

For each of the four landscape types, the report presents an introductory description of various remote tourism initiatives, highlighting points that may provide some useful knowledge about remote tourism. The

initiatives range from small-scale, low-cost tourism initiatives by a community group, to broad-level strategies that bring together multiple nations. It is important to point out that each initiative has its own set of complex circumstances; however, the scope of this report is introductory and we are able to focus on only some of those issues. Readers interested in learning more about any of the initiatives identified here are encouraged to seek further information. The aim of this report is to provide a baseline from which to build a progressively bigger and increasingly diverse pool of knowledge about tourism by peoples indigenous to various remote landscapes of the world. The enterprises and initiatives identified here are only a small selection of tourism activities by remote Indigenous peoples, but they offer insight into specialised innovations responding to the challenges of remote tourism.

2. Who are peoples indigenous to remote regions of the world?

Remote regions of the world are often home to culturally distinct populations, each with unique identities and ways of being, with long histories of association with landscapes and place. In this report such peoples are termed as being indigenous to their regions because they are the original people from that region or place. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people of Australia may be considered in this manner, but the term 'Indigenous peoples' may only be appropriate in a very broad sense when discussing all peoples across various regions of the world at once. In 2004 the United Nations illustrated the broad application of the term in the following description:

> Indigenous communities, peoples and nations are those which, having a historical continuity with pre-invasion and pre-colonial societies that developed on their territories, consider themselves distinct from other sectors of the societies now prevailing on those territories, or parts of them. They form at present non-dominant sectors of society and are determined to preserve, develop and transmit to future generations their ancestral territories, and their ethnic identity, as the basis of their continued existence as peoples, in accordance with their own cultural patterns, social institutions and legal system. (UN 2004, p. 2)

When used to collectively label many distinct peoples from various places, the term can obscure the different identities, cultures and histories of those peoples. Hence, in this report the proper identification of a people will be used where appropriate, such as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people of Australia or the Bedouin of Syria.

Peoples indigenous to remote regions all over the world often live in small dispersed groups and maintain, are experiencing or have made the transition from a subsistence way of life. Such groups include people who have been colonised and continue to contend with legacies from a troubled socio-political past. These people are often minority groups and some cases document how industry and development have been imposed on them by external forces. However, many cases in tourism highlight how pride, empowerment and cultural continuity are common driving forces behind remote tourism development by peoples indigenous to many remote parts of the world.

3. Remote regions of the world

Different words are used to describe remote areas in the literature. Some studies use words such as 'periphery', 'frontier', 'marginal' or 'isolated' when discussing remote regions. The present report adopts the ARIA (Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia) classification used by the Department of Health and Ageing, which considers remoteness as a road distance relationship of a locality with service centres. The ARIA classifications are remote: 'very restricted accessibility of goods, services and opportunities for social interaction' and very remote: 'very little accessibility of goods, services and opportunities for social interaction' (DHAC 2001 p. 19). There is a tendency for remote regions to have greater challenges due to distance from essential services, limited infrastructure and minimal road access. As the ARIA classification highlights, this differs from rural areas where these factors are an issue, but to a much lesser degree. Remote areas characteristically have small and sparsely distributed populations.

Some sources have suggested that distance from service centres and sparse populations also have implications for development processes. Where remote tourism is concerned, remote areas tend to have higher degrees of dependence on external sources for skills, innovation and political authority (Schmallegger et al. 2010). Stafford-Smith et al. (2008) point out that communities in remote areas like desert Australia are often shaped by a singular livelihood like tourism, mining or pastoralism. They argue that different forms of remote communities have differing needs and capacities. The suggestion is that while sharing features such as influence from external governance, distance from service centres and small and typically sparse populations, remote communities are shaped by local existing industry activity and local contexts.

Remote areas are found in many countries of the world and on every continent. In some cases an entire country may be remote, such as island nations. Other countries may have pockets of remote terrain, others may be dominated by vast remote regions, while other nations may share a remote geography with neighbouring states. Like remote Australia, remote regions of the world cover diverse environments, most of which have been inhabited by Indigenous peoples for millennia.

4. Tourism development by peoples indigenous to remote arid and semi-arid areas

Arid and semi-arid areas (primarily consisting of desert landscapes) account for around 34% of the earth's landmass (UNEP 2006). According to Stafford Smith (2008), arid and semi-arid regions are characterised by the following factors:

> (i) climate variability at various scales in space and time (*climate variability*), (ii) widespread low and patchy primary productivity (*scarce resources*), (iii) sparse, mobile and patchy human population (*sparse population*), (iv) distant markets and decision-making (*remoteness*), (v) further perceived unpredictability in markets, labour and policy (*social variability*), (vi) limited research knowledge and persistent traditional and local knowledge (*local knowledge*), and (vii) particular types of people, culture and institutions (*cultural differences*)" (Stafford Smith 2008, p. 3)

Tourism in arid and semi-arid regions is not entirely new; the Sahara desert, for instance, has been a long-term fixture of travel activity. Deserts on every continent host at least some form of tourism activity. Some of these include the Chihuahuan Desert (US, Mexico), Patagonian Desert (Argentina), the Danakil Desert (Eritrea, Ethiopia), the Thar Desert (India, Pakistan), the Gobi Desert (Mongolia, China), the Arabian

Desert (Saudi Arabia), the Tabernas Desert (Spain), and Antarctica. Tourists are attracted to desert regions because of the spectacular landscapes, the isolation, fossils, adventure and cultural heritage. The climatic extremes usually mean that desert tourism is limited to certain times of the year.

4.1 The need for collaboration across remote arid landscapes in the Sahara

Some initiatives highlight how Governments have adapted to conditions determined by the desert. The approach to tourism in the Sahara Desert took on this form in 2003, when UNESCO produced its blueprint for a sustainable approach to tourism. The approach recognised that the Sahara is a vast geography covering numerous nation states. The countries 'sharing' the Sahara formed an agreement under UNESCO to cooperate in the tourism future of the desert. Some of the agreements included encouraging visitor flows between the cooperating countries, promoting the smooth exchange of tourism information, ensuring legislative cohesiveness, and adopting marketing strategies to reflect the cooperative tourism approach (UNESCO 2003). An important part of the framework is a set of principles ensuring that all signatory countries maintain a consistent and agreed approach to tourism in the Sahara (UNESCO 2003). Guiding principles include charters advocating respect for, and the inclusion of Indigenous peoples in tourism activity and development.

The Saharan tourism strategy involved urging an overall brand 'identity' that united all signatory countries under a 'single Saharan product' (UNESCO 2003). Another important aspect of the strategy was ensuring that tourism development remains small scale (UNESCO 2003). This means that tourism and environmental preservation not only go hand in hand, but that tourism is useful in addressing existing ecological degradation. The strategy also highlighted ways to overcome seasonality challenges for Indigenous peoples by creating opportunities for year-round income-generating activities. Here, the strategy links tourism with enriching soils for farming or establishing nurseries. When the tourism season passes, the strategy suggests that people can turn their attention to other productive activities that can complement and strengthen their capacity as tourism providers. The UNESCO (2003) strategy combines environmentally sensitive tourism development with alleviating poverty and ensuring that desert peoples have opportunities to remain in the arid zones and uphold their cultural ways.

> ***Insights from the UNESCO Sahara Strategy***
> - Remote landscapes are often shared and require political collaboration instead of competing approaches.
> - In remote areas, borders can have little meaning in tourist travel patterns.
> - It may be more suitable for planning activities to be shaped by the remote region rather than existing political structures.
> - Small-scale development is considered appropriate in fragile remote ecosystems.
> - Remote tourism development should be guided by respect for the environment and people who live there.
> - Remote tourism operators often need to diversify into other livelihood activities to help deal with seasonality.
> - Tourism participation by remote peoples should maintain and strengthen existing cultural practices.

4.2 SWOT analysis in the Iranian deserts

The increasing interest in remote area tourism is highlighted by countries such as Iran considering tourism in the country's deserts. Ecotourism appears to be favoured and, as for the Saharan countries, tourism provides income potential in areas where there are limited options for productive industry. Eshraghi et al. (2010) illustrate that doing a SWOT analysis (that is, analysing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) of desert tourism can provide a useful assessment in the planning process. They were able to

use a SWOT analysis to show that for Iranian deserts, ecotourism is consistent with the needs of controlling visitor numbers, limiting environmental impacts, ensuring participation by local people and raising awareness of desert environments. SWOT analysis should be one step in a longer process and, as the Iranian example shows, the inquiry must seek a balance between potential benefits and risks.

> ***Insights from tourism in the Iranian deserts***
> - A SWOT analysis can be important for clarifying and understanding localised remote tourism issues.
> - Remote tourism participation should seek a balance between benefits and pitfalls.
> - Ecotourism can satisfy the needs of local people while fostering environmentally sustainable approaches.

4.3 Applying existing skills to tourism by the Bedouin of Syria

Ecotourism can be a key development opportunity for peoples indigenous to desert regions. For the Bedouin nomadic desert herders of Syria, the principles of ecotourism correspond with their existing way of life and can build on existing land management practices (Serra 2007). For the Bedouin, ecotourism was also viewed as an agent of change to combat legacies of poaching and to eradicate that activity altogether. The recent push for ecotourism takes up from past initiatives such as the Palmyra project championed by the Syrian department of Agriculture, which taught the Bedouin skills in managing ecologically significant protected areas (Serra 2007). Once the Palmyra project completed, there were no options for people to apply those skills (Serra 2007). Ecotourism is an opportunity to combine those skills to integrate land and wildlife management with tourism. However, tourism can represent a departure from some existing ways of life, so in some cases for the Bedouin the adoption of tourism was gradual.

> ***Insights from tourism by the Bedouin in Syria***
> - Tourism can provide opportunities to use non-tourism training and skills, such as land management.
> - Tourism can play a role in encouraging wildlife preservation.

4.4 Growth from small beginnings: Damaraland Camp, Namibia

The integration of existing local expertise with tourism development is a feature of the Damaraland Camp in north-western Namibia, which combines new technology with indigenous construction practices (Salole 2007). The Camp was first developed after the independence of Namibia led to the increasing freedom for Indigenous peoples to pursue development opportunities associated with their land. Several ethnic groups, dispersed over a wide area, formed a 'Residents' Trust' which subsequently represented the collective in negotiations with a private operator (Salole 2007). Planning involved zoning the land and ensuring that all staff were local, and that training and skill development options were in place. The original Damaraland Camp was modest; however, immediate and ongoing commercial success led to a series of upgrades and the eventual shift towards high-end niche markets (Salole 2007). Present day Damaraland Camp has maintained the original indigenous-styled architecture, but includes supporting infrastructure such as a workshop and staff lodging (Salole 2007). Management and strategic functions are taken care of at a head office (via the private operator) not at the camp, which leaves the camp to focus on everyday operations. The Damaraland Camp won the 2005 Tourism for Tomorrow Conservation Award issued by the World Travel & Tourism Council.

> **Insights from Damaraland Camp**
> - Remote tourism infrastructure can combine new technology with local design and materials.
> - People dispersed over remote regions can form groups to lobby and negotiate on behalf of the collective.
> - Starting with modest infrastructure can allow for expansion later.
> - Remote tourism developments must consider self-sufficiency, such as erecting workshops and staff accommodation.
> - Shifting management off-site may allow a remote tourism operation to focus on the day-to-day operations.

4.5 Community-owned Eco-lodge in Kenya

In Kenya, independence led to land trusteeships allowing various Maasai groups to have greater freedom to consider tourism development opportunities (Zeppel 2006). There are currently a number of ecotourism lodges and camps through Maasai Kenya; however, Il Ngwesi is one of the original community-owned eco-lodges of East Africa. The Il Ngwesi Lodge was established using donations from the Kenyan Wildlife Service and assistance from other agencies (Zeppel 2006). It is a ranch covering 8,700 hectares and includes several mobile campsites and cultural centres (Zeppel 2006). It uses spring-fed electricity generation and solar water heating, and the separate lodges are made of local materials. Il Ngwesi tourism profits provide income for more than 400 Maasai households, support various infrastructure projects within the ranch and fund social projects such as construction of a primary school and provision of student bursaries (Zeppel 2006). The Il Ngwesi Lodge has been a model for community-owned lodges and inspiration for other tourism ventures and wildlife conservation, including the preservation of endangered rhinoceros (Il Ngwesi 2012). Yet despite these positive outcomes, there are suggestions (Biella 2011) that the direct economic benefits to Maasai people from the Lodge are meagre and that the sustainability of this eco-style of tourism is questionable.

> **Insights from Il Ngwesi Lodge**
> - People dispersed over remote regions have the opportunity to establish networks of remote tourist accommodation such as lodges and campgrounds.
> - Renewable energy sources can be a sensible option for remote area infrastructure.
> - Community-owned tourism can generate benefits that filter through a community.
> - Income from remote tourism can be limited, highlighting the need to carefully assess remote tourism opportunities and capital input in relation to projected income.

5. Tourism development by peoples indigenous to remote rainforests

Remote rainforests are part of the world's tropical forests found between 25 degrees north and south of the equator. Among these forests are three main types: tropical rainforests, tropical dry forests, and savannahs (Boucher et al. 2011). These regions account for over 30% of the Earth's land mass and are distributed through Africa, South and Central America, Asia and the Pacific (Boucher et al. 2011). While temperate and tropical regions include many countries with tourism sectors based on rainforest ecosystems, existing literature on tourism development by peoples indigenous to remote rainforests appears relatively limited.

5.1 Combining science and tourism in Papua New Guinea

The depletion of the Lakekamu-Kunimaipa Basin region of Papua New Guinea accelerated through clearing for palm oil plantations, mining and logging. As part of the World Wildlife Fund Biodiversity Conservation Network, a program was implemented from 1995 to 1998 to develop scientific activities and adventure tourism as alternatives to help preserve the Basin (BCN 2012). The project involved three major partners: Foundations of the People of the South Pacific of Papua New Guinea, the Wau Ecology Institute and Conservation International.

Much of the on-ground activity either involved local people or generated benefits that filtered back to them. For instance, a research station generated income from researchers that was passed on to local landholders. The potential and benefits from the project took some time to gain traction among the local people (BCN 2012). Some challenges of the project were the low literacy levels of local people, as well demonstrating the value of tourism to them when mining, logging and hunting offered fast cash. The first community-owned lodge in the area was Kakaro Lodge, which acted as a catalyst for developing an additional two community-owned lodges (BCN 2012). It must be noted, however, that the present literature review did not identify current information about the Lakekamu-Kunimaipa Basin lodges, nor are the lodges advertised in Papua New Guinea travel guides.

> ***Insights from the Lakekamu-Kunimaipa Basin***
> - Opportunities exist for remote people to develop research facilities that generate income in addition to tourism.
> - Tourism can be less lucrative and more long-term outcome-oriented than extraction industries.
> - Tourism success in some remote areas can inspire development by other remote people.

5.2 Special interest tourism: Bird-watching in the Papua New Guinea highlands

A community-owned venture operating in the Papua highlands is the Kumul Lodge. The lodge is designed using local methods and materials, and offers a setting for bird watching, hiking, village stays and cultural experiences (Papua New Guinea Holidays 2012). Indeed, the Kumul Lodge has been developed and positioned as a bird watching destination. The lodge offers walking trails that include a trek to the peak of a nearby mountain, while there is also an emphasis on integrating other local tourism ventures and experiences (Papua New Guinea Holidays 2012). The lodged is owned and staffed by local people and receives expertise from some outside agencies (Papua New Guinea Holidays 2012). According to Harwood (2010), land ownership and basic infrastructure such as electricity and telecommunications are two essential ingredients supporting community-based tourism development in remote highland regions of Papua New Guinea. Harwood (2010) also argues that appropriate tenure ensures that people have secure futures on their land, but without it, any form of tourism development for the Indigenous peoples of Papua New Guinea remains uncertain.

> ***Insights from the Kumul Lodge***
> - Remote tourism can build on unique natural features or experience opportunities.
> - Special interest and wildlife tourism offer a range of development opportunities.
> - Walking tracks offer visitors the chance to immerse themselves in remote landscapes.
> - Land tenure and basic infrastructure can be key factors that support remote tourism development.

5.3 Tourism as a sustainable solution in remote Amazon landscapes

In the Amazon a sustainable tourism agenda has been driven by eight member countries (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, Peru, Suriname and Venezuela) which form the Amazon Cooperation Treaty Organization (ACTO) (Sinclair & Jayawardena 2010). The ACTO is concerned about the future of the Amazon in the face of deforestation and associated impacts. The ACTO asks the question, 'Does sustainable tourism offer solutions for the protection of the Amazon rainforest?' (Sinclair & Jayawardena 2010, p. 124). The ACTO task is linked to broader concerns over climate change and science, and argues that intervention in the destruction of the Amazon should include sweeping changes in policy, attitudes and economic development.

The main challenges affecting tourism in the Amazon include:

- Resources (human, technical and financial) needed for the proper development of the industry

- The level of infrastructure development in the Amazon region

- An often inadequate legislative framework to support rainforest protection for tourism

- Limited development of standards for the practice of tourism in the Amazon

- Issues of visitor health and safety in the Amazon region.

(Sinclair & Jayawardena 2010, p. 134)

The challenges reflect the need for fundamental change in many areas of policy and development for, at least, the eight ACTO member countries.

The ACTO strategy advocates that Amazon rainforest tourism needs more organisation by peak authorities and greater focus on special events and experiences that encourage visitor immersion, such as hiking trails and touring routes (Sinclair & Jayawardena 2010). To carrying out its strategy, the ACTO must clarify the role of governments in protecting the Amazon, highlight the cost–benefit of tourism compared to extraction industries, and address the challenges of tourism as a means of preserving the rainforest (Sinclair & Jayawardena 2010). The ACTO strategy involves a two-phase approach: from 2007 to 2009 campaigns were undertaken to promote the tourism potential of the Amazon among member countries and throughout the world; the second phase is a five-year period of strengthening Amazonian tourism (Sinclair & Jayawardena 2010). The second phase includes encouraging visitor flows between the cooperating countries, promoting the smooth exchange of tourism information and adopting marketing strategies to reflect the cooperative tourism approach.

> ***Insights from the Amazon Cooperation Treaty Organization***
> - Remote regions can be the site of internationally significant ecosystems.
> - Scientific understanding can provide incentive to encourage non-extraction industry and preservation.
> - Altering established extraction industry patterns in remote areas can be challenging.
> - Remote landscape experiences provided by tourism may be important to influence existing behaviours and understanding.
> - Broad strategies must define the role of each participant and set out a path for the future remote tourism.
> - In some cases, national tourism development objectives may be unsuited to meet the needs of remote tourism.

5.4 The Posada Amazonas Lodge: benefits of external partners in Peru

The Posada Amazonas Lodge, which is built from local materials and local methods, is designed to have minimal ecological impact (Hill & Hill 2011). The lodge runs under a partnership between the local community and an external tourism operator (Hill & Hill 2011). There is an agreement between the parties, which includes provision for a steering committee to oversee the lodge. The external operator provides key training for locals who staff the lodge, and the agreement includes a rotational system where new local trainees are added every two years (Hill & Hill 2011). While economic benefits filter through the entire community (profits are divided among the community), many community members maintain various forms of farming. The entire community is responsible for environmental conservation and rules are in place not to hunt wildlife valuable to tourism (e.g. jaguars) or to fell timber in designated tourism zones.

> **Insights from the Posada Amazonas Lodge**
> - Working with an external operator can provide opportunities for training and capacity building.
> - In remote tourism, the entire region is on show and the entire community can play a role in maintaining quality.
> - Systems can be put in place to provide local people with the opportunity to gain experience in different facets of a remote tourism initiative.
> - A steering committee can be useful to oversee a remote tourism initiative.
> - Remote tourism should focus on capacity building rather than over-reliance on outside support.

5.5 Steps for San José de Uchupiamonas ownership of Chalalán Eco-Lodge, Bolivia

The Madidi National Park in Bolivia is the location for the Chalalán eco-lodge. Chalalán is owned and operated by the Uchupiamonas people of San José de Uchupiamonas (Cortez 2010). Situated on the shores of Lake Chalalán, the lodge is a 4–5 hour boat journey from Rurrenabaque. Staffed by Uchupiamonas people, the lodge was established in the 1990s after Uchupiamonas leaders recognised the need to minimise out-migration from the community and that tourism was an alternative to ecologically damaging activities (Cortez 2010). Using a grant from the Inter-American Development Bank, the lodge emerged from a partnership between the Uchupiamonas people and Conservation International (CI) of Bolivia, who provided villagers with the necessary training to manage and operate the lodge (Madidi.com 2012). By 2001 the Uchupiamonas people attained complete ownership of Chalalán and subsequently won the biennial United Nations Development Programme Equator Prize in 2008 for their achievements in poverty reduction through conservation and sustainable practices. The lodges are built using local materials and building methods, as well as utilising solar power and water/waste recycling. The lodge features a range of lake activities and 30 kilometres of rainforest walking trails.

> **Insights from the Chalalán Eco-Lodge**
> - Tourism can provide a means for remote people to remain on country.
> - Remote people can aim to eventually own facilities that may have been set up through funding partnership.
> - Management training is an important part of capacity building.
> - Long-term focus may be critical for remote Indigenous people to achieve their goals from tourism.

5.6 Protected Area Networks in Southern Chile

Southern Chile provides an example of how establishing a network of Indigenous Parks (the Mapu Lahual Network, or RML) became a major ecotourism and conservation opportunity for eight Indigenous community groups (McAlpin 2008). The network of parks was instigated by community leaders who wanted to overcome low per-capita income and the legacies of logging. The eight communities formed a leadership association and, with the assistance of government, proceeded to establish the conservation and tourism development within their designated community lands (McAlpin 2008). Each park within the network was planned to include infrastructure such as campgrounds, walking trails and information centres. The leadership association was permitted to form based on the 1994 Chile Indigenous Law, which provides a legal avenue for Chilean Indigenous people to form government-recognised representative organisations (McAlpin 2008). This leadership is reported to have established coordination and structure among the member communities, with the Indigenous Park network also providing economic gains for communities (McAlpin 2008). The project has provided a means for some communities to acquire land title over some of their lands.

Insights from the RML Network, Chile
- Conservation areas can include managed visitor access, such as walking tracks and campgrounds.
- Protected areas can provide Indigenous peoples with the opportunity to develop and encourage tourism on their lands and on their terms.
- Leadership that brings together different groups of remote Indigenous peoples can be a vital step in achieving regional tourism development.
- Legal frameworks can play a role in facilitating the capacity of remote Indigenous peoples to undertake tourism development initiatives.
- Land title provides Indigenous peoples with the opportunity to lead conservation efforts.
- Building partnerships between remote people and government can lead to positive outcomes.

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6. Tourism development by peoples indigenous to high altitude mountainous areas

Mountain regions account for almost a quarter of the Earth's land mass (UNEP 2007). Tourism in some mountain areas is relatively new, but in others, such as Nepal, tourism development is well established after many decades of seasonal visitation. Like arid regions, mountainous geographies are found on every continent, and it is common for one mountain range to be shared by several nation states. Remote high altitude mountain ranges include the Andes of South America, the Crystal Mountains of Africa and the Himalaya in Asia (Tibet, Nepal, India, Kashmir, China, Afghanistan and Pakistan) (UNEP 2007). By and large, high altitude regions tend to be sparsely populated and often marginalised from lowland regions (Godde et al. 2000). Mountainous regions offer visitors landscape experiences, remoteness, cultural experiences and opportunities for adventure, challenges and recreation.

6.1 Early life cycle remote tourism planning in India

For several years India has increased focus on remote tourism development in various mountainous regions. For India, tourism development in many remote mountainous regions is at the early stages of the destination life cycle (ADB 2010). India is investing resources into development through the Infrastructure Development Investment Program for Tourism (IDITP), which is planning and developing the fundamental infrastructure needed to support tourism in mountainous areas. The IDITP's financing facility

has several key objectives: (1) to ensure access to and between tourism destinations, (2) to improve basic infrastructure (e.g. waste management, water and public transport), and (3) to implement capacity building programs in local communities (ADB 2010). In carrying out the IDITP, the Indian Government concedes that land acquisition may be necessary, but the program works within a range of legislative and policy frameworks which include clauses relating to the relocation and resettlement of displaced local peoples (ADB 2010). This program suggests that in some countries the state is undertaking long-term planning and investment in basic infrastructure for remote tourism.

Insights from remote India
- While the development of product and experiences for visitors is important, early life cycle remote tourism may need to focus on issues like access and basic infrastructure.
- Government infrastructure programs specifically dedicated to developing remote tourism may be needed in some countries.
- Early life cycle remote tourism planning should set the foundations for long-term objectives.

6.2 Controlling tourism development in Manali

The literature suggests that the scale of tourism development in mountain regions must remain small and be controlled through practices such as sustainable tourism. For some mountain communities the development cycle is quite advanced, requiring remediation rather than early life cycle planning. At Manali in the Himalayan region of Himachal Predesh, tourism visitation increased over many years, leading to degradation and haphazard development. Contending with the issues requires several steps, beginning with calculating the tourism carrying capacity and then implementing sustainable development strategies (Singh & Mishra 2004). The strategies include long- and short-term goals related to all sectors involved in tourism (e.g. accommodation, transport, building codes, infrastructure and alternative industries). The effectiveness of such a program for an entire township is unclear.

Insights from Manali
- Destinations in the mature life cycle phase may need to consider steps to remediate haphazard tourism development.
- Remediating the negative effects of tourism in remote communities may require a co-ordinated effort by various sectors of tourism and the community.
- Without planning or controls, popular remote destinations can suffer degradation.
- Determining tourism carrying capacity may be an important step in the tourism development process.

6.3 Showcasing best practice: an industry guidebook for Nepal

The adoption of sustainable practices among tourism operators is well documented in the UNEP (2008) publication *Building Nepal's Private Sector Capacity for Sustainable Tourism Operations*, which provides real case studies grouped under various themes: climate change, water management, waste management, women's empowerment, promoting equitable distribution of tourism revenue, training and employment policies, training staff and local community, and philanthropy (UNEP 2008). The publication shows that sustainable development is a choice and that by implementing environmental, social and culturally responsible practices, small tourism operators can gain competitive advantages.

One of the guidebook's case study themes, waste management, is instructive, providing a reminder that remote tourism operators, big or small, must implement responsible waste management practices: 'Waste management in Nepal is in a state of crisis … The traditional waste management practice in most

municipalities includes depositing refuse in uncovered designated dump sites in open fields and along the local rivers' (2008, p. 22). The Mountain Agenda (1999) group also noted the impact of waste on the region. By the 1980s, as many as 80% of Sherpa households of Namche Bazaar, in the Khumbu region of Nepal, relied on income from tourism. Much of this income was derived from Sherpa-owned lodges or porter services to Everest, but 'as the visitor numbers increase, so does the garbage. It is estimated that there are 17 metric tons of garbage per kilometre of tourist trail' (p. 28). The Sagarmatha National Park has implemented programs to deal with the waste, but as the Mountain Agenda (1999) group pointed out, by the time initiatives were put in place, the problems were already well known through visitor word of mouth.

Insights from the Nepal industry guidebook
- An industry guidebook can be a means to encourage a common approach to ethical and sustainable industry conduct.
- Sustainable development may be more effective if it includes short- and long-term objectives.
- Existing operators can provide best practice examples of implementing sustainability measures and activities.
- Operators must make an effort to implement sustainable tourism practices.
- Achieving sustainability can require undertaking a range of processes and activities.
- Waste management can be a challenge in remote areas.
- Generating positive word of mouth by visitors can be achieved by ensuring that the whole visitor experience, including responsible waste management, is positive.

6.4 Remote tourism land use planning

The Nepalese examples highlight that it can be difficult to control tourism and retain the unique attributes of remote areas. This highlights a challenge: the need for land use planning in remote tourism. Even where a remote mountainous region does have the opportunity to implement carefully managed development, any introduced structures in natural settings alter the environment. As Sicroff et al. (2003) maintain, visitors are often drawn to mountain regions based on a fairly narrow set of attraction features such as pristine landscapes. For Boller et al. (2010), small-scale developments can alter these qualities and result in visitors perceiving the region as having a diminished sense of remoteness. Boller et al. (2010) argue that land use zoning provides an avenue to overcome these concerns because accessible usage areas can be set aside to keep activity away from sensitive zones. Such planning ensures that visitors can be provided with amenities but still have opportunities to experience the remote regions they visit.

Insights for remote tourism
- Land use planning is a means to manage and control visitor activity.
- Visitors can be mindful that even a small structure can have an impact on the natural qualities of a remote landscape.
- Zoning a landscape according to usage can ensure that principles of conservation and economic development through tourism can co-exist.

6.5 Community tourism in mountainous China

The literature on remote mountain tourism describes the principles of sustainable development as well as numerous examples of community tourism development. For example, the Zhenghe area in the mountainous Sichuan Province of China, where the population are primarily Qing Peoples, was the focus of a community tourism development initiative (Lianbin & Kaibang 2008) based on shared community participation and investment in tourism. Eight households from Wulong village invested money and

property into establishing tourist accommodation (Lianbin & Kaibang 2008). They formed a company to administer the project; however, with their initial investments too low to construct new accommodation, the villagers accommodated visitors in their homes (Lianbin & Kaibang 2008). Over time, the organisational approach evolved where the village investors became shareholders in the company. The success of the Wulong village motivated other Zhenghe villages to adopt a similar approach to tourism. Lianbin and Kaibang (2008) identify the key components of this community development model, which include capitalising on natural qualities in the area, encouraging tourism as a positive substitute for primary industry, villager investment, democratic villager management, focus on wellbeing and prosperity, and leadership.

> **Insights from the Sichuan Province of China**
> - A community tourism approach can involve shared participation and investment.
> - Having limited start-up capital may require adopting a flexible tourism development approach.
> - A community approach to remote tourism can be achieved through implementing an integrated community development model.
> - A community tourism development approach relies on commitment and enthusiasm from local people.

6.6 Challenges of externally driven remote tourism projects: an example from China

In remote parts of China's Yunnan Province, community development initiatives were undertaken by Sicroff et al. (2003) in several villages. The projects were funded with foundation grant money, but the financial pool and life span of the projects were limited. Coordinated over a series of site visits, the projects involved identifying tourism development opportunities and ensuring that the appropriate organisational structures were set up within the communities to keep the developments moving forward (Sicroff et al. 2003). Over time, local community motivations diminished, competing interests overshadowed the original project developments and the tourism directions for the communities altered. In one of the communities, tourism development went in a totally different direction than the small community-based ecotourism project planned under the original project. Sicroff et al. (2003) caution that such projects need consistent leadership and support, that local politics can be disruptive, that locals may choose not to embrace community development and that remote locations can be subject to broader regional development agendas.

> **Insights from the Yunnan Province of China**
> - Tourism development is a long process; competing interests, programs and changes will arise along the way.
> - Agreements and ongoing negotiation as part of a long-term coordinated approach are needed when external parties and remote communities collaborate under a tourism development initiative.
> - Having a common cause can be important when implementing a community tourism approach.
> - People have different opinions and levels of support for participating in remote tourism.
> - A community tourism development approach may only be suitable in some remote tourism contexts.

6.7 Moving beyond conflict through tourism in Uganda

The importance of a common focus providing a sense of unity in community-based remote tourism development is best illustrated by the Mgahinga Gorilla National Park in Uganda. After years of civil war and an uneasy relationship with local people (who were removed from their homelands to make way for the gorilla reserve), the Uganda Wildlife Authority implemented a project to improve community education and health facilities (Blomley et al. 2010). The program signified an important step in forging

new collaborations between the national park and local communities. Park Rangers worked with local community members on a range of initiatives, including establishing the Mgahinga Community Campground (Blomley et al. 2010). While the Mountain Agenda (1999) group argue that endangered gorillas are a 'fragile resource' for tourism development, the resolution of the past between local communities and the park has provided opportunities (like the campground) to overcome poverty (Blomley et al. 2010). The common interest between the community and the national park is wildlife preservation, highlighting that even under very difficult circumstances, displaced people can continue living in association with their country but in redefined ways.

Insights from the Mgahinga Gorilla National Park
- Some remote areas demonstrate that tourism can provide opportunities to overcome a troubled past.
- Identifying common interests can lead to developing long-term approaches to healing differences and achieving common goals.
- Governments need to work with displaced peoples to identify and implement new opportunities.

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7. Tourism development by peoples indigenous to remote cold and warm water islands

There are many islands in the world and various ways that they can be classified. Sheldon (2005) identified several common classifications, including whether the location is cold or warm water, whether the island is part of an archipelago, what degree of cultural homogeneity exists, the island's proximity to mainland, and its governance structure. There are now 52 small island developing nations in the Alliance of Small Island States (United Nations Department for Social and Economic Affairs 2013), but there are many more islands that are independent nations, with the Island Directory (2004) listing around 150 island countries. The Global Island Database (2010) notes that around 500 million people are distributed among more than 130,000 islands worldwide.

In a review about the *Barbados Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States*, the United Nations (2005) identified small island nation development constraints as:

- Limited and narrow resource base
- Reliance on importation and sensitivity to international disruptions
- Limited (often small) domestic market economy
- High costs for basic infrastructure (e.g. roads, energy, communications)
- Fragile natural ecosystems
- Limited private sector and surplus of capital
- Inadequate public administration and infrastructure.

International agencies such as the UN recognise that these challenges require concerted regional and international assistance. The UN's Agenda 21 on sustainable development maintains:

> Small island developing States, and islands supporting small communities are a special case both for environment and development. They are ecologically fragile and vulnerable. Their small size, limited resources, geographic dispersion and isolation from markets, place them at a disadvantage economically and prevent economies of scale. (UN 2010, p. iii)

The UN (2010) points out that for many small island nations, tourism is an important source of export earnings, employment and development.

7.1 Remote warm water island tourism

The available literature highlights that environmental challenges are applicable for many warm and cold water islands, but they each have contrasting stages of tourism development and forms of tourism activity. Tourism development on warm water islands far exceeds existing development on cold water island destinations. In very general terms, Baldacchino (2006a, p. 186) says that for warm island destinations, 'the tourism industry dominates society at large; space is at a premium; staged authenticity is rampant … the natives can only be obligingly happy … [and] much activity takes place in or near the water'. Brown and Cave (2010) add that some warm water island tourism development proceeded at such a pace that planning and controls appear to have been overlooked. While the supply of tourism infrastructure can be quite high, warm water island accommodation can often be premium and high in economic leakage to foreign companies and investors (Hampton & Christensen 2007). Baldacchino (2006a) is critical of the tourism literature in focusing too much attention on warm island tourism.

Insights for remote tourism
- Remote regions can be developed into easily accessible tourism destinations, which can have positive and negative implications.
- Some forms of remote tourism can raise concerns about cultural authenticity and that Indigenous people may only occupy menial or stereotyped roles in tourism.
- Some remote regions demonstrate how foreign/external companies can monopolise a tourism industry and lead to high economic leakage.

7.2 Village Homestay Network in Fiji

The negative aspects of tourism in some warm water islands take some attention away from the countless examples of positive tourism development by peoples indigenous to warm water islands. Across Fiji there is a network of village-owned and -operated homestays (Zeppel 2006). Visitors stay in villages and experience everyday Fijian village life and activities such as spear fishing, Kava ceremonies and horse riding (Zeppel 2006). Homestay villages are part of the Fijian Village Homestay network, which coordinates many villages spread across several islands. The network markets and coordinates visitor bookings with a central website, which according to Zeppel (2006), came under Fijian ownership in 2004. The booking company also joined international group Global Village Homestays, a network with destinations in Thailand, Africa, South America and Japan. Homestays are marketed as inexpensive and as providing rich cultural experiences for visitors and tourism opportunities for Indigenous peoples.

Insights from Village Homestays in Fiji
- Being part of a network can provide small remote operators with services, marketing and access to visitor markets that may otherwise be difficult.
- Coordinated networks can make it easier for visitors to learn about and make bookings for a remote product or experience.
- Networks can often have a strong brand, which can be an advantage for small remote operator members who can benefit from that strong brand in the marketplace.
- Membership in a network often means products and experiences must be delivered at a particular standard on a consistent basis.

7.3 Small-scale tourism for domestic tourists in Samoa

An example of small-scale development for Indigenous island communities is highlighted by the many Samoan beachside villages that offer traditional style accommodation known as *fale*. Fale are basic structures raised above the ground with a thatched roof, open sides and woven blinds that can be lowered on each side. They are inexpensive to build and offer low-cost visitor accommodation. Contrary to the UN suggestion that small island nations are dependent on international tourists, Scheyvens (2007) points out that domestic visitors mainly stay at fale; although domestic visitors are typically day-trippers, there is a growing trend for overnight stays during Samoan holidays and cultural festivals. The fale provide development opportunities for local people, and the small-scale, localised nature of the operations stimulates the production of food, provision of visitor transport and the like. Scheyvens (2007) argues that even in seemingly small island nations, tourism based on domestic visitation might not have much impact on the national Gross Domestic Product, but it encourages the re-distribution of wealth to provide income for small communities.

> **Insights from fale tourism in Samoa**
> - Low-cost tourism development that responds to existing cultural trends may be a suitable option for remote tourism development.
> - Targeting domestic visitors can be a low capital-intensive form of involvement in tourism.
> - Even small-scale development has the potential to generate additional opportunities for other remote people.

7.4 Changing from hunting to tourism on Pamilacan Island

The Indigenous people of Pamilacan Island, 700 kilometres south-west of Manila, traditionally hunted dolphin, whales and whale sharks (White & Rosales 2003). However, with a growing black market trade and localised extinction of some whale species, the Philippine Government introduced a hunting ban which stopped any illegal activity, but also put an end to traditional practices for the Indigenous People (White & Rosales 2003). A leader in the local community established Pamilacan Island Dolphin and Whale Watching Tours in an effort to use ecotourism as an alternative source of livelihood and income for families impacted by the hunting ban (White & Rosales 2003). The local leader coordinated the government development program in the wake of the hunting ban, a period which saw the gradual shift from community hostility towards a growing level of acceptance and support for the policy (White & Rosales 2003). Whale watching provides the Pamilacan people with an alternative way to maintain a living from a resource they can no longer utilise under traditional ways.

> **Insights from tourism on Pamilacan Island**
> - Leadership and vision can be vital in periods of change and uncertainty in a remote region.
> - Change from existing ways of life to tourism means converting the loss of old ways into opportunities for renewal and prosperity.
> - New tourism initiative development is often a slow process, particularly during periods of community change.

7.5 Remote cold water island tourism

For most cold island tourism destinations, small-scale approaches are typical. As Baldacchino (2006b) explains, cold water islands have harsh environments, small resident populations and a very different tourism appeal than their warm water counterparts. Visitor activities are based on outdoor adventure,

wildlife encounters, local culture and history. Where warm water islands are attractive because of the ocean, 'in the cold water environment, open water is *not* appealing – its temperature may even be life threatening … Pleasure is derived from being overwhelmed by, succumbing to and respecting the environment' (Baldacchino 2006a, p. 186). There is usually limited tourism infrastructure and significantly lower levels of visitation than warm water islands. Given that cold water island communities are often reliant on (at best) a couple of existing industries, community willingness for tourism activity can be low.

Insights for remote tourism
- Different remote environments offer differing tourism experiences, which in turn attract different visitor segments.
- Tourism can receive limited acceptance in some communities which have well established and a long association with other industries.
- The natural environment can be the most decisive factor in determining the forms of tourism in a remote region.

7.6 Stimulating entrepreneurial capacity on Baffin Island, Canada

Baffin Island in the north-eastern Canadian Territory of Nunavut is the largest jurisdiction in the world under management by Aboriginal people (Baldacchino 2006b). Ecotourism is viewed as a development option after a legacy of resource extraction. Led by the Government of Nunavut, the region developed a community-based tourism approach focusing on culture, adventure and wildlife tourism (Baldacchino 2006b). Baffin Island also receives cruise ship visitation and a range of package tour operators. Being within the Arctic Circle, the Baffin Island tourism season is very limited.

Woodley (1999) explored the implications that legal land entitlement had on filtering benefits back to local communities on Baffin Island. The work highlighted that even though there were high levels of entrepreneurial initiative in some communities, the lack of long-term strategic direction at a broader regional level meant that there was insufficient structure to harness that potential. In a 2001 tourism development strategy, Nunavut Tourism (2001) highlighted the need to encourage competitive tourism activity, with particular focus on stimulating entrepreneurial development.

Insights from Baffin Island
- There are opportunities for remote tourism to combine culture, adventure and wildlife experiences.
- The seasonality of remote tourism highlights the need for remote tourism operators to develop appropriate strategies to get the most out of tourism.
- The entrepreneurial potential of remote people may sometimes be overlooked because existing authorities can fail to nurture remote entrepreneurs.

7.7 Changing tourism strategy in the Chatham Islands, New Zealand

The Chatham Islands are around 800 kilometres east of New Zealand. With traditional industries based on fishing and farming, the Chatham Islands had developed a unique governance system based on local government (responsible for roads and rates) and an enterprise trust in charge of other basic infrastructure (e.g. wharves and electricity) (Cardow & Wiltshier 2010). As such, Chatham Islanders (including the enterprise trust) viewed fishing as a main source of economic development. Declining fish stocks, however, contributed to a gradual shift over five years; Chatham operators agreed to change their target market and the tourism strategy on the island, and came to view tourism as an alternative main industry, with fishing or farming now used to offset the seasonality of tourism (Cardow & Wiltshier 2010). Chatham operators formed a collaborative network (a Visitor Industry Stakeholder Group) separate from the two

island governance bodies and created a common brand. As they had limited existing infrastructure, operators diversified to account for any shortfalls in servicing tourist needs.

The shift in direction for the Chatham Islands was in recognition of visitation trends, particularly markets the network had previously considered as incidental (Cardow & Wiltshier 2010). The new direction involved developing products and experiences suited to their new target market: fully independent travellers and adventure seekers (Cardow & Wiltshier 2010). In their assessment of Chatham Islands tourism, Cardow and Wiltshier (2010) argued that community-based solutions may be more effective if implemented in partnership with public agencies, including the enterprise trust. This is particularly the case, Cardow and Wiltshier (2010) suggest, where training and skills development are concerned. To this end, Cardow and Wiltshier (2010) maintain that capacity building must be an important part of the economic development approach for the islands.

> **Insights from the Chatham Islands**
> - It may be important for remote tourism operators to be willing to recognise the need to change an existing strategy or target market; doing so may lead to a revival in the sector.
> - Involvement in tourism could reduce remote area reliance on other industries, but some examples show that tourism should complement, rather than replace other sectors.
> - A community development approach may be implemented in partnership with government and other agencies.
> - Tourism operators can learn much from accepting their own limitations.

7.8 Aboriginal-defined tourism in Canada's west Arctic

Work by Notzke (1999) on Aboriginal tourism in Canada's west Arctic region (including Banks Island and Victoria Island) highlights that research and development must pay attention to the unique economies of these remote areas. This includes recognising various remote contexts, household structures and trading systems, as well as developing suitable management frameworks. Tourism must also be integrated with existing land management systems and various administrative institutions. Notzke (1999, p. 67) highlights that for the Inuvialuit Peoples of Canada's west Arctic region:

> In embracing tourism, the challenge is twofold: to protect the integrity of their land-
> based economy and way of life from trespass and interference of the tourism industry;
> and to engage in tourism activities in a way which enables the industry to fit into,
> nurture, and benefit community mixed economies to an optimum degree.

Notzke (1999) identifies that the Inuvialuit met the first challenge by introducing Inuvialuit-focused tourism guidelines (e.g. the Inuvialuit recognised that the tourism season coincides with traditional whaling and introduced stringent protocols to manage the interface between the two). The second challenge, as Notzke highlights, is addressed in part by people involved in tourism ensuring they continue land-based livelihoods outside (and during) tourism seasons. According to Notzke, the Inuvialuit could meet these challenges based on provisions in the land claim settlement. As Notzke argues, tourism inquiry into Aboriginal tourism in such remote regions must seek to understand the unique practices of local peoples and how tourism can work within those contexts.

> **Insights from Canada's west Arctic region**
> - Tourism development should align with the existing unique contexts of remote areas, which includes fitting in with existing land management practices.
> - Development approaches imposed from external parties can be inconsistent with existing ways of a remote region.
> - Culturally appropriate tourism can be planned to ensure tourism has minimal impact on the maintenance of cultural practices.
> - Remote people need to have the freedom to define the terms of tourism development.

8. Summary

The cases and examples reviewed in this report highlight that despite contending with tremendous ecological variability, peoples indigenous to remote regions of the world seem to share a number of similarities. There is a common trend for remote people to find a way to remain on country and maintain existing cultural practices, while also becoming involved in the opportunities of remote tourism activity. Many examples covered in the review advocate small-scale development sensitive to remote environments and the people who live there. However, some cases revealed that some of the fundamental prerequisites include basic infrastructure and land tenure. Numerous cases highlighted that participation in tourism by peoples indigenous to remote regions of the world often involves products and experiences enabling visitors to be immersed in the landscapes and to take part in cultural activities. Combining cultural tourism, ecotourism and sustainability was also commonly advocated by many groups and organisations.

The cases and examples also highlight innovative practices in the governance and organisation of enterprises and groups of people dispersed over remote landscapes. The practice of small but geographically isolated groups forming partnerships and collaborations with each other and with outside agencies reflected an overall tendency for peoples indigenous to remote areas to create a sense of collective engagement in tourism. Isolation and distance from services centres, critical mass and infrastructure in various remote parts of the world are receiving attention from development authorities, often to facilitate tourism development. Some of the broad approaches to vast remote geographies highlight another area of innovative activity occurring at the government and policy level. In these cases there appears to be growing acceptance that remote tourism development involves adapting approaches to the distinct characteristics and needs of remote regions. The distinct characteristics not only include unique features of the people who live there, but also planning policy and strategy based on remoteness above existing political boundaries or policy.

9. Applying lessons from overseas to remote Australia

Remote Australia covers a variety of landscape contexts, with the needs and concerns different from one area to the next. The tourism needs, challenges and opportunities in remote Australia should be considered accordingly, on a localised region-by-region, place-by-place basis. With empowered decision making, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people hold unique localised knowledge of their region, place, needs and challenges. A major part of applying local knowledge is to overcome the challenges of remoteness.

The background material reviewed in this report highlights that Indigenous peoples around the world contend with a number of challenges in remote tourism. These challenges include:

External concerns
- Overcoming a troubled past
- Influence from external governance
- Change imposed by legislation
- Lack of land tenure
- Counteracting extraction industries
- Dealing with multiple jurisdictions
- Reliance on external partnerships

About the target markets
- Short tourism season
- Narrow visitor markets
- Limited access to visitor markets
- Competing with large organisations
- Low tourism revenue
- Negative visitor word-of-mouth

Internal concerns
- Internal politics
- Resistance to change
- Need for basic infrastructure (e.g. waste management)
- Need for self-sufficient infrastructure
- Limited access to skilled labour
- Need for capacity building
- Loss of traditional ways

About the remoteness
- Operating in fragile ecosystems
- Sparse populations
- High costs

Strategies required
- Need for long-term, incremental strategies
- Need for diversification
- Need to integrate tourism with environment, community, cultural and other strategies

These challenges illustrate that participating in remote tourism can be very difficult, and success can mean overcoming any, or many of these challenges. The enormity of these challenges, however, highlights the importance for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, and other Indigenous Peoples around the World, to have appropriate knowledge on hand. As the many different forms of remote tourism reviewed in this report highlight, planning and strategic knowledge needs vary from place to place. Background information covering a broad range of remote tourism situations can be useful in many different planning and strategic decision-making contexts.

The insights in this report cover many issues that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people could use to help them make decisions about remote tourism. Many of these issues are listed below. The issues relate to a broad range of themes and different remote tourism decision-making contexts. This means that participating in remote tourism requires considering many different factors and requires a broad planning approach that covers a range of issues. For example, the cases reviewed in this report highlight many issues to consider when starting a new remote tourism initiative, such as strategy development, infrastructure needs and SWOT analysis. Other issues cover different forms of remote tourism, such as ecotourism, community tourism and special interest tourism. Issues were also covered by cases reviewed in this report that identify the usefulness of assessing external factors that play a role in tourism, such as legislation and government policy.

Generic solutions such as basing a remote tourism development strategy on incremental, long-term planning and small-scale development will address some of these issues. Other issues highlighted by cases reviewed in this report – such as waste management, marketing, partnerships and targeting domestic tourists – would be specifically addressed in a development plan. Some issues arising in this report may be described as strategic objectives of a remote tourism development strategy, such as nurturing wellbeing, capacity building, culturally appropriate development and overcoming a troubled past. Issues like these reflect things that people might aim to achieve by participating in remote tourism. Overall, the issues in this report highlight that many aspects need to be considered in remote tourism planning by individual operators, small to medium sized enterprises, industry associations and policy makers.

Summary of considerations in planning remote tourism

External considerations

- Funding
- Entrepreneurship support
- Partnerships
- Role of external interest groups
- Regional networks
- Land use zoning
- The influence of legislation

Maintaining connection

- Overcoming a troubled past
- Nurturing wellbeing
- Community tourism development
- Targeting domestic tourists
- Special interest tourism
- Culturally appropriate tourism development
- Remote landscape fragility
- Sustainability
- Ecotourism
- Science and tourism links

Business planning

- SWOT analysis
- Setting common goals
- Land tenure needs
- Long-term planning
- Small-scale development
- Incremental development
- National collaborative strategies
- Changing existing strategies
- Early tourism life cycle needs
- Mature tourism life cycle needs
- Infrastructure needs
- Organisation structure
- Diversification
- Dealing with seasonality
- Capacity building
- Leadership
- Visitor management
- Waste management
- Marketing

The initiatives reviewed in this report also provide evidence of approaches and strategies that have been implemented within the challenging contexts of remote tourism. In much of the work reviewed in this report, the remote tourism initiatives appear to succeed, but whether this success has been sustained (at the time this report was prepared) remains unclear. The uncertainty of remote tourism relates to one of the defining characteristics of economic participation in remote areas identified earlier: dependency on external sources. The tourism issues reviewed in this report illustrate ways that remote tourism initiatives strive to become less dependent on some external sources such as government, partners, infrastructure, labour and legislation. These forms of dependencies may be linked to the capacity for remote Indigenous peoples around the world, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, to deliver tourism products and experiences on their own terms. The aims of developing remote tourism initiatives, then, might need to include ensuring that dependencies on outside sources are empowering and productive, and not disabling for remote Indigenous peoples around the world, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.

10. Further information

Remote arid and semi-arid remote tourism

- The Sahara of Cultures and People: http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=10403&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
- Syria Today (Magazine), Palmyra: http://www.syria-today.com/index.php/june-2008/288-focus/1577-striking-a-balance
- Visit-Syria: http://www.visit-syria.com/enpalm.htm
- Damaraland Camp, Namibia: http://www.wilderness-safaris.com/namibia_kunene/damaraland_camp/introduction/
- Il Ngwesi, Kenya: http://ilngwesi.com/

Remote rainforest tourism

- BCNet, Lakekamu, Papua New Guinea: http://www.bcnet.org/bsp/bcn/projects/lakekamu97_3.htm
- Kumul Lodge, Papua New Guinea: http://www.kumul-lodge.com/
- Amazon Cooperation Treaty Organization: http://www.otca.org.br/en/
- Rainforest Expeditions, Posada Amazonas, Peru: http://www.perunature.com/posada-amazonas.html
- Chalalán Ecolodge, Bolivia: http://www.chalalan.com/index_en.php
- Madidi.com, Bolivia: http://www.madidi.com/
- Mapu Lahual Network of Protected Areas , Chile: http://ccc2.cl.tripod.com/turismo/mapulahualing.html

High altitude mountainous remote tourism

- International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD): http://www.icimod.org/?q=1252
- United Nations Development Program: http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home.html
- UNESCO: http://www.unesco.org/new/en/
- Himachal Tourism, Manali: http://himachaltourism.gov.in/post/Manali.aspx
- Nepal, Ministry of Culture, Tourism & Aviation: http://www.tourism.gov.np/
- China National Tourist Office: http://www.cnto.org/chengdu.asp
- Yunnan Tourism, China: http://en.yunnantourism.com/
- Mgahinga Community Development Organisation, Uganda: http://www.mcdoa.org/MCDOProjects.aspx

Cold and warm water island remote tourism

- Global Island Database: http://gid.unep-wcmc.org/index.html
- Island Directory: http://islands.unep.ch/isldir.htm
- United Nations, Small Island Developing States: http://www.unohrlls.org/en/sids/43/
- Global Village Homestays, Fiji: http://www.villagehomestays.com/index.htm
- Samoa Tourism Authority, Fale Tourism: http://www.samoa.travel/accommodation/Beach%20Fales/
- Pamilacan Island Dolphin and Whale Watching Tours: http://dolphinwhalewatch.homestead.com/index.html
- Nunavut Tourism, Baffin Island: http://www.nunavuttourism.com/
- Chatham Islands Enterprise Trust: http://www.discoverthechathamislands.co.nz/
- West Arctic Visitor Information Centre: http://www.iti.gov.nt.ca/tourismparks/parks/visitor_centres/inuvik_visitor_centre.shtml

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