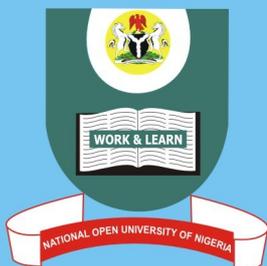


ESM 221 ECOTOURISM



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA



**ESM 221
ECOTOURISM**

Developer/Writer

Dr. G.O. Falade
National Open University of Nigeria
Ibadan Study Centre, Ibadan

Programme Leader

Prof. Afolabi Adebajo
National Open University of Nigeria



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island
Lagos

Abuja office
No. 5 Dar es Salaam Street,
Off Aminu Kanu Crescent
Wuse II, Abuja
Nigeria

e-mail: centralinfo@nou.edu.ng

URL: www.nou.edu.ng

Published by
National Open University of Nigeria

Printed 2008

ISBN:

All Rights Reserved

Printed by:

CONTENTS	PAGE
Introduction	1
Working through this Course	2
The Assignment File	2
Tutor-Marked Assignment	3
How to Get the Most of this Course.....	4
Final Examination and Grading.....	4
Final Advice.....	4

Introduction

Ecotourism is a subject of the spectrum of tourism types which make up nature-based tourism. Ecotourism is often viewed and promoted as being consistent with conservation objectives because it is small-scale with limited ecological and social impacts. In contrast, nature-based tourism, because of its larger scale, is often used to promote national development objectives rather than conservation objectives.

One of the advantages of ecotourism is that it is more ecologically and culturally sensitive and less likely to bring the negative impacts associated with mass tourism.

The demand for nature-based tourism and ecotourism has been increasing steadily. This trend is expected to continue. The key determinants of what tourists want are determined by their knowledge, their desired level of excitement, available vacation time and cost.

This course discusses mainly some selected ecotourism projects in Nigeria. Despite tremendous differences in size and management of protected areas, cultures, types of ecotourism enterprises (like La Campagne Tropicana Beach Resorts), and government involvement (like Obudu Cattle Ranch, etc), in most cases, ecotourism and nature-based tourism have not lived up to expectations in Nigeria. Nevertheless, they remain a potential avenue for conservation.

As a discipline, tourism has failed to harness human resources and has succeeded only partially in creating mass awareness and local participation. It is hoped that the new National Action Plan for Tourism (that is being developed) will highlight the potential of our tourism industry and emphasise its employment generating capability. The relevance of training manpower in the diverse areas of Tourism Industry cannot be overemphasised. It has to be appreciated that such manpower is not required just as top of middle management levels. All the personnel involved in diverse activities at various levels need an equally

professional approach with skills and knowledge to handle the operations at whichever positions they hold.

This Foundation Course in Ecotourism (ESM 221) is the first step in this direction. The course has been designed and developed by academics from Tourism and different branches of the Tourism Industry. The idea is to:

- familiarise you with varied aspects of ecotourism
- create awareness about ecotourism
- map out the various skills required for a career in ecotourism, and
- list simultaneously the career opportunities in this sector.

The above is what the course is all about. In addition, you should carefully go through all the course lectures that will be delivered to you. You should read and digest all facts and information that are contained in them. Attempt and practise all the Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAs). You should note and be ready to turn in answers to TMA at the end of every four units.

Working through this Course

Before you can have a satisfaction of the mind that indeed you've completed the courses, you ought to have read through all the study units contained therein. In addition, you should have read the set books and other materials provided by the University – The National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN). Each unit as has been said earlier on, contains self-assessment exercises, and at certain points in the course, you are required to submit assignments especially the TMA assignments, for assessment purpose. At the end of the course there will be a final examination to test your mastery of the course.

The Assignment File

The assignment file away will be made available in this file. You will find all the details of the work you must submit to your tutor for marks in this file. The marks you obtain for these assignments will count towards the final mark you obtain for this course. Any further information on assignments will be found in the assignment file. Assignments will normally attract 40%. Assignment and the final examination marks when put together add up to 100%.

The assignment policy of the University is stated in the student handbook. You should observe this carefully. You should submit your Application for extension to your tutor. If the assignment is posted to the tutor, it is your responsibility to check with your tutor to confirm the

receipts of the assignment so posted. As precaution you are advised to keep a copy of each assignment you submit. At the end of every 4 units that is, at the end of units 4, 8 and 12, you should turn in answers to the Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) questions. You are advised to be very systematic in following the instructions pertaining to your course of study.

The series of courses under 'Foundation Course' in Ecotourism are 100 level, of either first or second semester courses. They all are two credit courses. They are available to all students taking the Bachelor of science (B.Sc) in Ecotourism studies. They are also suitable for anybody interested in knowing what Tourism is, particularly those studying courses in Hospitality Management generally.

Tutor-Marked Assignment

There are Tutor-Marked Assignments in this course. You are strongly advised to attempt and submit all assignments. Each assignment counts towards your total course mark.

When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a TMA form to your tutor. Make sure that each assignment you turn in reaches your tutor on or before the deadline given. If for any genuine reason, you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor before the assignment is due, to discuss the possibility of an extension for you. Extension will not be granted after the due date unless in exceptional circumstances backed up with good reasons.

Below are some salient points that could be of help to you, while working through this course.

- 3 Read the course guide thoroughly.
- 4 Organise a study schedule. Note the time you are expected or should spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units.
- 5 Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything you can to stick to it. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind with their course work.
- 6 Review the objectives for each study to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study material or consult your tutor.
- 7 After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination.

It is very necessary and, in fact, mandatory for you to pass all the assignments and the examinations before you can qualify to graduate.

At the end of every 4 units that is at the end of units 4, 8, 12, etc, you should turn in answers to the Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMA) questions. You should be very systematic in following the instructions guiding your course of study for study progress.

How to Get the Most of this Course

It is advisable that you devote at least three hours a day to studying a unit lecture delivered to you. It will be to your advantage if you go over the lecture notes as many times as you can for good assimilation and better understanding of the course materials.

If there is anything you do not understand, feel free to ask questions, by correspondence to your tutor(s) who will be very ready and willing to attend to you.

Final Examination and Grading

The final examination of Ecotourism will be question papers of 2 to 3 hours duration. It has a value of 60% of the total course grade. All areas of the course will be examined. As a result, it is very important that you read thoroughly the whole course material, in as many times as possible. Mere permutation may disappoint you. You might find it useful to review your self-tests, TMA assignments and comments on them before the examination period.

Final Advice

Organise how to manage your time. Do everything to stick to it. The major reasons a lot of students fail is because, they take things for granted and procrastinate. As a result they rush unnecessarily towards examination period. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, do not waste time to let your tutor know before it is too late to help you.

When you are confident and satisfied that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can then move on to the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course, pacing your studies and making the whole exercise easy for yourself.

Good luck. Enjoy your reading!

Course Code	ESM 221
Course Title	Ecotourism
Developer/Writer	Dr. G.O. Falade National Open University of Nigeria Ibadan Study Centre, Ibadan
Programme Leader	Prof. Afolabi Adebajo National Open University of Nigeria



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island
Lagos

Abuja office
No. 5 Dar es Salaam Street,
Off Aminu Kanu Crescent
Wuse II, Abuja
Nigeria

e-mail: centralinfo@nou.edu.ng
URL: www.nou.edu.ng

Published by
National Open University of Nigeria

Printed 2008

ISBN:

All Rights Reserved

Printed by:

CONTENTS**PAGE**

Module 1.....	1
Unit 1	The Concept Of Ecotourism 1
Unit 2	Ecotourism as Sustainable Tourism 10
Unit 3	Development Issues..... 26
Unit 4	Management Issues and Options..... 34
Unit 5	Resources for Ecotourism in Nigeria..... 42
Module 2.....	51
Unit 1	Impact of Ecotourism on the Environment (1)..... 51
Unit 2	Impacts of Ecotourism on the Environment (2)..... 58
Unit 3	Planning and Development of Ecotourism Destinations..... 69
Unit 4	Geographical Information System as Planning Tool... 82
Unit 5	Ecotourism Projects in Nigeria 92

MODULE 1

Unit 1	The Concept Of Ecotourism
Unit 2	Ecotourism as Sustainable Tourism
Unit 3	Development Issues
Unit 4	Management Issues and Options
Unit 5	Resources for Ecotourism in Nigeria

UNIT 1 THE CONCEPT OF ECOTOURISM

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	What is Ecotourism?
3.2	The Industry of Ecotourism
3.2.1	The Demand for Ecotourism
3.2.2	Supply of Ecotourism Services
3.2.3	Factors that Limits Ecotourism Potential
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marketed Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Ecotourism has been advocated within the academic literature as an important community economic development strategy due to the potential economic and social benefits that the sector can generate (Caldicott and Fuller 2005).

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through the unit thoroughly, you are expected to have acquired a reasonable knowledge of what ecotourism is, the industry of tourism and its services.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Ecotourism?

Proponents of this course of study claim that ecotourism “is a mode of eco- development which represents a practical and effective means of attaining social and economic improvement for all countries” [Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991:31]. Definitions of ecotourism have evolved from emphasizes on nature-oriented tourism to one which stresses both natural and cultural goals. The Ecotourism Society defines ecotourism as:

“purposeful travel to natural areas to understand the cultural and natural history of the environment; taking care not to alter the integrity ecosystem; producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to local people.

[Ecotourism Society, 1991]. This definition gives no baseline about the scale of tourism although it implies low impact and little disruption of the ecosystem.

There is no standard nomenclature in the field and much of the literature fails to differentiate between nature-based mass tourism and nature-tourism which is small and limited. A recent review describes four types of travel that are commonly given the ecotourism label: (1) nature-based tourism; (2) conservation-supporting tourism; (3) environmentally aware tourism; and (4) sustainability-run tourism (Buckey, 1994: 661). Most conservation groups would assume that all of these attributes make up Ecotourism. In contrast, industry representatives and governments generally regard ecotourism as equivalent to nature-based tourism and argue that all tourism should be environmentally sustainable.

Ecotourism is seen as a potential vehicle to provide environmental, socio-economic and cultural benefits at both local and national levels. Claims for ecotourism’s potential are generally based on three key assumptions: That ecotourism can: a) offer a source of financing for development or maintenance of natural or culturally important sites; b) serve as a catalyst for local economic development; and c) provide needed foreign exchange and national level benefits. More specifically, conservationists see ecotourism as one of the most promising strategies for providing funds for conservation and justifying its importance. In addition to providing a source of revenue for parks and conservation, there are numerous examples where ecotourism is claimed to provide the economic justification for park protection. At local levels, it can provide economic alternatives to encroachment into conservation areas,

and it can create an impact for private conservation efforts. Finally, it can help create an awareness of conservation issues and create a constituency for conservation action.

Despite these claims, even tourism's proponents agree that they are more often said than done.

There are few well-documented cases where ecotourism has provided substantial social or economic benefits. In some cases, ecotourism has led to ecological damage and environmental degradation. This can happen as a result of mass tourism on a virgin land/environment with negative impacts on local economic hardship [Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991; Boo, 1991; West and Brechin, 1991]. Yet in discussing the impacts of ecotourism, it is important to keep in mind that these ecotourism impacts positive or negative-are fundamentally different from any other form of tourism. While the intent may be different, the impacts are generally the same. Therefore, the discussion about ecotourism is simply a more focused discussion of the debates that rage over tourism.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain what Ecotourism is.

3.2 The Industry of Tourism

To understand adequately the potential contribution of ecotourism and nature-based tourism to conservation, it is essential to place it within the overall context of the tourism industry. Travel and tourism is the world's largest industry. Estimate for 1995 [World Travel and Tourism Council, 1995] indicate that travel and tourism: (this estimate is more than ten years back so it would definitely have gone up).

- Generate about 10. 0% of world GDP, or \$3.4 trillion;
- Contributed investments worth over 11.4% of the world's capital investment;
- Contributed over \$655 billion to total tax payments worldwide.

Tourism is also a growing industry: world tourism grew by 260% between 1970 and 1990. Increasing global ties have led to increased travel for business, conferences, visits to friends and relatives, and trips for leisure. One projection had suggested that the growth in travel and tourism would be between 2% and 4.5%, while world travel and tourism would increase by over 50% to around 600 million international arrivals and up to 55 million jobs by the end of the nineties [World Travel and Tourism Council, 1992].

International travel and tourism respond to market forces, particularly the growth in real income, leisure time, and development in international transportation. The continued rise in real income and leisure time in the developed countries has led to a strong demand for tourism. One study has shown that consumers in developed countries respond to a 10% increase in real income by increasing their foreign travel expenditures by 15 to 20% [Artis in Goldfarb, 1989:13]. All countries generate and receive tourists, but there is a net outflow of tourism funds from the North to the South. Developing countries' market share increased from 20% of international tourism receipts in 1980 to 23% in 1988. If one compares tourism revenues to export revenues, tourism accounts for more than 10% of the values in 47 developing countries and more than 50% of the comparable amount received from export revenues in 17 countries [Healy, 1992: 4].

3.2.1 The Demand for Ecotourism

Within this travel boom lies ecotourism, a type of specialty travel which includes travel for such diverse purposes as bird-watching, helping scientists conduct conservation research, and photography. Worldwide figures for special interest travel are unavailable, but it remains a small market segment of international travel. For example, special interest travel accounts for about 5% of international travel expenditure (excluding airfare) by US residents, with nature –oriented travel comprising one-third to one-half of that figure [Goldfarb, 1989:8].

There are no reliable estimates available for the worldwide expenditure on ecotourism. Conservative estimates of the growth in demand range from 10-15% while optimistic forecast go as high as 30% in the mid-1990s [Vickland, 1989; Kallen, 1990]. The optimistic projections forecast annual global nature-oriented travel at \$260 billion by 1996 [Giannecchini, 1992]. However, a recent study of the US market indicates that the US nature-oriented tour market may be less than 1% of the outdoor recreation markets or a maximum amount of about \$160 million per year [Mckinsey Group, 1991]. Such discrepancies in numbers, \$160million for the US nature-based tourism market versus \$260 billion for the global market are due not only to differences in projections, but to the very different definitions used by different groups all wanting to jump onto the “green” tourism bandwagon.

Estimates of what will happen with the ecotourism market vary dramatically, and there are contradictory trends. Studies of U.S. consumers showed that:

- 40% of American travellers were interested in “life-enhancing” travels as compared with 20% who were “seeking the sun.”

- About 30 million people in the U.S. belong to environmental organizations or have an interest in environmental protection [Hawkins, 1992:3; Mudge, 1991]. There has not been any reliable record for Nigerian travelers yet.

These projections must be tempered by other factors. For example, surveys of U.S. citizens reveal that:

- Only 8% hold valid passport and one in five have never travelled more than a 50-mile radius from their home.
- 17% are in poverty and are not planning expensive vacations [Merschen, 1992: 212].

There is anecdotal evidence that development of ecotourism facilities in many developing countries has been demand-driven, that is, people have shown up at destinations needing food and lodging and this has led to provision of services. This phenomenon is now called “spearheading”. In many remote wilderness areas, however, the supply of ecotourism facilities lags behind demand. For example, tourism to the Amazon increased by nearly 300% between 1988 and 1989 but facilities were lacking at many sites. Similarly, research has shown that necessary facilities are lacking at Nigerian National Parks.

The demand for ecotourism does not only depend on the prices and supply of nature-based tourism, but on the class of people who are the ecotourists. The variety of ecotourism experiences has been increasing to meet the diversity of demands. Some people want to learn about wildlife or indigenous peoples. Others are adventure-driven tourists – people who want to climb a mountain, or raft down whitewater rapids. Profiles of tourists taking guided nature-based trips with U.S.-based companies indicate that the prime ecotourism markets is composed of men and women between 45 and 56 years of age, mostly from North America, Europe, or Japan. The knowledge and practice of tourism generally is still at its lowest ebbs in Nigeria. While it is safe to say that the demand for ecotourism is increasing worldwide, ecotourism is and will probably remain a small and specialized component of the world tourism market. Ecotourism will largely be made up of wealthier, better educated and older travelers.

However, selected markets have and will continue to be developed to cater to the preferences and needs of different groups such as backpacking, student holidays, and singles vacations.

Four types of ecotourists are identified. They include:

Hard Core: This group is made up of members of tours or groups designed specifically for education and/or involvement in environmental projects, such as wildlife monitoring.

Dedicated: These are travelers who undertake tours to see protected areas and understand local natural and cultural history.

Mainstream: Mainstream tourists are primarily interested in going on unusual trips, such as to the Amazon or for gorilla viewing in Rwanda; it may also be to see elephants, lions, giraffes or the confluence of Rivers Niger and Benue.

Casual: Casual ecotourism includes natural and cultural travel as an incidental component of a broader trip [Lindberg, 1991: 3].

Ecotourists are further differentiated by the physical rigour they are willing to undergo on a trip. A “hard” ecotourism trip may require the tourist to “walk miles into undeveloped backlands, sleep in a crude shelter, and tolerate primitive sanitary conditions.” A “soft” ecotourism experience might have the visitor “stay in first-class hotels, eat in good restaurants, and be conveyed in comfortable transport” [Wilson, 1987:8]. Backpackers fall into the “hard” category in terms of needs, but may be motivated by any of the factors from “hard core” to “casual” described above.

The difference between these groups is important for the type of services ecotourists want when they get to destinations. In general, it is the “hard” ecotourists who are more likely to be content with less infrastructure and more likely to value contact with local people and close encounters with wildlife. These differences in tourist type have substantial implications for how facilities are designed, the impact from tourism, and what type of ecotourism is encouraged, especially with regard to protected areas (PAs). Parks intent on attracting sustainable ecotourism and generating high levels of revenue will have to make some trade-offs. It may be possible to accommodate both “hard” and “soft” tourists, but a guiding principle should be to minimize the impact of tourism and infrastructure.

3.2.2 The Supply of Ecotourism Services

Distribution channels typically involve up to four parties: suppliers, wholesalers, retailers, and consumers [Hudman and Hawkins, 1989]. Most of the supply chains is owned or controlled by developed countries, for all types of tourism, including ecotourism. For example, airline and hotel chains in major cities are often controlled by outside interest. Examples are Eko Hotel, and Suites Victoria Island, Lagos, Sheraton Hostels & Towers, Ikeja Lagos, Transcorp Hilton Hotel,

Abuja. The majority of consumers also tend to be from developed countries. Tour operators tend to be from outside the country, although they often contract with locally-owned enterprises for transportation and local arrangements. In the tourism industry, a large geographic distance between tourism suppliers and potential consumers normally prevents suppliers from selling directly to consumers. This is especially true for ecotourism ventures, which are often located in remote areas. More than other kinds of tourism, ecotourism requires high levels of coordination throughout the distribution channel. This is in part because ecotourists place more specialized demands on destination points than other types of tourists (guides, equipment, transport).

3.2.3 Factors that Limit Ecotourism Potential

While global prospects for the tourism industry are promising, success for individual countries and projects are subjects to a number of factors, many of which are beyond the control of tourism suppliers, wholesalers, or operators. The key factors are political, social, environmental, economic, and technological. Ecotourism is affected by all these factors as well as trends which have little bearing on the rest of the industry.

Political factors such as ethnic conflicts in the host country can adversely hurt tourism revenues. Sri Lanka, Haiti, Guatemala, and Rwanda have all had substantial drops in tourism because of civil and ethnic unrest. A rise in international airline terrorism can also hurt tourism revenues in some countries.

Social factors include concerns about personal safety, health, and general impression of the country. Negative press reports and lack of adequate knowledge about the destination country can deter some tourists from choosing some countries [Ingram and Durst, 1989:12]. The fear of disease can lead to tourism declines. The Kenyan coast and Thailand have both seen significant drop in tourism due to the fear of HIV/AIDS; tourists also avoid parts of Africa because of malaria [Anon., 1992c: 22].

Environmental Factors include seasonality, natural disaster, and pollution. Two types of seasonality need to be considered: that in the original country of tourist (e.g. School summer vacation) and that of the destination country (eg. monsoon season). Earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, hurricanes, prolonged drought and a variety of other natural disasters can scare off tourists.

Economic Factor such as global exchange rates may help one region or country while hurting another. (For example, the Nigeria Naira is very

low in rate to the U.S. dollar) Recessions and exchange rates have a profound influence on who travels and on where they go. Economic factors influence strongly the operator's choice of destination.

Finally, **technological** issues of communication and marketing affect information flows [Human and Hawkins, 1989: 150]. Operators and tourists are more likely to go where communications are most likely to help with trip planning and last minute changes. In the remote regions where ecotourism is most popular, communications are often poor or non-existent.

There is evidence that factors which would normally deter more conventional tourists (different food, simple lodging) may in fact be preferred by the "hard" ecotourists. Yet, the basic problems of difficult access to sites and lack of communication complicate ecotourism, from the industry perspective. (This is a common experience in Nigeria.) Other problems are inconsistent local service suppliers in remote areas and lack of local tour operators. These all present problems for organized tours, but are unlikely to deter ecotourists travelling independently, who are more likely deterred by external factors [Hawkins, 1992: 12-13; Ingram and Durst, 1989]. Internal factors are more likely to influence the quality of their trip, not its selection.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit it has been well established that development of ecotourism can be an effective means of attaining social and economic improvement for countries that care about it.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have discussed so far about what ecotourism is, tourism industry and the services it provides.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- (a) Explain what ecotourism is: a made of development which represents a practical and effective means of attaining social and economic improvement for all countries.
- (b) What is hard care type of ecotourism? Where members of tours or groups are designed specifically for education and/or involvement in environmental projects-such as wild life monitoring.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe the four types of ecotourism.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adams, V. 1992. "Tourism and Sherpas, Nepal: Reconstruction of Reciprocity" *Annals of Tourism Research* 19: 534-554.

Abala, D.O. 1988. "A Theoretical and Empirical Investigation of the Willingness to Pay for Recreational Services: A Case Study of Nairobi National Park" *Eastern Africa Economic Review* 3(2): 111-119.

Agardy, M.T. 1993. "Accommodating Ecotourism in Multiple Use planning of Coastal and Marine Protected Areas." *Ocean and Coastal Management* 20:219-239.

Anonymous. 1992. "Island Ecotourism as a Development Tool." Conference Proceedings. October 26-28, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Boo, E. 1991. "Planning for Ecotourism". *Parks* 2 (3): 4-8.

Ceballos-Lascurian, H. 1991. "Tourism, Ecotourism, and Protected Areas". *Parks* 2(3): 31-35.

McKinnon, J., K McKinnon, Child and J. Thorsell. 1986. *Managing Protected Areas in the Tropics*. IUCN, Gland.

UNIT 2 ECOTOURISM AS SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Conservation and Ecotourism
 - 3.1.1 Ecotourism: A Financing Source for Conservation
 - 7.1.2 Economic Justification for Conservation
 - 7.1.3 Providing Local People with Economic Alternatives
 - 7.1.4 Ecotourism and Park Management
 - 7.1.5 Facilities and Services
 - 7.1.6 Visitation and Conservation Education
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary defines conservation as “the protection of the natural environment”. The word conservation is very significant to sustainability. We advise very strongly that you bear this in mind as a key word in this course because it is what is taken good care of and preserved that can be sustained.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit, you are expected to have had good knowledge about conservation and ecotourism.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conservation and Ecotourism

The interest in conservation, especially in the decline of tropical forests and the loss of endangered species, has risen highly in most of the North that is, affluent and very advanced countries in the past decade. The increase in nature-oriented tourism has coincided with worldwide concern about biodiversity preservation. There has been an explosion of conservation-oriented travel-related services catering to tourists, both as part of packages and for individuals traveling on their own.

Parks and protected areas are among the most important ways to conserve biodiversity. Nearly 8,500 protected areas cover about 5.17%

of the earth's land surface, over 773 million hectares. The growth in protected areas has been staggering: about 80% of the world's protected areas have been established since 1962 (World Conservation Monitoring Centre, 1992). Since 1970, more parks and reserves have been established than previously existed. For example, "officially gazetted protected areas (in Central America) have increased from only 30 in 1970 to more than 230 by 1990" (Cornelius, 1991).

Most parks are under serious threat from many different sources: from poor peasants who have few or no alternative but to practise "slash and burn" agriculture to large-scale development projects promoted by international lending institutions. But the bottom line is that most countries lack the financial and human resources and political commitment for protected area management. Many governments fail to look at park management and conservation as a legitimate form of land use. Many recently established parks are little more than "paper parks", because they really do exist only on paper. Even if established, most protected areas lack effective protection. For example, nearly three quarters of the protected areas in Latin America lack effective protection; an even larger percentage lack long-term management plans and financial resources to guarantee financing for effective management (World Conservation Monitoring Centre, 1992). Ecotourism is often proposed as a mechanism to provide benefits both to individual parks and to national conservation systems as a whole. Proponents identify five key benefits for conservation from nature-oriented tourism. These include

1. Providing a source of financing for parks and conservation;
2. Providing economic justification for park protection
3. Providing local people with economic alternatives to encroachment in conservation areas;
4. Constituency-building to promote conservation; and
5. Creating an impetus for private conservation efforts.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention one important way to conserve biodiversity.

3.1.1 Ecotourism: A Financing Source for Conservation

One of the biggest promises of ecotourism is that it offers a potentially important source of financing for conservation. At the most basic level, many conservationists feel that ecotourism should contribute financially to the management of the individual parks visited by tourists. On a larger scale, the argument is that countries with high visitation to particular parks (Galapagos, Rwanda's Volcanoes Park, Komado

National Park) or with high levels of nature-based tourism country-wide (Costa Rica, Kenya) might be able to retain enough revenue to pay for their entire parks system. Although the tourism sector is relatively easy to tax, governments rarely apply tax levels which are sufficient to offset many of the costs of tourism. Government can use a variety of ways to capture revenue through tourism (see note 1 below).

Note 1: Mechanism to Capture Revenue

User fees: These are fees charged to people who use an area or facility. Examples include admission to parks or monuments, fees charged to divers, special fees for accommodations, trophy and hunting fees, trekking fees, or even special fees for rescue services (in the case of mountaineering).

Concession: These fees are charged to individuals or groups licensed to provide services to visitors at selected sites. Common types of concession services include food, lodging, transportation, guide services, and retail stores.

Sales and Royalties are a percentage of earnings from activities or products of a site tourists visit. Examples are sales and royalties from books, photographs or postcards, films, or pharmaceutical products made at or from products at the site.

Taxation: of goods and services used by ecotourists is a common way to generate revenue. Hotel, food, and airport taxes are among the most common.

Donations can be solicited from tourists for special project or routine maintenance. Examples include restoration of historic buildings, archaeological excavation, improved species protection or habitat purchase, or community development activities, such as schools or clinics (adapted from Sherman and Dixton, 1990).

User fees are considered to be equitable because only the people who use something pay for it. Studies of parks worldwide reveal that in most cases, entrance fees to parks are not charged or are too low to cover costs (Lindberg, 1991; Lindberg and Enriquez, 1994). This is largely to keep parks open to all citizens, even the poor. One solution is to introduce different entry fees for foreign and national visitors. In Kenya and Costa Rica, for example, this strategy has been implemented and is extremely successful. Elsewhere, legal and institutional problems make it difficult for two-tiered pricing. In Mexico, a constitutional amendment would be required not only to have a two-tiered pricing; but also for a

two-tiered fee collection for nationals and foreigners or even for parks charge entry for visitation. One park began collection of donations, which government policy did not allow. Park managers got tour companies to add a donation onto the cost of the tour; since virtually all of the tourism to the park was from organized birding tours, this proved to be a good way to capture financial benefits (Touval, 1992). In order countries, such as Indonesia, park management agencies are simply not authorized to collect such fees.

Virtually every study done of protected area systems recommend that governments should capture revenue to maintain parks and protected areas and to offset the costs of visitors' use, which include:

- a) Infrastructure development, such as trails and visitor centres;
- b) Safeguarding sites (guards, fences, signs, boundary markers);
- c) General maintenance;
- d) Managing or restoring habitats or monuments;
- e) Educational activities, including guides;
- f) Administrative costs for agencies;
- g) Monitoring impacts.

Even changes in user fees and the introduction of two-tiered pricing will not necessarily provide all the revenue needed for conservation. For example, a study of potential pricing of ecotourism for two protected areas in Belize, and the contribution to park management costs, is shown in Table 1 on page 000. In all cases the revenue generated by the proposed fees would cover the extra costs associated with tourism area; ecotourism revenue only covers management costs in one case (Lindberg and Enriquez, 1994). The Table demonstrates that relatively small increases in fees for tourists, when one considers the overall costs of their trip, can substantially raise revenue for conservation and park management. In many countries, changes in legislation are required to retain revenue for conservation and park management. In 1994, legislation was passed allowing one of Costa Rica's regional conservation areas, which includes five national parks and nine other protected areas, to retain 75% of total revenues from park admission fees, net sales income and contracts from concessionaires for underwriting the following year's budget. As a result, dependence on outside resources dropped from 60.8% for the overall budget and 26.0% for operating costs to 52.3% and 11.4% respectively by the end of the year (Church et al., 1994c).

Given the low fees charged at most sites, there is evidence that ecotourists who may spend thousands of hard currency to visit a site would be willing to pay substantially more. For example, a study of foreign visitors to Madagascar's tropical biological reserves indicated

that consumers might be willing to pay between \$277 and \$360 to visit a park which only charges \$11 per visitor (Maille and Mendelsohn, 1993). Available evidence suggest that more modest price increases have, thus far, rarely led to substantial drop in visitation. Exceptions are nature-based mass tourism sites, where, at least in theory, user fees can be used to “manage” tourism. If one area is overcrowded, raising the price should reduce the number of visitors.

Industry can play an important role in lobbying tourists for or against user fees. While some analysts have argued that industry groups should be in favour of increased collection of revenues, if the revenue goes back to protect or maintain the tourism product (Ashton, 1991), industry most often opposes revenue collection. The limited nature-based tourism experience suggests that industry can exert a powerful influence on governments and promote short-term profits over long-term management (Dixon and Sherman, 1991). Industry groups often complain that new taxes, user fees, or price increases will lead to a decline in tourism. For example, when Bonaire Marine Park where proposed charging \$10 per user per year, the diving industry was adamantly opposed, running editorials and lobbying against such fees. Yet, surveys showed that 92% of divers in the park, mostly non-resident divers, were willing to pay the \$10 user fee, while 80% thought a fee of \$20 per diver per year was reasonable (Scura and Van't Hof, 1993). Some industry groups with ties to an area, however, have realized that long-term investment and profitability can only come about if there is sound use.

Hotel taxes are another way of collecting revenue – they apply to everyone, from business visitors to students and ecotourists. The downside to such taxes, however, is that local level initiatives, such as home stays and community-owned lodges, often have great difficulty in adhering to such government regulations. This can create conflicts between taxing to generate income for community works and decentralizing ecotourism to spread the benefits. Airport taxes provide a ready way to capture benefits, but there is little link between the collection of such taxes and ecotourism. Concession fees and royalties have the potential to provide significant amounts of money at famous or highly visited sites since the concession fees are generally low relative to the overall profit levels.

Table 1: Effect of Entry Fees Revenue for Park Management (Adapted from Lindberg and Enriquez (1994)).

Site	Foreigners Entry Fee	Revenue Generated	Percent of Tourism Costs Covered	Percent of Park Management Covered
Cocks comb	\$1.50	\$3,166	100%	4%
	\$5.00	\$26,004	100%	31%
Hol Chan	\$2.50	\$12,826	100%	38%
	\$5.00	\$73,926	100%	217%

District councils in the Maasai Mara of Kenya receive substantial fees from tourism. Yet in most of the world, few governments have “auctioned” off the licensing of such concessions or priced such things at their fair-market value. It is even rarer to find such fees directly supporting the parks in which they are situated.

Funds from both nature-based tourism and ecotourism are often appropriated back into the central treasury rather than to the agencies which manage parks. A study of 23 protected areas, with ecotourism initiatives, found that most expenditures made by visitors went to central treasury funds or concessionaires (Wells and Brandon, 1992). A study of tourism to Tangkoko Dau Saudara Nature Reserve in Indonesia shows that the Department of Forestry (the reserve management authority) only receives 2% of ecotourism revenues – and the park only receives a fraction of the total (Kinnaird and T.G. O’Brien, 1996). A study of Bonaire Marine Park found that economic activities directly associated with the park produced half of Bonaire’s income (over \$23 million), yet the park only receives \$150,000 per year for management (Scura and Van’t Hof, 1993). In short, “the money generated by ecotourism does not necessarily go towards maintaining biological diversity or management of parks themselves” (Kinnaird and O’Brien, 1996; Church and Brandon, 1995; Cuello et al., 1996; Wells, 1993; Wells and Brandon, 1992).

At present, ecotourism is a significant source of funding for conservation on public lands in only a few countries (Wells and Brandon, 1992; Lindberg, 1991). Even in countries such as Nepal, Rwanda, Kenya, Ecuador and Costa Rica, which do capture substantial revenue, revenue collected is well below what should, or could be generated. One study found that a private reserve, Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve in Costa Rica generates more income from tourism than is generated by all Costa Rican national parks (Church et al. 1994c).

3.1.2 Economic Justification for Conservation

Tourism can provide a strong economic rationale to preserve areas rather than converting them to alternative uses as crop or pasture land. Economic valuation is increasingly being used to demonstrate the value of the wildlife and wildlands, given what tourists are willing to pay to see them. One study in Costa Rica has shown that the value of a tropical rainforest reserve is at least equal to or twice as high, if left natural as the straight purchase price for the land alone. Similarly, each free-flying macaw in Peru was estimated to generate between \$750 and \$4,700 annually in tourist revenue (Munn, 1991:47). As economic valuation methods improve and are increasingly used to reflect the costs and benefits of alternative forms of land use, it is likely that tourism will provide one important component of the benefits- provided that reasonable revenue is collected at these sites.

Fair market pricing of wildland resources can be one way of justifying protected area to governments. For example, tourism in Zimbabwe relies heavily on the parks and associated wildlife populations, giving these resources a tangible value. The economic justification argument thus provides an incentive to governments to increase fees, both to generate more revenue and to ensure that the wildlands and wildlife are seen as a valuable and competitive land use (Child and Health, 1990).

3.1.3 Providing Local People with Economic Alternatives

Protected areas and surrounding lands are often among the most remote and agriculturally marginal lands in many countries. Their remoteness might have contributed to their protection, since they were inaccessible and viewed as economically unproductive. Both protected areas and the lands around them face increasing degradation as a result of large-scale development projects, expanding agricultural frontier, illegal hunting and logging, fuelwood collection and uncontrolled burning. Human use of these once remote areas is increasing as a result of increased population growth in traditional communities, migration, and settlement, often the result of problems and policies elsewhere in the country.

There has been a tremendous emphasis in the past five years on linking the conservation of biological diversity in parks and protected areas (PAs) with local social and economic development. Collectively, these approaches, known as Integrated Conservation and Development Project (ICDPs), include biosphere reserves, multiple-use areas, buffer-zones, and large-scale planning units such as regional conservation areas (Wells and Brandon, 1992). ICDPs aim to achieve PA conservation by promoting socio-economic development and providing local people with alternative income sources which do not threaten to deplete the flora and

fauna of the PA. The range of approaches under the rubric of ICDPs is based on concepts of sustainable use and sustainable development in the rural context. They imply types of land-use alternatives, which, in combination with a range of social, technical and economic options, will lead to biodiversity conservation.

The most significant benefit for most rural communities from ecotourism is the employment generated in a range of jobs, mostly as guides or guards or in small lodges in a domestic capacity. The issues as to whether this constitutes sufficient incentive to help safeguard protected areas can only be answered on a site specific basis. A study of 63 private nature reserves in Latin America and Africa showed they employed 1,289 people year-round; an average of about 20 jobs per reserve year-round. An additional 336 people, or five people per lodge were added during the peak season (Alderman, 1990). In contrast, in the Mount Everest region of Nepal, two-thirds of the Sherpa families receive direct income from nature-based tourism (Wells, 1993).

The type of employment generated is directly tied to the way in which tourism is managed and the level of local control. If local people own teashops or rent rooms in their homes to tourists, there may be small employment benefits generated. In most places, local-level jobs are guards, guides, maids, porters, cooks, drivers or porters. If local people lack the requisite skills, outside companies are usually unwilling to make the investment of time and money to train them. Local people who desire expanded opportunities will rarely find them linked to ecotourism since the variety of jobs created is low. Tourism may also provide support to traditional jobs such as craft production. There are numerous examples where craft cooperatives or stores have been established to cater to tourists. The scale of tourism is an important factor in differentiating types and levels of employment.

Whether ecotourism is powerful enough to change people's habits and reduce threats to protected areas depends on complex factors. Benefits must be appropriately targeted and designed so that they in fact become incentives. For ecotourism to promote conservation, local people must clearly benefit and understand that the benefits they receive are linked to the protected area. If benefits do not stay in local areas or are narrowly distributed, they may not provide sufficient economic incentive to reduce livelihood dependence on the protected area (Brandon and Wells, 1992). For example, it may be better to convert many resource-dependent people, such as local hunters, into part-time guides and guards, rather than hiring one or two people full-time. It should not be assumed that ecotourism on its own will lead to changes in dependence on protected area resources. So far, the evidence indicates that when changes have taken place, ecotourism has been but one component of

the change. Other important elements have been improved education, improved access to information, improvements in park management, and increased economic opportunities other than just ecotourism (see Wells and Brandon, 1992). In such cases, ecotourism has been part of a larger development scheme, structured to address a variety of local concerns simultaneously. In most cases ecotourism has provided only small employment benefits that have not substantially reduced dependence on wildlands or wildlife resources. Ecotourism should be seen as only one of many strategies for providing local people with economic alternatives (Wells and Brandon, 1992; West ad Brechin, 1991; Kiss 1990; Place, 1991).

Constituency Building

One of the often overlooked way in which ecotourism supports conservation is that ecotourists, upon returning home, act as advocates for the areas they have visited. The impact may be most significant with domestic ecotourists. This advocacy can help conservation in many ways. Firstly, ecotourists are likely to give more generously to either conservation organizations working to preserve the site they visited, or to conservation more broadly. Secondly, they often are willing to donate their time and energy to lobby for or against policies or activities which threaten the areas they have visited. Many join or start organizations which directly support the area they have visited by giving supplies or materials, arranging visits by scientists, starting lobbying or publicity efforts, and looking for financial support. Finally, they act as “conservation ambassadors” and convince friends and family to take similar trips and increase their support to conservation. Both international and domestic populations, the importance of a constituency for conservation activities cannot be underestimated.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the ways in which ecotourist supports conservation.

3.1.4 Ecotourism and Park Management

There are inherent dangers in promoting tourism in protected areas. Decision-makers may be more interested in the economic gain from the park and not its conservation benefits. If the tourism industry turns sour in the area, there may be the tendency to look for more profitable land use (MacKinnon et al, 1986). On the other hand, if the area is in high demand, decision-makers may want to promote inappropriate development of large hotels and highways that would be detrimental to the resources but increase short-term revenue. Park managers must always keep the main purpose of the park in mind, as well as the

differences between ecotourism and regular tourism, especially when the park has been established to protect vulnerable and valuable natural resources. The park manager has to weigh the conservation impacts against the potential economic benefits from ecotourism.

When ecotourism is regarded as the primary mechanism to supply a park or surrounding area with economic benefits, the park must be strictly managed and protective measures put in place to prevent degradation by tourists, even those tourists visiting with the “greenest” intent. “Ecotourism cannot be viewed as a benign, non-consumptive use of natural resources in the tropics (Jacobson and Lopez, 1994: 415)”. Many of the existing protected areas with the highest biodiversity are fragile and cannot endure heavy human disturbance. The most remote sites may be among the most important for biodiversity conservation because they are the least degraded. However, this also makes them attractive to ecotourists, who would want to travel to places which are biologically important and more “exotic” because of their remoteness. Many of these areas lack infrastructure and park managers have few plans or resources to cope with an increasing influx of tourists.

This section therefore, explores some of the issues and options in managing ecotourism in a manner consistent with biodiversity conservation.

Even low levels of visitation, and the infrastructure to support such visitation, such as roads and trails, can create Habitat Island within parks and impede the movements of animals. This can threaten the viability of some species (Whitmore and Sayer, 1992:83). In zoning for tourism, there should be an emphasis on maintaining core areas which are “off-limits” for visitation and on minimizing the impact of infrastructure on wildlife. For example, roads should not be sited so that animals will need to cross them to get to waterholes.

Suitability of Site for Tourism

The expansion of ecotourism will depend on characteristics of the destinations and the demographics of travelers themselves. For example, most African safaris provide a near guarantee of seeing a variety of large mammals, taking good photographs, and time for relaxing. Safari tourists can be transported right to the wildlife and taken back to their lodges or luxury tent camps midday for a jump in the pool when it is too hot for game viewing. It is relatively easy for such tourists to know what kind of experience they will have in advance of their trip. Elsewhere, such as in tropical rainforest, it is harder for the ecotourist to pre-judge the quality of the experience. Without an excellent naturalist, tourists may feel they have seen little. Under the tree canopy, it is often dark and

damp with lots of mosquitoes. Weather and wildlife viewing are unpredictable and often disappointing to ecotourists (see O'Rourke, 1993). Of tourists who did travel to lodges in one region in Peru, between 80% and 95% were unsatisfied with wildlife viewing. "Even the finest regions of the Amazon offer few opportunities for tourists to see large concentration of wildlife" (Munn, 1991:62). Long walks through dense jungle are often required to see any wildlife.

Acceptable Impact and Change

Tourism demand for particular species or parts of the park should be reviewed within the management planning process. The probable impacts of tourism on these and other park resources can be identified and measures developed to determine appropriate levels of tourism (Harroun and Boo, 1995). The acceptable and sustainable level of tourism will depend on the biological features of the zone, the fragility of the species and ecosystems in the park and the current and future disturbances and threats, as well as the human and economic resources available to run the park and provide services and facilities for tourists. In some zones, such as breeding areas or fragile habitats where any human intrusion will affect the biological integrity, all tourism may be regarded as unacceptable. Determining the environmental carrying capacity depends on a variety of value judgments about acceptable levels of alteration or degradation in areas where visitors use is permitted. Such decisions and value judgments should be an explicit part of the management planning process.

Once acceptable levels of ecotourism are defined, methods to control visitation at those levels need to be implemented. This includes the ability to count visitors, keep visitation statistics, and be able to stop visitors entering the park when human carrying capacity is reached. To determine acceptable visitation levels, information on seasonality of tourism interest, ratio of foreign to national visitors and their income levels, activities of tourism in the park including the type of tourist attracted, type of visitor experience desired by the tourist and the associated infrastructure expected, and duration of stay is needed, in addition to strong baseline data on ecosystem characteristics. Measure of acceptability impact and change, as well as human carrying capacity, should be integrated into park zoning and management plans.

3.1.5 Facilities and Services

The facilities and services that need to be present in a park for ecotourists depend on the zoning, combined with an analysis of the type of tourists the park wants to attract, the proximity of alternate facilities, acceptable levels of impact, and the revenue the park wants to generate.

A combination of factors may make it preferable to locate most services, especially accommodation outside, rather than inside parks. Different types of ecotourists (e.g. hard to soft) require different facilities.

NOTE 2: Negative Impacts of Visitation

Negative impacts of visitors' use that must be considered when setting visitor carrying capacity include:

Human overcrowding resulting in environmental stress;
Animals showing changes in behaviour
Erosion of trails or beaches;
Over development with unsightly structure;
Increased pollution, noise, litter, or resource extraction;
Harm of natural and culturally important features of the area
(MacKinnon et al, 1986:87).

By supplying certain amenities, parks can attract different types of tourists that seek out specific facilities during their stay. Careful consideration is required in deciding who to attract and what infrastructure to provide. The importance of strong ecological knowledge as the basis of siting infrastructure and facilities cannot be overstated. For instance, proposed ecotourism development to two biosphere reserves in the Yucatan channel, which are protected barrier beaches, required buildings, roads, dikes, pipes and sewerage system. The construction of the first stage of this development, a bridge, trapped storm surges during a hurricane, forcing the water into a lagoon and flooding flamingo fledglings, which otherwise would have been saved despite the hurricane (Savage, 1993).

The development of even limited infrastructure in fragile areas can have unanticipated effects road construction or changes in watercourses can be devastating.

3.1.6 Visitation and Conservation Education

Much of the orientation of a conservation awareness and education programme will be determined by who the visitors are and what they are coming to see. Tourists are fickle and want to see wildlife, especially the mega-fauna of Africa and southern Asia, which have very high tourist appeal; but if their sighting becomes unreliable due to shyness of the animals, low population numbers, or seasonal weather, visitors won't be as eager to come. Good environmental education and guiding includes

the ability to make other park resource attractive and educate visitors on other unique attractions in the ecosystem, such as indigenous species of plants, or mutualistic interaction between species.

Educating visitors about the functions of a park, what it protects, why it exists, what the restrictions are, its boundaries, and the ecological services are key elements of an environmental education plan. There are three groups which should be considered when developing such a plan: international visitors, national residents, and local residents, including children. A strong informational programme describing park regulations and acceptable behaviour, coupled with enhanced guide and guard services, are key elements of ecotourism development within parks. The impact of visitors can be restricted by limiting them to certain pathways, roads, or boats. Restrictions can range from prohibiting tourists from picking any plants or feeding the animals, camping or camping only in designated areas, walking only on paths and trails, to pollution control. Clear procedures for groups or individuals who do not comply should be established as part of the management planning process. Strong training of guards and guides is a critical element of tourism development. Finally, there is a need to prepare for emergencies - what to do if tourists are injured by wildlife or if they get lost. Careful monitoring of visitor impact, even with excellent education plans, is necessary. At Royal Chitwan National Park in Nepal, despite well organized education programmes “disturbance to the ecology has become an obvious feature (Sowers et al. 1991a).

Threats to the Sustainability of Ecotourism and Ecotourism Products

The following are some of the threats to attainable ecotourism, products:

- 1) Lack of understanding and awareness training in the ecotourism field. Knowledge, understanding and training on the ecotourism concept are necessary for the ecotourism products to succeed in a more sustainable manner. Where there are lacking, they would constitute threats.
- 2) Lack of ecotourism development policies and planning. There is a need for careful planning and policies on ecotourism development that works. The plans should include policies and plans that consider strengthening of consultations among stakeholders.
- 3) Lack of incentive and support towards the development of ecotourism products. It poses a threat where ecotourism products are attracting a niche market and proper use of marine and terrestrial environment are important. In this context, more

incentives and support are needed in directing, developing and maintaining the ecotourism products that are available.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The appropriate scale of tourism to an area is a function of the size of the area, the resident population and the sensitivity of ecosystems. Scale is one of the most important factors in managing ecotourism, for it is one of the key factors that separate ecotourism from mass tourism. There is no doubt that ecotourism in some contexts does avoid many of the problems of mass tourism- solely because it operates at a reduced scale. If many ecotourists travel to an area or country, ecotourism begins to have the same problems as mass tourism.

Where nature tourism is significant throughout an entire country, it is necessary to look at the costs and benefits and their distribution countrywide. In some cases, nature-based tourism may be channelled to one section of a national park, or to one part of a communally owned area. This may be an appropriate management strategy which concentrates the impacts, especially if cultures or ecosystems are highly sensitive to outsiders. In other places, it may be better to spread ecotourists thinly over a huge area and disperse negative impacts and benefits more widely. Where ecotourism is limited in scale, such as a particular park, social, economic and ecological assessment of ecotourism can be more limited in scope. In many cases, it will be desirable to assist communities in developing the services for ecotourism outside parks to reduce pressure on parks and to ensure that benefits go into communities. What is appropriate and acceptable will depend on the type and level of services appropriate within the park, park management objectives, the management options which exist, and the skills and interest of communities living nearby. Clear answers on “what works best” are impossible to provide since they change depending on the context.

Sites with the greatest potential for ecotourism are those with:

- a) An interesting wildlife component that can be easily viewed;
- b) Reasonably easy access, good communication and well-organized management;
- c) An interesting cultural or historical attractions;
- d) Economic competitiveness, if the site doesn't have some highly unique feature, such as mountain gorillas (Bacon, 1987; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991).

But great potential alone does not always translate into great implementation or to successful conservation. Ecotourism has the potential to make a contribution to conservation if it is appropriately

managed and regulated; otherwise, what is true for Tangkoko Dau Saudara Nature Reserve in Indonesia, where “ecotourists control Tangkoko, probably to the detriment of wildlife”, will often be the case (Kinnaird and O’Brien, 1996:72). Substantial investments need to be made to strengthen the management capacity of protected area authorities to design and implement sustainable ecotourism and to ensure that tourism benefits the park and does not degrade its biological values. For ecotourism benefit to provide financial benefits to conservation, appropriate user fees and pricing policies, which reflect the real costs of services, should be introduced with revenues reinvested into protected areas. If ecotourism is to provide livelihood alternative for local communities, greater and more equitable generation of benefits will have to be established (Wells and Brandon, 1992). Such activities should explicitly link generation of local economic benefits to protected area maintenance.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have discussed about conservation and ecotourism, economic justification for conservation, ecotourism and Park management, facilities and services etc.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

One important way to conserve biodiversity: By creating parks and protected Areas.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention of one the ways in which ecotourist support conservation: They act as advocates for the areas they have visited.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention four negative impacts of visitation of tourists to any site.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Cornelius, S.E. 1991. "Wildlife Conservation in Central America. Will it survive the '90s?" (trans) 56th NA Wild Nat. Res. Conf. 40-49
- Lindberg, K. & J. Enriquez. 1994. "An Analysis of Ecotourism's Economic Contribution to Conservation and Development in Belize Vol. 2 A Comprehensive Report". The World Wildlife Fund (US) and the Ministry of Tourism and Environment (Belize).
- Maille, P and R. Mendelsohn. 1993. "Valuing Ecotourism in Madagascar". *Journal of Environmental Management* 38 (3) 213-218.
- World Conservation Monitoring Centre 1992. *Global Biodiversity. Status of the Earth's Living Resources* London: Chapman and Hall.

UNIT 3 DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Development Issues
 - 3.1.1 Foreign Exchange Generation and National Revenues
 - 3.1.2 Employment
 - 3.1.3 Diversification
 - 3.1.4 Regional and Local Growth
 - 3.1.5 Fostering Greater Peace and Understanding
 - 3.1.6 Domestic versus Foreign Tourism
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit, we made you to understand some reasonable points on conservation and ecotourism. In this unit let us focus on issues concerning development. Development can be defined or explained as necessary steps or actions taken to enable a project to grow and reach maturity stage.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After studying this unit thoroughly, you should be able to understand very well all issues that are discussed in this unit concerning development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Development Issues

Many countries have viewed tourism as an important component of their overall development strategy. In fact, during the Military Regime in Nigeria, tourism was declared a preferred sector. There are four significant reasons why countries pursue tourism: generation of foreign exchange, employment, economic diversification, and regional growth (Goldfarb, 1989:13). Non-economic national interest, such as diplomacy, international reputation, and peace constitute other reasons why countries develop their tourism potentials (D'Amore, 1990).

Tourism, if well managed, can contribute positively to national development. For most countries, problems arise when the negative economic, environmental, and social effects of tourism build cumulatively to push behind initial positive economic impacts. Conflicts arise when political imperatives stress the gains of the present and governments are unable or unwilling to plan and manage tourism. This split in time frame is compounded by a split along national/local lines: immediate economic benefits can be collected by the national government while increasingly heavy costs are borne by the local populations (Goldfarb, 1989). Ecotourism is not exempt from this since many of the most substantial costs of travel to a site go to airlines, urban hotels, car rental agencies and the like.

3.1.1 Foreign Exchange Generation and National Revenues

The prospect of foreign exchange earnings is the single biggest reason for developing countries' interest in tourism; tourism's contribution can rank quite high. Unlike other export industries, tourism is an industry which is less subject to protectionist barriers (with the exception of visas), and one in which the consumer pays the transportation cost (the tourist comes to the country to collect the goods, as it were). Tourism has proved to be a source of foreign exchange that is more dynamic than major commodity exports (English, 1986).

Although recessions in developed countries can lead to a decrease in tourism to developing countries, several studies suggest that tourism is less volatile than traditional primary commodity exports (Pye and Lin, 1983). Even though tourism represents a major component of the world's economy, few countries have precise figures on tourism revenue (Wyer et al., 1988:22). Both the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Tourism Organization (WTO) have recommended that tourism receipts and expenditures should be included in a country's national accounts.

Critics of tourism point out that if "economic leakages" or the money that flows out of the country in order to support tourism are taken into account, many countries would have vastly lower earnings than assumed. Leakages result from the continued need for imported skills, technologies and commodities to serve the tourism sector. These include foreign goods and services, increased oil imports for tourists' transportation, repatriation of profits from hotels, restaurants, and car rental agencies owned by foreign companies, imports of consumer goods, and advertising and marketing efforts abroad.

The level of leakages is, in most cases, quite high. The World Bank estimate from the 1970s indicates that 55% of tourist spending in

developing countries leaks back to developed countries. Other studies suggest that leakages of 80-90% may be more common for countries lacking a substantial share of national ownership of tourism services, such as airlines, hotels, and transportation companies (Matheson and Wall, 1982). More recent studies suggest that only ten percent of tourism spending remains in Zimbabwe (Lindberg, 1991:24) while between 10 - 20% of tourist spending is retained in Jamaica (Church et al., 1994a).

Local-level Leakages. Leakages from rural areas visited by ecotourists may be especially high: estimates for leakages from the Annapurna region of Nepal range from 90% to 94% (Wells, 1992; Gurung, 1992:38) and over two-thirds of expenditures by tourists to Zimbabwe's protected areas leave the country (Lindberg, 1991:24). A recent study of Bonaire Marine Park in the Netherlands Antilles found that "the revenues generated by park-related activities tend to pass through the local economy with only a small portion, perhaps as little as 20%, effectively remaining there (Scura and Van't Hof, 1993). Recent studies of Siberut, Indonesia, indicate that only 16% of spending remains on the island, and local people only retain 9% of what is spent.

Economies in the remote regions which ecotourists visit are often too undeveloped to provide the required supporting goods and services. Those promoting ecotourism often import expertise and products from urban areas and foreign countries to remote ecotourism sites rather than developing local expertise or products, including lodging and food supplies. Tourist dollars are often credited with having huge positive effects on developing countries economies by virtue of the so-called "multiplier effects" – a phenomenon in which an initial injection of tourist dollars prompts additional rounds of spending by citizens on local goods and services. Every tourism dollar spent creates "X" dollars worth of impacts; and every direct tourism job creates a "Y" number of indirect jobs. Rural areas may have both higher economic leakages and lower "multipliers" than urban areas. In most rural situations, the lack of rural enterprises translates into reduced ways for currency to stimulate local economies. Multiplier-effects in the ecotourism context are likely to be very limited.

3.1.2 Employment

Tourism-related employment is grouped into three categories:

- 1) direct employment (hotels, restaurants, clubs, taxis, souvenirs);
- 2) indirect employment which results from inputs to the tourism industry, such as employment as a bus mechanic for a tour company; and

- 3) induced employment, which is a variation on the idea of “multiplier-effect” from tourism expenditures.

Induced employment is generated solely because residents in the area have more to spend on new things, such as appliance purchase. Tourist expenditures generated not only direct flows of money through the purchase of goods and services, but indirect flows, when the recipient of the primary flow of money responds it (Heavly, 1988:2).

There is an erroneous belief that tourism leads to high levels of job. This creation this is due largely to early studies which claimed that, due to the multiplier-effects, tourism created more jobs per dollar of investment than manufacturing. A 1969 study of Caribbean tourism estimated that every job created in tourism resulted in 2.3 more jobs in supporting industries, while multiplier-figures for Kenya and Tunisia were reported to be 4 and 6 respectively (Anon., 1989: 19, 22). Subsequent research indicated that the real job multiplier for the Caribbean was probably well below one. While the concept of multiplier has validity, they are difficult to calculate with any accuracy (Goldfarb, 1989:17-18). The most critical issues in considering employment are: who is employed in what capacity at what wages and for which months. How well does ecotourism “fit” with overall labour patterns in the area? Rural households try and maximize a total level of earnings; small bits of income may make a crucial difference in their overall level of well-being. Similarly, if ecotourism-related employment does not conflict with important seasonal patterns, such as harvest time, off-peak employment can be a valuable addition to households.

While it is difficult to generalize about tourism’s contribution to national employment, it is even more difficult, at the national level, to disentangle the effects of mass tourism, nature-based tourism and ecotourism. However, it is clear that most of the employment generated by tourism is for workers with low skills. One significant benefit of tourism, is that it provides these low-skilled workers with higher wages than they would receive in other occupations.

From a development perspective, the cost of creating jobs in tourism must be compared to the costs associated with investment leading to job creation in other sectors. Although it is often assumed that high levels of capital are not required, this is incorrect if the emphasis is hotel-based. A handful of studies focusing on costs per hotel job found the hotel sector to be more capital-intensive than other modern industries. No matter how the industry is portrayed, tourism does not distinguish itself as a creator of employment and it “is less labour intensive than commonly assumed” (English, 1986).

Many countries emphasizing nature-based tourism have a mix of tourism types, from modern fancy hotels to lodges, to homestays. The latter may create more local-level jobs and require less capital investment, one of the benefits of small-scale, more decentralized forms of tourism. In all forms of tourism, the capital investment required for tourism may be offset by services generated as a result of tourism, such as touring, shopping and local purchasing of supplies. It is this latter generation of local and regional benefits that can often be maximized in ecotourism development.

Substantial employment on national basis from nature-based tourism is probably only significant for a few countries, such as Nepal, Kenya, Tanzania, and, perhaps, Costa Rica. However, only a fraction of this tourism could be defined as ecotourism. A review of the cases suggests that the attributes that have made nature-based tourism into a significant factor for national-level employment are:

- 1) Substantial numbers of tourists to see nature based attractions;
- 2) Dispersal of tourists throughout different regions of the country;
- 3) A variety of ecotourism activities, including nature and cultural viewing, adventure-oriented activities, shopping for locally-made products; and
- 4) high levels of “add-on” tourism – that is tourism for reasons other than nature but where a day or two may become nature-based while the person is in the country.

It is possible for ecotourism to have high economic importance but low employment generation. For example, in Rwanda, high fees are charged to take tourists to view gorillas. Visitors are concentrated in a small area and there is virtually nothing else for them to do or buy. The employment generated is extremely small relative to the national economic importance. In contrast, the Tiger Mountain Group in Nepal employs 5,000 people during peak seasons (Roberts, J.O.M. and B.D.G Johnson 1985 in Lindberg, 1991:8). Nature-based tourism to Royal Chitwan National Park is responsible for direct employment of about 1,000 people in hotels and lodges and another 500 as guides, labourers, Tharu dancers, restaurant employees and shopkeepers. The seven concessions within the park also are a source of employment for local communities outside the park, with about 635 employees in 1993 (Sowers et al, 1994a). At local and regional levels, one of the strong arguments for ecotourism is that it can be a source of employment for people in remote areas who otherwise would have few alternatives but dependence on, and possible depletion of wildlands and wildlife. Revenue from tourism can be just one component of a strategy of “multiple jobs” that lets people have a variety of income sources spread throughout the year. This has been the case in the western U.S. where

some ranchers welcome tourists to “help” on a working ranch. The income may be small but significant when combined with other earnings. Seasonal earnings are also important for many Sherpas who are employed as porters for several months each year.

While the seasonal aspects of tourism employment can be advantageous in some rural contexts, the lack of employment stability and year-round income may diminish ecotourism’s effectiveness in changing local patterns of resource use and dependence.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is the biggest reason for developing countries interest in tourism?

3.1.3 Diversification

For many countries and regions which are highly dependent on a few commodities, tourism provides an important avenue for economic diversification. Such diversification may be especially important for countries which may have difficulty increasing manufacturing and exports, such as land-locked countries (e.g. Nepal, Rwanda, and Bolivia). Just as tourism can be an important way to diversify a country’s economic base, ecotourism can be an attractive way to diversify the portfolio of tourism activities within a country. Once the infrastructure is in place for more general tourism, promoting ecotourism may be relatively easy, especially on a small scale and as an “add-on”.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What is the position of tourism for countries that are highly dependent on a few commodities?

3.1.4 Regional and Local Growth

Tourism has been used as a way of spurring regional economic growth in countries. One of the most famous examples of this is in Mexico, where the government explicitly decided to use tourism as a way of stimulating economic development in diverse regions of the country. While no one would point to Cancun as a desirable model of tourism development, its transformation from a fishing village with 426 residents to a major tourism centre with 300,000 residents is a dramatic example of the potential for tourism to serve as a development growth pole (Daltabuit, 1992:4). Nature-based tourism can become an important force in regional economic development. In contrast, ecotourism will not because of its low levels of scale and impact. Once high levels of tourism occur, the form of tourism becomes mass tourism.

Although tourism and ecotourism can have important local benefits, even small-scale development may have negative impacts. One of the most common is that as interest increases in resources (whether land, animals) or access, local people may be pushed out or sell out.

Local prices for commodities often increase as well. The local impacts of tourism are likely to be similar in developing as well as developed countries. For example, residents in the Austrian Alps felt that the overall influence of tourism on their communities was positive, but that tourism had also brought about higher prices for basic necessities; higher taxes for community infrastructure and tourism-oriented recreational facilities; competition among villages as well as communities over the distribution of benefits; and decreased participation in community projects (Kariel, 1989).

3.1.5 Fostering Greater Peace and Understanding

Tourism provides countries with potentially free public relations, which may help to increase and expand business. On a global level, tourism advocates point out that it helps to foster “an appreciation of the rich human, cultural and ecological diversity that our world mosaic offers; to evolve a mutual trust and respect for one another and the dignity of all life on earth” (D’Amore, 4. 1990).

In some regions, such as Central America, the creation of four bi-national peace parks has been promoted as one way of increasing regional peace while enhancing biodiversity objectives (Arias and Nations, 1992). Ecotourism has been viewed as a key financial vehicle to support these initiatives.

3.1.6 Domestic versus Foreign Tourism

One important distinction for countries to make is the type of tourism that they wish to encourage. Most countries are interested in international tourism for the foreign exchange it brings. However, domestic tourism has several advantages over international tourism. Some of these are that it:

- a) Builds a national consistency for parks and conservation;
- b) Generates stable revenues for conservation and protection of cultural property;
- c) Fosters national integration.

Ecotourism can be a way of introducing the middle class and the elite, who are normally the people with some disposable income and leisure time, to the importance of maintaining wild habitats. Use of and appreciation of wildlands should help to create a constituency for

conservation within countries and convince people of the importance of maintaining biodiversity within and outside parks, as this would help the course tourism, local and international.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is very obvious as discussed in this unit that tourism provides an important avenue for economic diversification especially for a country like Nigeria where crude oil forms about 98% of her main source of economic earnings.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have examined all the development issues with regard to tourism. These include foreign exchange generation and national resources, employment, diversification, how tourism can bring about greater peace and understanding and domestic versus foreign tourism.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is that biggest reason for developing countries interest in tourism?
The prospect of foreign exchange earnings.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What is the position of tourism for countries that are highly dependent on a few commodities? Tourism provides an important avenue for economic diversification.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention 4 advantages of domestic tourism over international tourism.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Goldfarb, G. 1989. *International Ecotourism: A Strategy for Conservation and Development*. Washington DC: The Osborn Centre for Economic Development, World Wildlife Fund-Conservation Foundation.

D'Amore, I.J. 1990. Tourism: "The World Peace Industry". *Recreation Canada* 48 (1): 24-33.

Lindberg, K. 1991. *Policies for maximizing Nature Tourism's Ecological and Economic Benefits*. Washington DC Ecotourism Society.

UNIT 4 MANAGEMENT ISSUES AND OPTIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0. Introduction
- 2.0. Objectives
- 3.0. Main Contents
 - 3.1. Management Issues and Options
 - 3.1.1 Local Involvement and Control
 - 3.1.2 Private Sector Involvement
 - 3.1.3 Role of Government
 - 3.1.4 Partnership
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The management and organization of tourism is very vital to the success of the enterprises. Countries that have succeeded in tourism owe the success story to good management and organization.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit the students should understand issues and options associated with management of tourism.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Management Issues and Options

While much of the literature on ecotourism highlights both the positive and negative, impacts of tourism, few of the studies discuss how ecotourism affects rural communities, and the level and type of control which local people have in its development. Local involvement and control can range from ownership, management or co-management of actual ventures, to participation in planning. Private sector involvement can range from individual entrepreneurs, whether local or from outside the community, to national or foreign corporations. Government can be involved in one or many ways, including regulation, planning, coordination, promotion, and revenue capture. Finally, the scale of tourism in relation to the site and the surrounding communities can vary dramatically.

In discussing ecotourism management, it is essential to first consider how these factors are inter-related. All kinds of ventures and

partnerships are found within ecotourism, from more traditional arrangement such as large private reserves employing local people on an individual basis, to indigenous groups hiring or entering into partnership with the private sector. (Such an arrangement is yet to be seen in Nigeria). There are also cases where industry or governments have led the role. Tourism in Kenya, which is substantially nature-tourism is primarily controlled by multinational corporations based outside the country, although rents are received by District Councils [Bentley, Peers. Comm. Rwanda offers an example where the government controls and manages much of the tourism and there is minimal local involvement other than through employment. Such externally-planned ecotourism development can be contrasted with local entrepreneurs, which “spring up” to satisfy a demand for ecotourism. This has been the case in many parts of Central America or Asia. Entrepreneurs, either from within the local community, or from outside, have set up special lodges and facilities for tourists [Norwich et al, 1993].

All of these arrangements from small, locally controlled tourism, to large-scale internationally-owned and operated tourist facilities use the “ecotourism” label. But it is evident that the differences in the level of benefits, the effects of local communities and culture, and the type of benefits generated depends on the respective roles of government, the private sector, and local communities.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention three ways in which government can be involved in tourism management and control.

3.1.1 Local Involvement and Control

Tourism can rapidly change the social and economic situations of communities. Working with community groups to identify ways of promoting ecotourism requires time, energy, and organizational capacity. However, if one of the objectives of ecotourism is to provide economic opportunities to reduce pressures on wildlands resources, such participation is essential. A great deal of brokering is often necessary, since private sector interest may want to move quickly and expect fast answers to remain competitive. Tourists may show up even if services are not in place, “spearheading” influx of other tourists.

There are a number of cases where local groups have received substantial benefits from ecotourism while minimizing adverse impacts. Most cases have been where local groups have some degree of autonomy over the lands where they live. Such traditional group especially if they have a cohesive social structure can exercise greater

control over tourism and its impacts. They can decide what level of tourism they want, what cultural practices they wish to share, and where tourists can or cannot go. They can develop tourism facilities themselves, in partnership or joint ventures with industry, or they can delegate all rights in return for user fees. Local ownership and control is clearly the most basic of the “conditions...and planning actions under which the positive economic development benefits [from tourism] will flow to local people” and which can “minimize negative economic, social, and cultural impacts on resident people”[Johnson, 1991:393]. However, community control may not be an equitable process or may not lead to wide-spread distributions of benefits. Studies of ecotourism impact in Nepal suggest that only those who were village elite were able to capture ecotourism benefits [Sowers et al, 1994a; Wells and Brandon, 1992]. Ecotourism can thus exacerbate local levels of income inequality within communities, or among communities in a region.

In many societies, the traditional authority structures may inhibit extensive participation in decision-making or may make it difficult to elicit the opinions of certain groups, such as women, young men, or the landless [Brandon, 1996]. In spite of this, democratic decision-making and benefit-distribution as the models most commonly promoted may not fit within the cultural context of indigenous people. Also, there are many kinds of leaders. The leader needed to control such ventures must be entrepreneurial with an ability to judge what will work both within the community, as well as with outsiders. Traditional authorities may be effective within their own system but it is often younger, better educated men who deal with outsider [Brandon, 1996]. Determining who the “real” leader is and who represents group interests best can be extremely difficult for outside groups entering into partnership. This is the major reason to involve the local people in this connection.

Many rural local populations worldwide lack secure ownership or title to the lands and resources that they depend on for their livelihood. In many cases, the places where they live are there through “customary” use rights and even ecotourism can lead to conflict over land claims. For example, the southeastern coast of Costa Rica received few tourists until improved roads led to rapid changes in land use for weekend houses and hotels. Local people, without title to land, were unable to receive market value, or sometimes any compensation, when outside interests came in to purchase land [see Wells and Brandon, 1992: Talamanca case].

Where local communities have few bargaining chips to use with industry or governments, they have made little input into decision-making and their needs are rarely taken into account. This is particularly true for no cohesive communities. Decisions made usually favor the needs of the tourist and the operator / owner of the site rather than the

needs of the community. Employment may be one of the few benefits received; many jobs may not be distributed equitably or in the best way to encourage biodiversity conservation. Working with communities to link ecotourism benefits with conservation objectives requires strong social assessments [see World Bank Social Assessment Guidelines for Biodiversity Conservation Projects] and possibly technical assistance.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the objectives of Ecotourism.

3.1.2 Private Sector Involvement

Private sector involvement in nature-based tourism ranges from small, locally-owned enterprises to tours run by universities and conservation NGOs, to corporate giants, such as American Express. The majority of the services required to transport travellers from one place to another are private, which means that most high-value ecotourism sites and tours are likely to be promoted, and even operated by international groups and companies. In most cases, the majority of what tourists pay for a trip (airfare, hotel in the capital, operator's share) will go to expatriate companies. This highlights the importance for protected area managers to make sure that the mechanisms are in place to capture and retain some revenue from tourists – ideally starting with some type of user or entry fee.

Without the capital to provide appropriate food, lodging, and other services which ecotourists need, there are often few ways that local people can own ecotourism services. One study in Belize showed that it was extremely difficult for national investors to get the credit to start what are seen as risky ventures. However, if they entered into partnerships with external firms, the same banks were more willing to encourage such lending [Lindberg and Enriquez, 1994].

In some countries such as Kenya, there is little doubt that tourism would not have developed into an important national economic revenue source if multinational corporations had not made an initial investment and spent a considerable amount of money on marketing. While multinational corporations may repatriate the highest percentage of their profits, causing high-level leakages, they may also have strong incentives to invest in local communities. Some multinational corporations have made significant investments in guard training, setting up infrastructure, and providing benefits to local communities. For example, Abercrombie and Kent, a large tour operator, established a non-profit conservation group to provide financial support to protected

areas in Kenya where they take tourists. Foreign companies may also be more willing to construct simple lodging in the national style.

Conversely, national companies may be more biased against local buildings and promote “fancier” and less environmentally appropriate facilities. There is an increasing realisation among large firms that for tourism to be sustainable, and for tourists to continue to come to the destination they offer, sites must be clean, interesting, and attractive. Some of the large operators express concern that the smaller operators have greater flexibility to rapidly change destinations, if local wildlife or culture is disrupted. In contrast, the larger operators feel they have made an investment in the area, which will only succeed if tourism can be sustained at a quality level over the long-term.

Tourism cases generate greater benefits for the local economy [see Belize example in Annex]. Locally-owned tourism is generally promoted among international conservation and development NGOs involved in ecotourism. Yet there are a number of difficulties associated with the development of a local private sector. The most obvious is that the skills and capital to start small-scale business are often lacking. In most cases, developing a local private sector response is easiest when ecotourists are already attracted to the area or when there is a specific wildlife or nature-based attraction, such as manatees or waterfalls.

3.1.3 Role of Government

Government, more than any other entity, has the potential power to shape the face of tourism internally – how it is promoted, planned and managed, and regulated. For some countries, ecotourism may be one of the most obvious ways to promote “sustainable development”. There are three inter-related ways in which nature-based and ecotourism can be promoted by government actions. These are:

1. the role of government in policy and programme coordination, including revenue collection and redistribution;
2. the infrastructure and incentives which the government dedicates to ecotourism; and
3. planning and promotion between national and local level ecotourism ventures.

Policy and programme coordination can be extremely important. In Nepal, the 1993 amendment to the Wildlife Conservation Act provides for the distribution of between 30 and 50 per cent of park and protected area revenues to surrounding communities. Bhutan has internationally limited tourism by requiring that visitors spend \$200 per day and limiting the number of tourists who can visit Butan each year [Wells,

1993: 17]. In Addition they have restrictions on development so as to keep tourism small-scale and dispersed. Botswana enacted a National Tourism Policy in 1990 to “obtain, on a sustainable basis, the greatest possible net social and economic benefits for Botswana”. From their tourism resources: scenic habitat and species preservation, conservationists have to be most concerned with improved management of protected areas, which includes fostering positive linkages between ecotourism activities and the surrounding local communities.

In the short run (and depending on the size of the country), tourism development’ when it goes awry at a particular beach, can be shifted to another. But habitat degradation which leads to species extinction or loss of an ecosystem can entail an irreversible blow to environmental agendas.

3.1.4 Partnerships

Perhaps one of the most exciting developments in ecotourism is the emergence of new kinds of partnerships. There is increasing recognition that partnerships between local people, the private sector, and government open up a range of opportunities that would not be available to any one group. Most of these partnership arrangements are recent in origin: most are accepted because they make good economic sense and benefits all partners.

Some linkages will be born of necessity; an example is the need for local groups to market their destination to a wider audience. Other linkages may result from a need for greater flexibility in management. This has led to partnerships between governments and NGOs, where management is delegated to the NGO. Delegation of management for the Annapurna Conservation Area to the King Mahendra Trust for the Nature Conservation is an example of the latter.

Partnerships between the government and the private sector have often allowed the private sector to manage operations and for concession in places where the government lacked the resources, capacity and investment, such as in protected areas [see Mackinnon et al 1986]. Interesting partnerships have started between governments and local people such as at Ayers Rock, or Uluru, in Australia. However, appropriate arrangements will depend on local circumstances.

New arrangements are constantly being devised with an increasing number of partners, including international donors in addition to all those mentioned earlier on. For example, US Agency International Development (USAID) is promoting a tourism strategy called Low Impact Tourism (LIT). LIT focuses on establishing ingenious natural

resources management through private sector initiatives and investment in rural village-based tourism business infrastructure. Rural communities would get a percentage of tourism revenues employment benefits and improved infrastructure [Lillywhite, 1992].

However, while bringing many partners to the table offers the strengths of the combined organisations, it can make coordination and decision-making quite cumbersome. In such cases, ecotourism development may seem akin to a large integrated development project, with many of the difficulties that these projects face. Projects with fewer partners may be more manageable, but may require high levels of coordination with other agencies. Another concern is that the actors involved in tourism development use concepts like ‘ecotourism’ and ‘sustainability’ to defend or satisfy their own interest, even though amongst the different stakeholders, there is no consensus about the precise meaning of the terms [Hummel, 1994]. Attempts to reach partnership agreements must be based on a shared vision.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Management, good planning and organisation play very vital roles in the development of ecotourism of any country’

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed management issues and options as they relate to ecotourism. We have also highlighted local involvement and control, how private sectors are involved, the role of government and partnership.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention 3 ways in which government can be involved: Regulation planning and coordination.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

One of the objectives of ecotourism: To provide economic opportunities to reduce pressures on wild land resources.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention the three inter-related Ways in which nature-based tourism and ecotourism can be promoted by government action.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Brandon, K. 1993. "Basic Steps in Encouraging Local Participation in Nature Tourism Projects" in Linderbeg, K. and D. Hawkins (eds) 1993. Ibid Alexandria. The Ecotourism Society.

Horurich et al, 1993. "Ecotourism and Community Development in Linderberg, K and D. L Hawkins (eds) 1993 *Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners and Managers*. N. Barrington, VT. The Ecotourism Society.

UNIT 5 RESOURCES FOR ECOTOURISM IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Development of Nature Tourism
 - 3.1.1 Concern for Conservation
 - 3.1.2 Decline of the Natural, Rural Areas over the Years
 - 3.1.3 Efforts and Need to Conserve our Forests
 - 3.1.4 Resources for Ecotourism in Nigeria
 - 3.1.5 Resources for Nature Tourism
 - 3.1.6 The Place of Tourism in the Changing World Economy
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You should bear in mind from the beginning that discussions in this unit, as the topic is concerned, is primarily based on nature tourism. There are different types of protected areas and each type for specific reasons. National parks are protected mainly for biological-related education, for posterity and for ecotourism.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit, you should be knowledgeable about the nature-based resources for ecotourism in Nigeria; how the rural areas have declined over the years; and the place of tourism in the changing world economy.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Development of Nature Tourism

“The marvelous range of natural situations and vegetation types have interacted over many thousands of years with the activities of man to produce the rich and fascinating tapestry that makes up the British countryside” (Colebourn and Gibbon, 1990). Since the beautiful, fascinating scenery found in developed nations of the world like the countrysides of Britain and the United States of America did not happen by magic or by accident, but by design through human ingenuity,

appreciating the work of nature through the efforts of conservationists over the years, it is then not impossible for a similar situation to come about even in Nigeria, all things being equal.

Over the years, the control and concentration of wild animals by man was by bush burning and this gave them not only the opportunity to destroy the natural habitat of wildlife but also to reduce their population. In our own environment, sport hunting is very common during the dry season. That was the way in which the farmers and hunters manipulated the forest environment, even though to their own selfish ends. The farmers and hunters never gave any thought for the fate of the habitat or other natural species, for those had no meaning to them. However, what happened over the years from season to season was a constant succession of rich and varied typical habitats as a by-product because of the wonderful reproduction work of nature.

If the destructive activity of man is allowed to continue year in and year out unchecked, it means that the beautiful, wonderful work of nature will by no means become artificial, like derived savanna type of forest in some places in Nigeria. What conservationists, environmentalists and those who care about nature are saying is that instead of such perpetual destruction, nature could be allowed, that is, given a chance to take its natural course over the years and be turned to such an haven to the delight of all that visit it.

For thousands of years and until recently, man lived in harmony with nature (Colebourn, 1990). According to this assertion, which may be accepted as a statement of fact, this may be accidental or deliberate to some extent. If the statement is accepted as a fact, then man needs a better understanding of the importance of the care of our renewable resources. One indisputable fact however, is that all the natural and semi-natural habitats, even the artificial ones, are rich in wildlife.

As man developed over the years, a continuous process with improved ways of utilising the land, there is bound to be changes in the nature he has lived in harmony with. A regular visit to rural areas especially in the dry seasons in Nigeria will confirm how such areas change rapidly. The agricultural activities of our forefathers, especially in the rainforest southern part of the country, from generation to generation, has, in a way changed the ancient woodlands that were rich in plants and animals to a state where it has become impossible to replace or return or recreate than to the original natural setting. The arable land was known to be rich in wildlife with many different flowers, birds and animals. All these have changed, and the changes were bad enough to the extent that most ecologists and conservationists would be more than satisfied if we could regain the extent and pattern of natural habitat with its highly attractive

and varied flora and fauna species. Hence, the renewed efforts on conservation of luckily existing reserves.

The parks and game reserves were assumed to serve two purposes. Firstly, to preserve various species of wild animals in their natural habitat for posterity (Ayodele, 1988); and secondly, to draw tourists, local and foreign, to have new experiences and satisfaction of the mind. This second purpose evidently leads to a third, which is economic, as a result of tourist expenditure. However, the question that borders one's mind is, how much the prevailing situation to Nigerian parks and reserves are supporting those purposes? Maybe, the public outcry has been less than it should have been, simply because public consciousness has failed to catch up with the scale of the loss of several of our forest.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

How did man control wild animals over the years?

The effort to create awareness should be more vigorous for this simple reason. "Despite much research, and considerable effort worldwide, man could not even properly re-create one ancient meadow within our own life time" (Colebourn, 1990). Therefore, no amount of preservation efforts will be too much for natural habitats towards their sustainability, bearing in mind that each time an ancient natural habitat is destroyed, a situation which happens often in the forest Southern parts of Nigeria for subsistence agricultural purposes, "we lose something beautiful, historic, un-recreatable, full of flora and fauna" (Mac-Cannel, 1976) that would have been preserved for posterity and for tourism purpose.

3.1.1 Concern for Conservation

Britain, the United States of America and some advanced countries of the World are famous for the conservation of their natural and archaeological heritage. There are government organisations concerned with the conservation of nature, such as the nature conservancy council, the conservation of the landscape and general country-side features (the country-side commission), and the conservation of archaeological features (e.g. English Heritage). There are also voluntary organisations with many thousands of members (Colebourn, 1990). Whereas, there are forty (40) non-governmental organisations for conservation in Kenya, there are only ten (10) in Nigeria (NCF, 1992). Nigeria can borrow a leaf from the examples above.

In advanced countries of the World, acres of lands are freely donated to the government for conservation developmental purposes. The following is an example from the United States of America.

I am very happy to accept these parcels of land on behalf of the citizens of the State of Illinois...” Governor Thompson said, I made a commitment to the citizens of the state to work towards acquisition of both natural areas and lands for outdoor recreation in my last budget message. I am pleased that I can fulfill much of this promise at a fraction of the cost we anticipated...

This is an evidence of commitment on the part of the government and at the same time evidence of understanding on the part of the local community that donated the land for a paltry sum of money. The land transfer was made through the nature conservancy, a non-profit National organisation dedicated to preserving natural areas.

3.1.2 Decline of the Natural Rural Areas over the Years

As a system passed on from one generation to another through the crude way of farming, our forefathers, through a system of slash-and-burn methods, cultivated the marginal lands over and over again only to be abandoned soon afterwards. There was no knowledge or any attempt of re-planting. That was how the major forest areas turned to what is now known as “derived savanna” lands. Majority of the wild animals therein were either killed for consumption as “bush meat” or they escaped by migrating to look for shelter elsewhere. In such a circumstance, the former natural habitat that was very rich in wildlife have been turned into a “a semi-natural habitation with threatened species” (Colebourn, 1990).

Considering the importance of renewable resources, the age-long crude method of deforestation must be checked, whether it is deliberate or accidental. The present concern is the recovery of the rural areas from the so-called land-owners and changing same to suit the needs of the moment. The changes which occurred to the forest over the years were bad enough, but the combined efforts of the Nigeria Conservation Foundation (NCF), the defunct Natural Resources Conservation Council of Nigeria (NARESCON) former FEPA, and World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF) have limited the intensity of the changes. This has left us with an appreciable, attractive and fairly varied countryside that is rich in habitats and species through the proposals arising from its renewable awareness. The Cross River National Park in Cross River State and Okumu Wildlife Sanctuary (now Okomu National Park) in Edo State are good examples of this new development. Among the recently discovered (NARESCON, (1992) is the Omo Forest Reserve in Ogun State of Nigeria.

Colebourn (1990) has recognised the serious threat that the agricultural industry posed to nature conservation, bearing in mind the acquisition of chemicals, the procurement and use of large, powerful machines and larger farm units. This is a serious competition for land usage. Through agricultural practices, a lot of land surface, formerly very rich in different plant species, soon gave way to a monoculture of one or two grasses, barren of any form of animal life. Such is how forest and woodlands are levelled in order to grow corn, yam, cassava, rendering such land impotent of thousands of plant and animal species that ever existed.

The question then is, what should we do to sustain plants and animals that may have been decades or hundreds of years old from extinction? This should be a food for thought.

A possible answer will be the Park and Reserves. On the other hand, the future of the country's Park and Reserves depends on the stability of the surrounding areas. If Nigeria's biological diversity is to be preserved, conservationists must act to capitalise on all the available opportunities.

Today, the most important and threatened life-support systems in Nigeria are the semi-arid (grassland) areas used for extensive agriculture.

3.1.3 Efforts and Needs to Conserve Our Forests

Gibbon (1990) asserted that conservation is for people, but that can only apply if there is an awareness of the benefits of conservation in their everyday life. A new ethic involving people, especially the local community (CRNP style), plants and animals, are needed if human societies are to live in harmony with the natural world on which they are so dependent.

Lack of awareness of everyday concerns prevents policy makers, developers and the general public from seeing the urgent need to achieve conservation goals. The benefits from ecosystem and their plants, animals and ecological process are not seen by most people as being long-term investments. They are mostly interested in short-term gains which can be made from their destruction. Until people understand that they should safeguard the ecosystem and species, they will not do so.

For instance, at a conference on tropical forests in Sao Paulo, hosted by the Brazilian and US governments and organised by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, delegates vigorously endorsed a European community proposal for a World Forest

Conservation Protocol. It was presented at the International Conference on the environment in Rio De Janeiro, Brazil, between June 3 and 14, 1992 and it included measures used to reforest and protect the tropical forest, as well as international trade deals on financial assistance to tropical countries. The theme was “*The Earth Summit*”. Forest Principles was one of the major sub-topics vigorously considered. Even though, the South (i.e. the poorer countries) agreed to sustainably manage their forests, they made known categorically that they needed the means to do it. Strong oppositions to acceptance of liability and compensation came from countries like Netherlands, the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA). Nigeria and Kenya however, expressed preference for those countries’ inclusion. Conventional burning of forest contributes about one-quarter to the “greenhouse gases” responsible for global climate convention now under discussion. Delegates from tropical countries recognised that conservation of tropical forest was of crucial importance but that the developed world should commit itself to reducing the “green house” gas emission from fossils fuel use. (*Financial Times*, 17 January 1990).

3.1.4 Resources for Ecotourism in Nigeria

Despite all the damage, there still exists an effective network of habitats, hedges, rivers and riverbanks for species to move through in Nigeria. These include: Yankari, Kainji, Cross River, Old Oyo National Park, Chad Basin, Ghashaka Gumti, Okomu and Kamuku National Parks. Incidents like fire, flood, drought or a mistake in management may lead to many species dying out and perhaps largely unrecorded. Definitely such will not recolonising will become difficult; the inevitable trend is for such habitats to become steadily poorer in species. If such incidents happen where the area is managed as a nature reserve, what hope is there for sites that are unprotected?

As the fauna is delicate, dynamic in equilibrium with environmental forces, a knowledge of the relationship of wildlife species to its environment and particularly to its habitats is basic to any successful programme of control or conservation. An integrated plan for proper management of any animal species must be based on a sound knowledge of its ecology and behaviour. As mentioned earlier, the need and importance of conserving the remaining renewable resources at our disposal cannot be over-emphasised.

In Britain, there are now over 200 National Nature Reserves and over 2,000 non-statutory Nature Reserves (Colebourn, 1990). Also in Britain, the recent Wildlife and Countryside Act, and subsequent amendments, encompasses wide range of country-side protection measures, reduction on the developments on valued habitats, farmers were persuaded to shift.

LESSON FOR CONSERVATION FUNDING

William (1990), asserted that in theory, large reserves of parks reduce the risk of extinctions because they contain sizeable populations of endangered species of plants and animals. However, in practice, most developing countries do not have the resources to protect large areas and economically viable species from illegal exploitation.

3.1.5 Resources for Nature Tourism

Since the 1903s, many developed and developing countries have established National Parks and Nature Reserves. Usually, the aim is to protect the ecosystems, or large part of them with their indigenous floras and faunas. Several large conservation areas in Africa such as Serengeti (Tanzania), Tsavo (Kenya), Selous (Tanzania) and Luangwa (Zambia) come close to fulfilling the theoretical ideas. Okomu Wildlife Sanctuary (now Okomu National Park) in Edo State Nigeria, is also a typical example. But the recent decline in large population of both black rhino and, more importantly elephants within those areas (Western and Vigne, 1985; Douglas-Hamilton, 1987; Cumming and Du Toit, 1989) shows that there is a wide gap between theory and reality. The possible solution to this is effective anti-poaching operations and effective enforcement of conservation laws.

Several factors like external demand for trophies, poverty and corruption result in poaching of various species of wild animals especially the rhinos and elephants. Detailed results from Luangwa (Zambia) valley support the view that an important factor in the overall decline in rhino and elephant numbers across the rest of Africa is a shortage of manpower and resources within National Conservation Departments (Cumming et al., 1984, Bell and Clarke, 1986). This is a clear indication that training programme in wildlife development has to be intensified.

Ancient woodlands have fared somewhat better in terms of percentage loss (Colebourn, 1990) partly because woods are often more visible, accessible features than grasslands, but things are still not so good. Ancient broad-leaved woodlands were lost in the sense that they no longer support similar vegetation. Everything is becoming more and more similar and homogenised, with all variability and beauty being lost.

Norwich (1990) asserted that as human pressure on tropical forest grows, conservation needs new approaches. The first necessary step in conserving natural resources (for tourism) is to focus on preserving pristine areas or areas of specific biological interest depending on how

rich the National Park or Reserve is in fauna. Areas that are fairly rich in fauna and are easily penetrated may not necessarily require focus on specific areas of interest.

In order not to analogise the local people, a lot of propaganda and conservation education is being done at the Cross River National Park (CRNP), Nigeria. However, security of such areas depends on the participation of local people who may become hostile to conservation goals if they are not considered (Gregg and Mc Gean, 1985). In order to alienate the consumption concept of wild animals from the minds of the local people and link wild animals with tourism and national economy, they (the local community) have to be actively involved through education. An example is the Tungia farming at urban section of Cross River National Park (CRNP).

3.1.6 The Place of Tourism on the Changing World Economy

A significant and major problem in the world economy today is inflation associated with its characteristics of soaring prices. This has seriously affected both the industrialised and developing nations. Since tourism can never operate in isolation of other sectors of the economy, it is equally affected by the price spiral.

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) has rightly observed, and reported that “*modern tourism is subject to sharp seasonal variations*”. The seasonal variation, on the other hand could still be a subject of demand and supply. The wide choice of destinations available to the international traveller might help overcome supply rigidities by diverting excess demand to new destinations. It follows that developing countries just becoming aware of tourism, in order to establish it to snatch a niche in the world tourism industry and market and become one of the new destinations, must be prepared to prove itself worthwhile destinations. That is, destinations where visitors will come stay and want to come back, inviting others too.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The principal nature-based resources for ecotourism in Nigeria are the eight national parks and many other game reserves that are spread across the country.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has discussed the resources for ecotourism in Nigeria, the development of nature tourism, concern for conservation, decline of

natural rural areas, the efforts to conserve our forests and the place of tourism in the changing world economy.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- (a) How did man control wild animals over the years? By bush burning.
- (b) Mention one of the ways by which natural rural areas declined over the years: Farming through a system of slash and burn.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Enumerate four important reasons responsible for the decline of natural rural areas in Nigeria.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Colebourn, P. and B. Gilbbons, 1990. *Britain's Countryside Heritage: A Guide to the Landscape*. Villiers House 41/47 strand, London WC 2N 5 JE.

Falade, G.O. 2000. *Understating Tourism in Nigeria*. JIS Printing Press, Bodija Estate, Ibadan (pp 22-28).

Norwich, R.H. 1990. "How to Develop a Community Sanctuary – An Experimental Approach to the Conservation of Private Lands". *Orxy* 24, No 2.

MODULE 2

Unit 1	Impact of Ecotourism on the Environment (1)
Unit 2	Impacts of Ecotourism on the Environment (2)
Unit 3	Planning and Development of Ecotourism Destinations
Unit 4	Geographical Information System as Planning Tool
Unit 5	Ecotourism Projects in Nigeria

UNIT 1 IMPACT OF ECOTOURISM ON THE ENVIRONMENT (1)

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Ensuring Environmental and Cultural Integrity
3.2	Use of Cultural Property
3.2.1	Community Cohesion and Structure
3.2.2	Separation Between the Sacred and the Profane
3.2.3	Rapidity of Tourism Development
3.2.4	Balance with Environment
3.2.5	Distribution of Tourism Impacts
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The level and type of ecotourism planned and developed must be appropriate for the area's natural resources and cultural heritage and consistent with the country's wishes and expectations.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit, the student should have had fair knowledge about how to ensure environmental and cultural integrity, and the use of cultural property.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Ensuring Environmental and Cultural Integrity

A fundamental characteristic of community-based ecotourism is that the quality of the natural resources and cultural heritage of an area should not be damaged and, if possible, should be enhanced by tourism. Adverse impact on the natural environment should be minimised and the culture of indigenous communities should not be compromised. Ecotourism should encourage people to value their own cultural heritage. However, culture is not static and communities may wish to see change.

A practical approach is to identify the limits of acceptable change that could be brought by tourism and then to consider what level of tourism activity would generate this change.

It is very important that communities decide on the level of tourism they wish to see. Consultation during the process of drawing up an ecotourism strategy should reveal the kinds of changes that might be viewed positively or negatively by local people. They can then be helped to consider what this might mean in terms of the number and type of visitors to look for, when they should come and their length of stay. For example, in one community in the Amazon, it was felt that more than eight visitors per month would be disruptive. Two important principles are:

- 1) Products developed should be based on the community's traditional knowledge, values and skills; and
- 2) The community should decide which aspects of their cultural traditions they wish to share with visitors.

A similar approach can be adopted with respect to determining limits of acceptable change and of acceptable use as far as the natural environment is concerned. Here, scientific knowledge may be required to enable a judgement to be made, taking account of the conditions of different sites at various times of the year. Often it is found that the quantity of visitors at any one time of the year is a more critical factor than the overall level of visitation.

Useful tools in the management of visitors include the following:

- 1) Agreements with tour operators over the number and size of groups to bring.
- 2) Codes of conducts for visitors.

- 3) Application of systematic environmental, social and cultural impact assessment on all proposed developments. This should also be concerned with details of what is offered to visitors, such as the choice of products sold to them (for example, avoiding artifacts with a sacred significance) or the use of inappropriate sources of fuel.
- 4) Zoning both within and outside protected areas. This should cover both the siting of facilities and the degree of access allowed. In some locations, village communities have identified specific zones for ecotourism, both with respect to facility provision and wildlife conservation measures. A common approach is to locate tourist lodges some distance away from community villages.

The planning process should ensure that monitoring measures are in place so that it is possible to tell when limits of acceptable change have been reached. Furthermore, strategies for making the necessary adjustments to overcome any problems identified will need to be established.

One important link between biodiversity conservation and culture which has a tangible market value in some cases, is the specific ecological information, or intellectual property, possessed by indigenous groups and knowledge about human interactions with nature. For example, knowledge, learned through the use of plants through history, has saved literally millions of lives (quinine for malaria, curare for surgery, taxol for cancer) and provided knowledge of desirable properties for different crop strains. Diminished knowledge is one aspect of cultural change. Groups such as the Kuna Indians in Panama have worked with foreign anthropologists to relearn traditional methods of caring for the land (Chapin, 1990). Ethnobotanical studies, searching for and working with traditional groups to identify these properties, has become a significant element in conservation and one small branch of the ecotourism market.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention one of the useful tools in the management of visitors.

3.2 Use of Cultural Property

Cultural sites are irreplaceable resources. Once destroyed, the historical, cultural, ascetic and educational value are gone forever. In many parts of the world, tourism has served as one justification and impetus for the preservation of cultural sites. Tourism has often been an important force behind laws protecting sites and antiquities, and has provided economic

justification for restoration of many sites (UNESCO, 1976). Many protected areas have dual functions of biodiversity conservation and protection of cultural property. Protection of historical monuments within protected areas, such as Mayan ruins at Tikal, Guatemala, is fairly straight forward, at least in terms of how and when conservation and protection are needed. But using ecotourism to generate the revenue for such projects and managing the flow of tourists is more difficult. Preservation of cultural property is even more problematic when it involves special natural sites, such as sacred forest in Nepal or rock painting or sacred sites in Australia. In some cases, even speaking directly with local people about these sites, or trying to define them, may be sacrilegious. For example, at Uluru (Ayers rock) in Australia, the Anagu people have expressed a disdain for people walking or climbing on their sacred rock. However, because of the revenue generated by tourism the Anagu have made allowances for hundreds of tourists to climb Uluru daily (Willis, D. 1992; Altma, 1989). Respect and care of sacred sites are often sacrificed by individuals for profit, even though they may be “owned” by the community. For example, wood from sacred forests in Nigeria is often stolen to meet the increased demand for cooking or hot water showers for trekking tourists (Gurung, 1989) e.g. (Igbo Agala at Oke Are, Ibadan).

Characteristics that Influence the Impact of Tourism on a Culture

There are at least six factors that influence how a culture reacts to tourism: These include

1. Community cohesion and structure;
2. Ability to separate the sacred from the profane;
3. Rapidity of tourism development;
4. Previous experience with “outside” groups;
5. Balance with environment,
6. Distribution of tourism impacts and benefits.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the characteristics that influence how a culture reacts to tourism.

3.2.1 Community Cohesion and Structure

The effect tourism has on a culture in part depends on the degree of community cohesiveness and the strength and elasticity of traditional practices. The impact of new technologies and customs can have markedly different impacts on different cultures, and even different communities within a culture. If a culture has had diverse experiences

coping with change, it is more likely to be flexible to the influences of tourism. Some cultures have shown a remarkable ability to incorporate the external influences brought by tourism and adapt them into practices, which are beneficial for their society, such as the Sherpas of Nepal. Nepalese Sherpas have been involved in tourism and the demand for wage labour for over 40 years. They have found new ways to “reconstitute productive relations in their new economy”. The Sherpa logic that informs and shapes economic endeavour is a cultural logic revolving around tendencies toward both independence can fit.

3.2.2 Separation between the Sacred and the Profane

Not all cultures can easily separate the sacred from the profane, since there is often a continuum between the two. Two factors help differentiate how cultures act their attitude about questioning their own practices, and their disposition to question the practices of others. Some cultures encourage questioning about their own practices, while others encourage unquestioning adherence to local norms. When a culture is not able to discuss the importance and role of certain practices, these practices often become events for tourists and, over time, lose meaning for the people themselves (Maurer and Zeigler, 1988:75). A culture’s ability to assimilate outside ideas and interpret them through their own cultural structures helps it adapt to changes brought through tourism.

3.2.3 Rapidity of Tourism Development

Ecotourism contrasts with mass tourism in that it is aimed at bringing in fewer people at levels that do not cause cultural disruption. Yet even several hundreds to one thousand tourists a year – a few everyday – will have a market effect over relatively few years on a rural population. Communities may have little opportunity to adapt their practices so as to incorporate external elements, and it may be difficult to identify when “too much” disruption has taken place. There are few examples of mechanisms to monitor cultural change and to regulate tourism accordingly.

For example in Nigeria, it is tourists that are either biologically or botanically inclined (especially for research purposes) that do frequent the National Parks or Game Reserves or those that love the natural environment.

Previous Experience with “Outside” Groups

While most cultures will have had contact with external groups, their experience in dealing with these groups, either positively or negatively, can have huge importance to how they react to tourism. In general,

communities that have been exposed to a higher number of groups slowly over time can more easily incorporate new ideas and practices into their lives with less disruption. Similarly, groups which have encountered cultures that are very different from their own are likely to be less overwhelmed than groups which have only been in contact with similar cultures.

3.2.4 Balance with Environment

Traditional management systems which regulate resource use are highly susceptible to external influences (Redfoed, 1996; Brandon, 1996). Many traditional resource management systems work because they are based on low population densities either intensively extracting from a small area, or allowing that area to regenerate, or extensively using the resources collected over a wide area. These systems are appropriate within their own cultural and ecological context but can rapidly erode if local conditions change, particularly if

- 1) There is substantial increase in the local population;
- 2) Few commodities increase in value and become more heavily exploited; or
- 3) The area available for exploitation is substantially reduced.

Creation of protected areas is one example of the third reason. Ecotourism has the potential to partially offset economic losses born by local people. Yet groups already coping with stress from environmental dislocation may have difficulty adapting to the rapid changes brought by tourism.

3.2.5 Distribution of Tourism Impacts

The distribution of costs and benefits from tourism across communities is one of the most important issues in devising sustainable ecotourism strategies. In the short run, even providing a limited number of jobs in areas where there are few other opportunities may provide substantial benefit with minimal costs. But problems arise when the impacts differentially affect one segment of a community (Maurer and Zeigler, 1988). Similarly, problems can arise when the benefits are captured by one group class within a community. Excellent studies of cultural tourism in Ladakh, India (Michaud, 1991) and San Crittobal, Mexico (Van de Berghe, 1992) demonstrate that different ethnic groups differentially receive the benefits from tourism. Without in-depth knowledge of a culture, it is difficult to say whether the culture would better withstand a broad distribution of impacts, or some alternative approach that would affect a more restricted subgroup.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It can be deduced from our discussion so far that benefits of tourism are not realised by indigenous cultures. Tourism has a positive influence in cases where the interest expressed by tourists in art, music, or crafts has stimulated local interest and pride and led to a revival of practices, especially among the youth. In addition, tourism can generate benefits such as employment to local communities. However, whether or not jobs and other benefits have a positive long-term impact on “culture” will depend on the resilience of the local community and, perhaps more importantly, the ability of tourism operators and the communities themselves to recognise and organise in ways which minimise the significant cultural impacts. Ecotourism may have greater impacts on culture than mass tourism since ecotourists are rural peoples. Therefore, particular attention should be given to social impact assessment in the development of ecotourism projects.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed so far issues concerning how to ensure environmental and cultural integrity, use of cultural property, community cohesion and structure, separation between the sacred and the profane, balance with environment and distribution of tourism impacts.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

One of the useful tools in the management of visitors: Code of conducts for visitors.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

One of the characteristics that influence how a culture reacts to tourism: Ability to separate the sacred from the profane.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Enumerate 5 factors that influence the impact of Tourism on a culture.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

- Chapin, M. 1990. “The Silent Jungle: Ecotourism among the Kuna Indian in Panama”. *Cultural Survival Quarterly* 14(1): 42-45
- Gurung, C. 1989. Annapurna Conservation Area Project, Nepal”. In Aber, Shirley, Ed. *Beyond the Green Horizon: Principles for Sustainable Tourism*. London, United Kingdom: Worldwide Fund for Nature.

UNIT 2 IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM ON THE ENVIRONMENT (2)

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Valuing the Benefits of Ecotourism on the Environment
 - 3.1.1 Obstacles to Valuing Benefits
 - 3.2 Benefits
 - 3.3 Costs
 - 3.3.1 Direct Cost
 - 3.3.2 Indirect Cost
 - 3.3.3 Opportunity Cost
 - 3.4 Comparing Benefits and Costs
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the major benefits of ecotourism is the economic impact on the people of the local community. Major among these are job opportunities and business development in the area.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit, you would have acquired valuable knowledge of the benefits of ecotourism on the environment.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Valuing the Benefits

Few people dispute the desirability of protecting selected natural areas. In developing countries, however, the costs associated with establishing and managing protected areas often appear formidable. Faced with acute shortage of funds, governments are reluctant to make the investments needed to provide effective protection.

Many developing countries rely directly on their natural resource base for a substantial portion of domestic employment and national income. The need to exploit resources such as timber and minerals often makes it difficult for governments to forgo using these resources in order to

establish a protected area. Growing populations and the need for more agricultural and urban land further increase the pressure to convert undeveloped natural areas to agricultural or urban uses. Such pressures notwithstanding many developing countries have managed to establish significant amounts of land as protected areas. As noted in the Introduction, more than 100 developing countries have designated more than 185 million hectares as one category or another of protected areas. Yet, even in these countries, many areas remain threatened due to inadequate funding for management and protection.

The expected benefits from the conversion and development of natural areas can usually be expressed in monetary terms. These benefits include the returns from agricultural, urban, or industrial developments as well as the value of timber, minerals and other natural resources that can be extracted from protected areas. However, many of the benefits that result from establishing and maintaining protected areas are not so easily valued in financial terms. As a result, these benefits are often overlooked when decisions are made on budget allocations and how best to use a nation's natural resources. The following section explains why the value of certain benefits derived from protected areas cannot be easily quantified.

3.1.1 Obstacles to Valuing Benefits

For most goods and services, prices are established in the marketplace through the process of buying and selling. The price of a kilogram of rice or a piece of lumber is easy to determine. It is not so easy, however, to value other goods and services due to various factors that prevent normal market operations. These factors are referred to as *market failure* (or "market imperfections"). If they are not adjusted for, they result in distorted market prices that do not reflect the true value of the good in question. Many of the benefits of protected areas, such as their ecological, biological, or aesthetic value, are subject to these market imperfections.

Some of these benefits are quite abstract – biological diversity, for example, is recognised as important but exceptionally difficult to value in monetary terms. Other benefits are much more concrete but, owing to their location or other factors, they do not have easily determined monetary values. Examples are forest products that are collected and used by local inhabitants but not sold commercially, and the downstream impact on water regulation and water quality created by maintaining forest cover in a watershed.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

How are services and prices established in the market place?

3.2 Benefits

Diverse benefits are associated with each type of protected area. These benefits flow from various conservation objectives:

- 1) Maintenance and conservation of environmental resources, services, and ecological processes.
- 2) Production of natural resources such as timber and wildlife
- 3) Production of recreation and tourism services
- 4) Protection of cultural and historical sites and objects
- 5) Provision of educational and research opportunities

Some of these benefits are the result of direct resources and can be valued according to market prices (for instance, logging and fishing). Other benefits such as recreational uses, depend on direct human use of the protected areas, as well, and these too can be valued in various ways. Most of the benefits from protected areas, however, are hard to measure in monetary terms. These broad benefits to individuals or society at large are frequently referred to as social benefits and are a primary justification for protected areas. This topic is discussed at length later in the chapter.

There is another possible grouping of benefits that is especially useful for discussing various ways of valuing benefits. These include:

- 1) Recreation/tourism
- 2) Watershed protection
 - Erosion control
 - Local flood reduction
 - Regulation of stream flows
- 3) Ecological processes
 - Fixing and cycling of nutrients
 - Soil formation
 - Circulation and cleansing of air and water
 - Global life support
- 4) Biodiversity
 - Gene resources
 - Species protection
 - Ecosystem diversity
 - Evolutionary processes
- 5) Education and research
- 6) Consumptive benefits

- 7) Non-consumptive benefits
 - Aesthetic
 - Spiritual
 - Cultural/historical
 - Existence value
- 8) Future values
 - Option value
 - Quasi-option value

See McNeely (1988) for yet another grouping of benefits; Ledec and Goodland (1988) provide detailed lists of economic benefits of wild land management.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the benefits that flow from various conservation objectives.

Recreation/Tourism: Recreation and tourism are normally the primary objectives in national parks and are key objective in many other types of protected areas. Unless the primary objective is strict protection of natural conditions or research, some tourism and recreational use are normally allowed. These services not only yield direct financial benefits from protected area but stimulate employment and rural development in surrounding areas, as well.

Watershed Protection: Maintaining the natural vegetative cover helps to control erosion, reduces sedimentation and flooding downstream, and regulates stream flows. The extent of the benefit depends on the type of soils, topography, and natural cover in the protected area, the alternative uses available, and the types of investment and land use downstream.

Ecological Processes: In their natural state, protected areas provide a number of environmental services in addition to watershed protection. These services often benefit people down slope and downstream by maintaining the productive capacity of nearby areas. Vegetative cover acts as a natural filter to reduce air and water pollution and promotes nutrient cycling. Clearly, forests and wetlands are essential to the overall global life support of the planet. Many aquatic species depend on the existence of wetland areas during some portion of their life cycle. Mangroves and their associated fish and shrimp populations constitute just one example.

Biodiversity: The maintenance of biodiversity – short for biological diversity, which includes all species, genetic variation within species, and all varieties of habitat and ecosystems- is currently considered to be

one of the most important benefits of protecting natural areas. Biological resources form the basis of numerous industries and are major sources of food, medicines, chemicals, and other products used in both traditional and industrialised societies. By protecting habitats, one protects the variety of species they contain. For detailed discussions of the value of biodiversity, see McNeely (1988) and Wilson (1988).

Education and Research: Research in protected areas may focus on a wide variety of topics from animal behaviour to measurement of environmental status and trends. By examining ecological processes in their natural conditions, one can better understand the workings of the environment and thereby improve management and restoration of both undeveloped areas and areas converted to other land uses. Research may involve changing the underlying conditions of the study area in some manner, or it may simply monitor natural conditions with as little interference as possible. Research is often integrated with education as well, and protected areas provide fertile grounds for field study by students at all levels. Moreover, protected areas instill people with an understanding and appreciation of the environment making them more aware of the harmful consequences of certain types of behaviour.

Consumptive Benefits: Protected areas can yield a number of products including timber, forage, food, wildlife, fish, herbs, and medicine. If an area is to be protected, of course such products will be harvested only on a sustainable basis. Depending on the objectives of the protected area, consumptive use of the resources may be totally forbidden (as in strict nature reserves and many national parks) or it may be a primary function (as in multiple-use areas).

Non-consumptive Benefits: These benefits include the value people derive from protected areas that are not related to direct use. Aesthetic benefits may accrue when one passes near the area, views it from a distance, or sees it in films or on television. The cultural value of a mountain or lake may be important in some societies, while urban societies may derive spiritual value from having a nearby asylum from modern life. Certain protected areas may also be key historic sites. Some people, moreover, may derive a benefit simply from knowing that a certain unspoiled area or a certain species exists, even though they themselves will never see or use it. This existence value is independent of any direct present or future use.

Future Values: Apart from the values people derive from both consumptive and non-consumptive use, the protection of certain areas ensures a variety of benefits from their potential use in the future either for visiting or from products that may be developed from the area's

genetic or other resources. The question of future value is discussed in the next chapter.

3.3 Costs

Three main types of cost are associated with establishing and maintaining protected areas: these are: direct costs, indirect costs, and opportunity costs. Direct costs are cost directly related to establishment and management of protected areas. Indirect costs refer to adverse impacts caused by establishing protected areas; these include damage to property of inquiry to people by wildlife. Opportunity costs represent the loss of potential benefits associated with protecting an area rather than harvesting its resources.

3.3.1 Direct Costs

Direct costs represent direct budget outlays, usually paid for by local or national governments. The first category of direct costs is made up those associated with establishing an area as protected. If the land is not already owned by the government, there may be costs to acquire title to it. If people are already living in the area, they may require relocation depending on the management objectives. There may also be costs associated with developing roads and facilities and preparing a management plan for the area.

Apart from the costs of establishing a protected area, there are a number of ongoing costs of maintaining and managing it. Administrative and staff costs must be considered, as well as maintenance costs for roads and facilities. Protected areas should also have a monitoring and research programme to keep track of changes in status and trends. If tourists will be using the area, an educational programme is usually required. There is also a critical need, especially in developing countries, for adequate enforcement to protect the area. Poaching of wildlife and timber and clearing of protected areas for agriculture are often acute problems. Thus an effective protection programme – including enforcement of regulations combined with other strategies such as education, incentive systems, and a rural development programme for nearby residents – must be developed and maintained. The expenses of this protection programme are part of the direct costs.

3.3.2 Indirect Costs

Another category of costs involves damages indirectly caused by the existence of the protected area. For example, wildlife in the protected area may cause damage outside the area itself crops trampled or eaten by wildlife, for instance, as well as harm to people, livestock, or materials.

These are all indirect costs. In Indonesia, elephants living in protected areas frequently wander outside the boundaries and damage nearby plantations or field crops. Though governments are not compelled to compensate for such damages, community attitudes toward protected areas and the wildlife they contain will be much more positive if residents are reimbursed for any damages they suffer.

3.3.3 Opportunity Cost

The opportunity costs of a protected area are the benefits that society or individuals lose when an area is protected. These costs include forgone output from the protected area (animals, species, timber) – not only the resources currently on the site but also those that could have been developed through more intensive exploitation. Opportunity costs also include the benefits that might have been gained from conversion to an alternative use. (These opportunity costs may have already been accounted for in the costs of establishment. If the area was purchased on the open market, the purchase price will reflect the value of alternative commercial possibilities.)

In many developing countries, there may be significant opportunity costs from the need to restrict use by nearby residents. If the local community has to forgo outputs they are accustomed to receiving, compensation or development of alternative sources of these products will be called for. Otherwise the local community will suffer a loss and may be very reluctant to give up its traditional patterns of use.

These three types of costs have important bearing on the pressures for and against protection. Direct costs appear as government budgetary outlays and, when resources are scarce, they always under pressure. Indirect costs may be sizeable but are usually dispersed over many individuals who may find it difficult to organise or make known their collective concerns. Opportunity costs, whether large or small, may play an important role in the political decision-making process.

If one person or one industry stands to gain from conversion of a natural area to another use, considerable pressure may be placed on the government to stop creation of a protected area. Frequently, entities have been able to develop potential protected areas for their own personal benefits at society's expense. It is important, therefore, to account for the full range of benefits and costs, both financial and social, when analyzing the creation of a protected area.

3.4 Comparing Benefits and Costs

There are several ways of weighing benefits and costs when evaluating alternatives. If estimates of both benefits and their associated costs are known, some form of a benefit/cost analysis can be carried out. The technique involves the evaluation of a stream of benefits and costs over some chosen period of time. The benefits/cost analysis can result in the calculation of a net present value (NPV) figure, a benefit/cost ratio (B/C ratio), or an internal rate of return (IRR) for the proposed protected area. (For details on the mechanics involved in benefit/cost analysis, especially for environmental decisions, see Hufschmidt and others 1983; Dixon and Hufschmidt 1986, and Dixon and others 1988). In most cases involving protected areas, the quantifiable benefits (those that can be measured in monetary terms) are less than the total benefits. When the directly quantifiable benefits alone are greater than the costs of protection, the decision to provide protection is easy.

The ultimate decision whether or not to designate an area as protected will depend on a variety of factors – the quantified and non-quantified benefits expected from protection, the costs of providing protection (constructing and maintaining facilities, for example), the potential net benefits from alternative uses of the site, and so on. Even if the expected monetary benefits of protection exceed the direct costs of protection, the potential benefits from alternative uses may be considerable. Usually, the decision-maker has some notion of the net benefits expected from the development alternative for a site - from timber extraction, agricultural development, housing, or industrial development for instance. This information, in turn, must be compared to the expected net monetary benefits (if any) of the protected area plus the other important (but unquantified) benefits provided by a protected area.

There are no firm rules for selecting and designating protected areas. Given the uncertainty of the true magnitude of future value to be gained from such benefits as genetic resources, species protection, option value, and existence value, caution is called for. If the area is not established as a protected area, some of these benefits will be lost forever. Another issue to be considered is that protected areas often increase in value relative to other uses of these areas since they are a finite resource that will become increasingly scarce as time passes.

One approach to these decisions is known as the **safe minimum standard** (SMS) approach originally developed by Ciriacy-Wantrup (1952) and also advocated by Bishop (1978). In essence, the SMS approach uses a modified version of the “mini max” criterion – choosing the alternative that minimises the maximum possible loss that could result from making the wrong decision. In the modified approach, this

alternative is chosen unless the costs of doing so are “unacceptably large” (Bishop, 1978). How large is unacceptably large is left to the decision-maker. If the costs of establishing a protected area (such as acquisition, management, and other uses (forgone) are greater than the quantifiable benefits, the maximum loss associated with establishment will be some amount less than the difference between the quantified costs and benefits (because of unquantified benefits from protection). The cost of not establishing the protected area, however, is unknown but potentially very large – if for example, some species are lost because the area is not protected, the potential uses for these species will never be known. This means that there is a certain unknown probability of a serious social or economic loss in the future. Following the SMS approach calls for avoiding this potential loss unless it would involve an unacceptably large known cost. Essentially, the decision becomes a question of accepting some known cost today to prevent a potentially larger cost in the future.

Another approach to these decisions is to use cost-effectiveness analysis instead of cost/benefit analysis. This approach does not attempt to value benefits; rather, it focuses on finding the least cost method of reaching a desired goal (say, protection of a certain number of hectares of specific habitat).

The opportunity-cost approach can be used when the other techniques do not appear helpful. In this case the analyst compares the net economic benefits from a proposed development of a natural area to the qualitative benefits of protection. Although this is an “apples and oranges” comparison, if the net economic benefits of the alternative use are negative or positive but small, it may be easy to justify protection. The economic costs are not large and the benefits of protection, although unquantified, may be substantial. When the economic costs are large, the decision is more difficult.

The opportunity-cost approach can also be used to evaluate different sites for a proposed development project. Presumably an alternative site would not be as advantageous for the project as the natural area (or it would have been considered as a primary choice) but the reduction in project benefits associated with the alternative site may be more than outweighed by the benefit of protecting the original site. In this case, the opportunity-cost approach evaluates the difference in project benefits associated with the two sites and compares it to the benefits of protecting the original site.

When all of the benefits and costs associated with protection or development of a natural area are considered, the economic analysis yields results that allow any protected area to be placed in one of three

categories: privately beneficial, socially beneficial, or undetermined benefits. In privately beneficial areas, the economic benefits are directly obtainable by individuals, groups, or firms and are larger than the associated costs of the benefits of alternative uses. In these cases, the individual will provide the “service” (protection of a natural area) without government intervention. Such cases are not uncommon, but the areas tend to be small and the service provided rather specific. Privately run recreational areas such as campgrounds, ski resorts, and game reserves may result in limited portions of an area being kept in its natural state. Outstanding areas such as the Galapagos Island or Parc National des Volcans in Rwanda, though currently administered by national governments, are also examples of potentially privately beneficial areas. In most such cases, tourism is a primary use of the area.

Some natural areas unprotected by government may be considered so important that individuals or groups feel strongly enough to purchase them from their current owners. Private conservation groups, such as The Nature Conservancy in the United States, have begun acquiring critical natural areas threatened by development. These groups pool donations from their members to acquire development rights or to buy areas that might not otherwise be protected. Supporters of such private conservation efforts must, therefore, perceive benefits in excess of the costs of these actions.

More common is the case where establishment of a protected area is socially beneficial (the net benefits to society at large are positive), though an individual could not easily capture all the benefits and therefore would not be willing to provide protection or preservation on a commercial basis. Protection of upper watershed areas, for example, may be justified by preserving the water supply and water quality for a downstream area. National parks are often socially beneficial. Government support of wildlife parks in East Africa, for example, is usually profitable in terms of attracting tourists who spend money both inside and outside the protected areas.

The third category is undetermined benefits. In many cases, it may be difficult to determine whether the net benefits of protecting a natural area are positive or negative. The costs of protection may be known, but the benefits may be diffuse or hard to measure. Wilderness area or remote locations are examples of such sites. Governments may well decide to protect some of these areas, but at what cost and to what extent? These issues must be addressed.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It can be seen clearly from our discussion that a lot of benefits are available to the people of the local community as the impact of ecotourism on the environment.

5.0 SUMMARY

Our discussion in this unit has been based on the benefits of ecotourism as its impacts on the local people of the environment.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

How does services and prices established in the market place?: Through the process of buying and selling.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the benefits that flow from various conservation objectives: Production of natural resources such as timber and wildlife.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention if of the benefits that flow from conservation objective.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Parker, D.J, C.H. Green, and E.C. Penning Rowsell, 1983. Swalechiffe

Coast Protection Proposals: Evaluation of Potential Benefits. Enfield: Flood Hazard Research Centre.

UNIT 3 PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT OF ECOTOURISM DESTINATIONS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Planning Objectives
 - 3.2 The Planning Process
 - 3.3 Planning Methodology
 - 3.4 The Planning Team
 - 3.5 Considering Whether Ecotourism is an Appropriate Option
 - 3.6 Checking the Preconditions for Ecotourism
 - 3.7 Adopting an Integrated Approach
 - 3.8 Planning Ecotourism with Communities and Other Stakeholders
 - 3.9 Obtaining the Support of Visitors and Tour Operators
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we consider the kind of structures and processes that need to be in place within a community to enable ecotourism to work well and for the benefits of local people and the environment.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit, the student would have had a better understanding of all it takes to plan and develop ecotourism destinations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Planning Objective

Modern administration and development of agriculture, livestock, timber and fisheries, and their associated resources and industries, require the expertise of many related professions. Few such enterprises can be planned by single individuals in view of the complexity of associated factors and variables.

Similarly, the various types of management applied to unique wildland and natural and cultural resources such as those found in forests, deserts, mountains, coasts, marine environments, archaeological ruins, wild fauna, and genetic reservoirs, require the services of many different specialists. National parks, natural and cultural monuments, wildlife sanctuaries, national forests, recreation areas, watersheds and scenic areas, all have special and unique aspects to be studied and values to be analysed; they each require decisions which will have long-lasting impacts upon future management of the area in question.

As resources become ever more scarce, it is crucial that the decision for their allocation be based upon the most careful evaluation possible. Two aspects are fundamental: Firstly, an orderly and logical enquiry into the problem must be, and all possible solution considered and decided upon: secondly, the support of all the related professions must be sought in relation to each problems and alternative solution. The first aspect is called the **plan**, while the second is referred to as the interdisciplinary **planning team**.

Additionally, the planning of an agricultural or forestry production areas implies the management of a resource over the determined period of time for the purposes of producing one or more specific resources or outputs, such as timber, water, corn, or other crops, usually involving practice time-table, economic input and calculated economic gains. Planning of national parks and other wildland areas does not, and cannot, at least at this point in time, become so precise in its objective. There is usually a multitude of recourses to be considered, and many of the objectives, such as provision of opportunities for recreation and environmental education, and preservation of scenic beauty, do not easily lend themselves to a cost-benefit evaluation, as do other more tangible products of a managed area.

Whereas methods and techniques for planning agriculture, and other forms of land use and production, have been developed and are presented as part of general curricula in universities, and technical schools, methods for planning national parks and related areas have only recently received systematic study.

It is the purpose of this guide, therefore, to present the fundamental steps for planning national parks and other related areas. Other units of a protected wildland or conservation system, such as natural and cultural monuments, wildlife sanctuaries, biological reserve, recreation areas, and any other management category, can also be planned by following this guide and by making allowances for the differing management objectives for each category. This may require the outline presented to a minor degree. Generally, different types of management categories will

utilise the same outline, with more emphasis being placed on some parts of the time than on others, according to the area's particular management orientation. This is also true of Biosphere Reserves, a management category with international status, encouraged by UNESCO, which many nations have adopted. At the end of 1984, 243 Biosphere Reserves had been established in 65 countries.

This guide is based upon a synthesis of actual park planning missions in countries and in environments, which reflect the variation inherent in different park areas around the world. As with all such attempts at generalisation from specific experiences, it has been necessary to leave details and exceptions aside in order to seek the basic principle. It is hoped that the annotated examples will serve to demonstrate the application of the principles to actual field situations. The examples do not represent a complete management plan; only certain sections are presented in order to provide the basic ideas necessary for preparing a more complete document. Some of the management plan excerpts have been edited.

3.2 The Planning Process

3.2.1 What is a Management Plan?

A management plan is a document which guides and controls the management of protected area resource, the uses of the area, and the development of facilities needed to support that management and use. The plan is usually prepared to cover a long period of time, typically five years, but some times longer. Perhaps the most important part of a management plan is the statement of goals and objectives for the park wildland area. From these objectives, all development and management facilities will be derived.

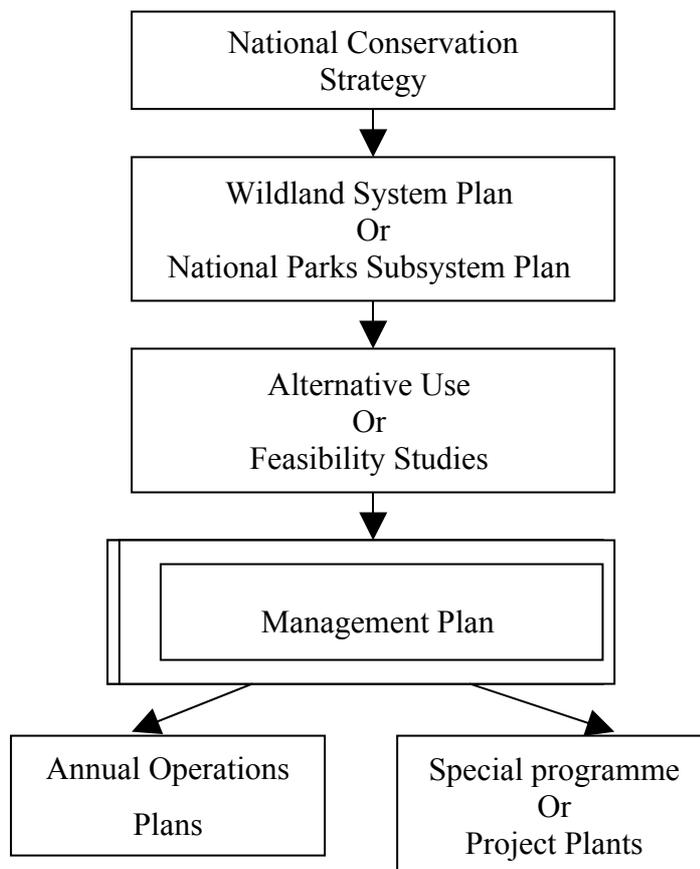
The management is only one of a series of steps involved in the comprehensive planning process required of a national system of national park or wildland areas (See Figure 1 on page 000). Yet, it is probably the most important one, as it provides the conceptual as well as practical guidance which park directors require in order to carry out effective management in the field.

Aside from its primary objectives of providing management guidelines to park directions, a management plan should also be utilised as a means of training park personnel through participation in the planning process, and also a communication tool to gain the understanding and support of both the general public and relevant government officials. Such understanding is important for obtaining the cooperation of local people and the political support for adequate funding.

In the past, park planners had referred to the document resulting from the methodology presented here as both a masterplan and a management plan. Many of the first management plans were largely conceptual in content, prepared in a few days, and served mainly to orient policy-makers and, in some cases, future planning team. However, management plans have evolved to include not only the conceptual ideas needed to guide long-range planning efforts, but also a significant amount of the detailed information which park directors will require in order to make on-the-ground decisions concerning their areas.

The plan should establish the basic framework: objectives, norms and management programmes needed to achieve long-term management and development for an area. Its time frame may cover four to ten years, depending on the situation. In some cases, when a particular aspect of park management is of significantly greater importance than other management considerations, an extremely detailed, separate action plan may be required. This occurs frequently with interpretation and specific wildlife management programmes. Nevertheless, it may be advisable to enter into some of this detail within the management plan itself, especially when subsequent planning efforts may not occur because of lack of funds, or because the trained personnel needed to prepare subsequent action plan, or to interpret and to carry out adequately the recommendations of a more conceptual management plan, is not available. Thus, the level of detail to be considered in a management plan will depend upon financial and time limitations, capabilities of the park planners, and the information available to the planners, as well as future possibilities of carrying out more specialised, detailed action plans.

FIGURE 1: MANAGEMENT PLAN WITHIN THE WILDLAND PLANNING CONTEXT



3.3 Planning Methodology

In order to keep the guide as brief as possible, it shall be assumed that the area to be planned has been designated, or is under consideration, as a park or similar area. It is assumed that alternative uses for the resources have already been considered, and that overall criteria for wildland management have been set. While several different methods for park planning are in use today, particularly in the developed countries, most follow the logical sequence of:

- a. Description of national and regional context;
- b. Description and analysis of the area's cultural resources, and socio-economic factors;
- c. Management consideration and objectives;
- d. Management programmes;
- e. Development programme.

This methodology relies upon the careful analysis of background information, which in turn serves as the basis for subsequent establishment of management guidelines. It is a logical thought process

which is compatible with the criteria promulgated by international conferences, agreements, and organisations, and has been shown to be highly effective for use by both experienced planners and those who may be commencing their planning careers.

Planning methodology is complex. It is important that the reader comprehend that, while a list of ordinate steps are presented to guide logically his way through the problem of planning the management and development of a given area, in fact it will be necessary to consider many steps on a simultaneous basis. He must not be discouraged to find that upon finalising various steps in the procedure, he will find it necessary to return and review, and, perhaps, change earlier decisions.

As experience is gained, the professional involved in park planning will become familiar with all of the aspects involved in the management, construction, maintenance, administration and budgeting related to the operation of national parks. They will become involved with protection, recreating, research, interpretation and other activities, which relate the park to people and help make it a vital element in regional development and environmental conservation. However, during the period in which experience is accumulating, it is important that the professionals related to planning carefully weigh each decision as to its implication for the future. In particular, consideration must be given to the risk involved in all human intervention in unique natural and cultural areas.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention of the Logical sequence methods of Park Planning

3.4 Planning Team

While some management plans have been produced by one individual, it has been shown that the best results are obtained through the interaction of the members of an interdisciplinary team. Team members' expertise should cover a wide variety of fields, usually including planning, forestry, society, engineering, sociology, economy, and agronomy. To a certain extent, the major field of expertise will depend upon the character of the area to be studied and the major problems to be confronted.

The ideal planning team should have between three and six members, who would comprise the core of the team and who would work full-time. Additionally, other specialists might work part-time. Where certain specialists may not be available, it has been demonstrated that professionals in related fields can cover these topic through additional reading and by carrying the responsibility during the planning sessions.

This form of role-playing is a necessary and acceptable alternative when the ideal list of candidates cannot be met. Some themes may be satisfactorily dealt with by consulting with specialists who are not a formal part of the planning team. In addition, the director of the park or other wildland area to be planned should form part of the team, and, with other park personnel, should be consulted regularly. Their knowledge of the area will be indispensable. Their involvement not only facilitates the planning process, but also serves as an important training device, familiarising them with the management plan with which they will be working later on.

In most ecotourism projects, especially those supported by WWF, a fundamental objective is improved conservation of landscapes and biodiversity. Community-based ecotourism should be seen and evaluated as just one tool in achieving this. Its role may be to:

- a) provide a more sustainable form of livelihood for local communities;
- b) encourage communities themselves to be more directly involved in conservation; and
- c) generate more goodwill toward, and local benefits from, conservation measures such as protected areas.

There need to be clear initial understanding of the relationship between local communities and the use of natural resource in the area concerned. The following are four important issues to consider:

1. What actions are currently being taken, and by whom; which are supporting or damaging the environment? A challenge for community-based ecotourism is often one of being seen to benefit sufficient numbers of people in the community to make a difference. This has implications for structures for community involvement, considered under Guideline 4.
2. What type and level of incentive might be needed to change attitudes and actions in order to achieve worthwhile conservation benefits? Could ecotourism deliver this? How does it compare with other development options, which may have worse environmental impacts?
3. What additional problems for conservation might be brought by ecotourism, as against possible gains? This might include not only development and visitor pressures but also an emphasis on certain species compared with biodiversity as a whole.

4. Could alternative sustainable livelihood options achieve the same or better results with less efforts or disruption? This requires an integrated approach to ecotourism within the context of sustainable development, as discussed further under guideline 3

3.5 Considering Whether Ecotourism is an Appropriate Option

The capacity of ecotourism to support a positive attitude toward conservation is not only achieved in proportion to direct economic benefits delivered. With many ecotourism initiatives, it has been found that simply raising awareness that there is some realisable value in wildlife and attractive landscapes has been sufficient to make a considerable difference, both within communities and also politically at regional or national level. The WWF initiative in Sabah, for example, has sought to influence the state forestry department as well as the local communities; and in Brazil the Silves Project has provided an alternative to predatory fishing.

Many local communities have a strong tradition of respect for wildlife and natural environments that need to be forested and not undermined by too much emphasis on economic value. It is important to get the balance right. Consideration of these issues at the outset should influence not only a decision about whether to proceed with the development of ecotourism but should also provide a basis for the strategy adopted for ecotourism *but should be given to some simple, achieved indicators and targets for conservation gain*. It is important to avoid spending time pursuing ecotourism and raising expectations in circumstances which are highly likely to lead to failure. An initial feasibility assessment should be made before instigating a community-based strategy.

3.6 Checking the Preconditions for Ecotourism

Some preconditions relate to the situation at a national level, others to condition in the local area. The main aspects to check are as follows:

Reasonable condition for undertaking tourism business is:

- 1) An economic and political framework which does not prevent effective trading and security of investment;
- 2) National legislation which does not obstruct tourism's income being earned by and retained within local communities;
- 3) A sufficient level of ownership rights within the local community; (*see guideline 4*):

- 4) High levels of safety and security for visitors (both in term of image of the country/region, and in reality);
- 5) Relatively low health risk and access to basic medical service and clean water supply: and
- 6) Practicable means and telecommunication to the arena.

Basic preconditions for community-based ecotourism include:

- 1) Landscape or flora/fauna which have inherited attractiveness or degree of interest to appeal either to specialists or to more general visitors;
- 2) Ecosystems that are at least able to absorb a managed level of visitation without damage;
- 3) A local community that is aware of the potential opportunities, risk and changes involved and is interested in receiving visitors;
- 4) Existing or potential structure for effective community decision-making (*see guideline 4*);
- 5) Absence of no obvious threats to indigenous cultures and traditions:

Some preconditions may be more relevant than others, depending on the local circumstances, and these may change over time. For example, in Namibia, cross-border conflict in Caprivi has seriously affected market demand in that region but action is being taken to enable promising ecotourism initiatives there to resume when the situation stabilises.

If the preconditions are met, this does not necessarily mean that ecotourism will be successful; only that it is worth proceeding to the next stage of consultation and assessment.

Checking these preconditions will require informed judgment. The concept of preconditions and fast pre-feasibility check is increasingly applied among donor agencies in the tourism field. A useful guide to this process, giving far more detail than can be attempted here, has been produced by GTZ (1999).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the reasonable conditions of tourism business.

3.7 Adopting Integrated Approach

The small scale of most community-based ecotourism initiative means that their impact, both on nature conservation and on income and employment for the community as a whole, is limited. They can be more

influential and successful if they are integrated within other sustainable development initiatives at a regional or local level.

Ecotourism can be integrated with other sectors of the rural economy, creating mutually supportive linkages and reducing financial leakage away from the area. It can also be coordinated with agriculture, in terms of the use of time and resources and in providing markets for local produce.

In principle, multiple sector activity within local communities should be encouraged. Ecotourism markets are small, seasonal and sensitive to external influences such as political changes or economic instability in the host or generating country. On the other hand, ecotourism can shield against threats to other sectors.

As well as horizontal integration within the community, the success of local ecotourism initiative may depend on vertical integration with national level initiatives, with what may already exist. Efforts should be made to influence national policies in favour of ecotourism, including coordination between tourism and the environment ministries and/or policies. National level support is needed in terms of linking conservation and tourism activities and responsibilities, appropriate legislation and assistance towards small enterprises and community initiatives, and national and international promotion. In Brazil, for example, WWF has been seeking to influence national policy as well as local capacity.

3.8 Planning Ecotourism with Communities and Other Stakeholders

At an early stage in the work on ecotourism, it is important to be aware of the work of other national and international agencies in this field and to seek mutually beneficial coordination. Involving the community is a critically important and complex subject for successful community-based ecotourism. Opportunities and solutions will vary considerably in different areas and between communities. An important principle is to seek to work with existing social and community structures, though these can create challenges as well as opportunities. It can also help to identify potential leaders and people with drive. The main objectives should be to achieve broad and equitable benefits throughout the community. Issues of gender may also be important and ecotourism can provide good opportunities for women.

Community-based ecotourism requires an understanding, and, where possible, a strengthening of the legal rights and responsibilities of the community over land, resources and development. This should apply in

particular to the tenure of community-held lands and to rights over tourism, conservation and other uses on these lands, enabling the community influence activity and earn income from tourism. It should also apply to participation in land use, planning and development control over private property.

It is important to remember that ecotourism is a business. As well as community-led initiatives, private enterprises and investments should be encouraged, where appropriate, within a structure which enables the community to benefit, and have decision-making power over the level and nature of tourism in its area.

3.9 Obtaining the Support of Visitors and Tour Operators

There are various ways in which the community can relate to private enterprises. The degree of community involvement and benefit can develop over time. For example, there are some ecotourism initiatives in the Amazon where lodges that have been built with private investment, offer a concession to the community, an agreement to hand the business over to them after a specific period, and provision for an employment and training programme for local people. Significant additional benefits can be achieved through improving communication with visitors themselves and with tour operators who bring them. These benefits include greater awareness of environmental and social issues, modifying behaviour when visiting, and generating direct support for local communities and conservation causes.

In almost all cases, the experiences of a community-based tourism programme will have an impact on how people think in future about the area and habitats they have visited. However, this can be made more less meaningful depending on the information they receive before, during and after the visit, and how it is delivered. Attention should be paid to the message put out by tour operators to their clients and to the quality of guiding and interpretation on site. A mechanism for follow-up contact should be explored. Visitors should be encouraged to ‘multiply’ their experience by writing and talking about it.

A number of codes of conduct for visitors have been produced. Some are generic, others are area - or site - specific. These tend to cover questions such as prior reading and understanding, selection of operators and destinations, respect for local cultures, minimising environmental impact, purchasing decision, activities to avoid, and conservation issues to support. Similarly, codes for tour operators cover issues such as particular environmental and cultural issues in the destination concerned, selection of sites, relationship with indigenous communities, message to put across to staff and clients, and more specific instructions

and regulations. These codes can be adapted for all ecotourism destinations.

Raising finance or other forms of support from visitors (such as participation in research) has become quite a common practice in ecotourism destinations. This is often through a levy applied by tour operators or through inviting donations. Although some operators resist this, the effect on tour prices can be relatively small. Visitors appear to applaud the opportunity to make a contribution, creating a marketing advantage for the operator. Money may be put into a local development fund. Visitors may be invited to discuss beneficiary schemes and to get to know them. These can be conservation initiatives or social programme within the community.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is important to note that, evidently little or nothing can be achieved without proper planning and gradual development of ecotourism destinations by involving the people of the local community.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed so far the planning objectives, process and methodology of ecotourism destinations, the planning team, how to adopt an integrated approach, involvement of communities and stakeholders and the need to obtain the support of visitors and tour operators.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention one of the logical sequence methods of Park Planning: Description of National and Regional contexts.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the reasonable conditions of undertaking tourism business: An economic and political framework, which does not prevent effective trading and security of investment.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

There are different methods of Park planning, Mention four of the most logical sequence of the planning methodology.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Beeton, S. 1998; *Ecotourism: A Practical Guide for Rural Communities*. Australia: Land Links Press.

Dowling, R. and D. Fannell, "The Context of Ecotourism Policy and Planning" in Fennell D.A and R. K. Dowling (eds.) 2003. *Ecotourism Policy and Planning*. Oxon: CABI Publishing (pp 1-22).

UNIT 4 GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SYSTEM AS PLANNING TOOL

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Resources for Tourism
 - 3.2 The World Scale
 - 3.2.1 Physical Features
 - 3.2.2 Land-Forms
 - 3.3 The National Scale
 - 3.3.1 Classification of Resources for Tourism
 - 3.3.2 A Broader View of Tourist Resources Base
 - 3.3.3 Evaluation of Resources for Tourism
 - 3.4 The Local Scale
 - 3.4.1 Conditions Favouring Tourism Development
 - 3.4.2 Tourist Resorts
 - 3.5 The Pleasure Periphery
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Technology now allows tourists to reach most parts of the world, yet only a small fraction of the world's potential tourist resource base is developed. One reason for this is that tourists demand attractions which are not possessed by their own place of residence. Clearly, tourism does not occur evenly or randomly in space; various types of tourism will have differing requirements for favourable growth, and certain sites, regions, or nations will be more favourable for development than others. This chapter examines tourist resources at three scales: the world, the national, and the local.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

- appreciate the nature of resources for tourism
- distinguish the methods used to classify and evaluate resources for tourism
- outline the main factors favouring the development of tourist resources

- understand the way that destinations evolve
- appreciate the need for tourism planning and sustainable development.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Resources for Tourism

Tourist resources have three main characteristics. Firstly, the concept of tourist resources refers to tangible objects that are considered of economic value to the tourism industry. The industry, and indeed the tourists, therefore has to recognise that a place, landscape or natural feature is of value before they can become tourist resources. For example, sunshine was not seen as a tourist resource until the 1920s and, with increased threat of skin cancer, may not be viewed as one in the future.

Secondly, tourist resources themselves are often not used solely by tourist. Apart from resort areas or theme parks where tourism is the dominant use of land, tourism shares use with agriculture, forestry, water management, or residents using local services. This is known as multiple uses, and needs skilful management and coordination of users to be successful. Tourism is a significant land use but rarely the dominant one.

Finally, tourist resources are perishable. Not only are they vulnerable to alternative alteration and destruction by tourist pressure, but as is common with many service industries, tourist resources are also perishable in another sense. Tourist services such as accommodation are impossible to stock and have to be consumed when and where they exist. Unused tourist resources (such as bed space) cannot be stored and will perish.

3.1.1 Planning for Tourism Resources

Tourism is attracted to unique and fragile resources around the world. In the early decades of the post-war period this was actively encouraged and many countries sought international tourism as an ideal solution to economic down turn of the time. Tourism was seen as the 'industry without chimneys' which brought economic benefits of employment, income, and development. However, the economic imperative overlooked the environmental social and cultural consequences of tourism in a number of both developed and developing countries. In part, this was due to the ease of measuring economic impacts of tourism and the difficulty of quantifying other types of impact. However, the decade of the 1990s saw environmental considerations complementing

the economic need of destinations; Consumer pressure sure shunned environmentally unsound destinations while environmental impact assessments were completed for major tourist developments. Sustainable tourism, therefore became acceptable; in other words, tourism development did not compromise the ability of future generations to enjoy tourist resources.

Tourism planning must be central to these issues. Such planning has evolved from an inflexible, physical planning approach to a flexible process, which seeks to maximise the benefits and minimise the costs of tourism. Ideally, tourism planning is based on sound research; involves the local community in seeing goals and priorities; and is implemented by the public sector in partnership with the private sector. However, despite the many approaches to tourism planning, the planning processes can be reduced to six basic questions.

- 1) What type of tourist will visit?
- 2) What is the scale of tourism?
- 3) Where will development take place?
- 4) What controls will be placed upon development?
- 5) How will development be financed?
- 6) What will be government's role?

The answers to these questions will depend, from place to place, on the government of the destinations and the importance of tourism to the economy.

Unfortunately, despite the emergence of tourism planning as a profession, plans for tourism either fail or are opposed. They may fail because either that policies change, demands change; unforeseen competitions emerge, investment is not available; or that the plan was too ambitious/inflexible. Opposition may come from the private sector who objects to planning interfering with their business, or from those who object to the cost of the process.

If tourism planning does not succeed, then the quality and integrity of the tourist resources are at risk; tourism's role in multiple land use may be threatened as other uses dominate; and the tourist suffers from a poor quality experience.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention two things that are of value in tourism.

3.2 The World Scale

3.2.1 Physical Features

The distribution of land and sea has a fundamental influence upon the world's climate and also the location of tourism. Seventy-one per cent of the earth's surface is made up of the fair oceans: the Pacific, the Atlantic, the Indian, and the Arctic with the remaining 29 per cent comprising the seven continents: Asia, Africa, North America, South America, Antarctica, Europe, and Australia (in order of descending size). The distribution of land between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres is unequal, as almost 40 per cent of the Northern Hemisphere but less than 20 per cent of the Southern Hemisphere is made up of land.

3.2.2 Landforms

The land surface of the earth is composed of a variety of landforms which can be broadly classified into four types: mountains, plateaux, hill lands, and plains. About 75 per cent of the earth's land surface is mountain or hill land. These landforms are particularly attractive for tourism development, not only for the opportunities they create for winter sports but also because the more rarefied air is clear, crisp, and ideal for walking, sightseeing, and photography. Many mountain resorts have been developed to give relief from high temperatures in the lowlands. Mountainous areas are sparsely populated and some are designated national parks for their outstanding natural features and beauty. Plateaux and plains are less scenic in beauty but are important because they house most of the world's populations. Coastal plains are ideal for resort development, providing flat areas of building land with ready access to the beach and sea.

Within each of these landform categories are features resulting from variations in the underlying rock. Volcanoes, hot springs and geysers are such group, while areas of karst limestone give rise to craters, gorges and sinkholes.

The coast has long been used for holidays and recreation throughout the world. Sandy beaches, safe bathing, and a protective backland of dunes and low cliffs encourage tourist development and a wide range of recreational activities. Islands, or groups of islands, have a particular appeal for tourism. Other features attractive to tourism include Barrier Island and spit developments, estuaries, cliffs and reefs. The world's oceans are tidal and coasts with a large tidal range or strong undertow can be dangerous and may also cause problems in building and operating equipment (boat-launching ramps or moorings). However,

although the coast is widely used for tourism, tourism often has to share use of the coast with other less attractive uses (such as oil refining). Inland water lures many visitors and acts as a focus for tourist and recreational activities. Water resources for tourism can be viewed as nodes (lakes, reservoirs), linear corridors (rivers, canals), or simply as landscape features (such as the Victoria Falls). Most activity takes place in the shallow waters near to the shore where bathing, fishing and boating encourage the development of tourist resorts and second homes. Lakes are more commonly distributed in the higher latitudes, particularly recently glaciated areas such as northern Europe and North America. Pollutions can be a problem as, unlike the tidal nature of the sea, lakes have no natural cleansing mechanism. The lakes of northern Europe are readily accessible to major population areas but many in Canada, Asia and Africa are remote. Rivers are more widely distributed than lakes and cruising on major rivers and inland waterways plays a major role in tourism. The popularity of a variety of water-based recreational activities has demanded the spatial zoning and temporal phasing of their use in some areas to avoid conflict between users. Also, tourism has to share the use of rivers with other uses which may not be compatible.

3.3 The National Scale

At the national scale, tourist development involves either finding regions to develop for tourism or, in areas already developed, alleviating problems of congestion or over-use. These activities demand accurate methods of classifying tourist resources and evaluating their potential.

3.3.1 Classification of Resources for Tourism Tourist Attraction

Attractions are *the raison d'être* for tourism; they generate the visit; give rise to excursion circuits; and create an industry of their own. The simplest approach to identifying attractions in an area is to draw up an inventory, or checklist, by defining the range of attractions, counting them, and either listing or mapping the result. Peters (1969) has classified attractions, into cultural (music, folklore), scenic (wildlife, national parks) and others (health resorts, etc.). Of course, different forms of tourism will require differing types of attraction. For example, business tourism gravitates towards major population and commercial centres which are highly accessible and ideally will have a range of other complementary attractions. Increasingly, tourist attractions and the tourist resources base in general, are suffering from increased use and need effective visitor management. This can only be achieved if tourist attractions are not considered simply as point attractions but as an integral part of the tourist resources base.

3.3.2 A Broader View of the Tourist Resources Base

One of the most useful classifications of the total resources base for tourism and recreation is that of Clawson (1966). Clawson's classification allows the inclusion of a development to wildlands and, therefore, incorporates both resources and user characteristics. Clawson's three basic categories are: 1) user-oriented areas of highly intensive development close to population centres; 2) resources-based areas where the type of resource determine the use of the area; and 3) an intermediate category. As with most classifications, the reality is a continuum rather than a series of discrete classes (see Table 3.1).

Another way of viewing resources, related to Clawson's ideas, is to classify them into reproducible (can be replaced – theme parks, resorts) and non reproducible (they cannot be replaced-elements of the natural and cultural heritage).

A second broad classification is that proposed by the Outdoor Recreation Resource Review Commission (ORRRC) of the USA. The system classifies areas according to physical resource characteristics, level of development, management and intensity of use. Six classes are produced ranging from high-density intensively used areas to sparsely used primitive areas.

Table 3.1 Clawson's classification of recreation resources

User oriented	Intermediate	Resource-based
Based on whatever resources are available. Often man-made/artificial development (city parks, pools, zoos etc). Highly-intensive developments close to users in large population centres. Focus of user pressure. Activities include golf, tennis, picnicking, walking, riding, etc. Often highly seasonal activities, closing in off-peak	Best resources available within accessible distance to users. Access very important. More natural resources than user-oriented facilities but experience a high degree of pressure and wear. Activities include camping, hiking, picnicking, swimming, hunting, and fishing.	Outstanding resources. Primary focus is resource quality with low-intensity development and man-made facilities at a minimum. Often distant from users, the resource determines the activity (sightseeing, scientific and historic interest, hiking, mountain-climbing, fishing and hunting)

3.3.3 Evaluation of Resources for Tourism

Measurement of the suitability of the resource base to support different forms of tourism is known as resource evaluation. The main problem here is to include the varied requirements of different users. For example, pony-trekkers need rights of way, footpaths or bridleways, and attractive scenery. Combination of these various needs is the aim of a

resource evaluation system which is often tabulated into a matrix or put onto data cards, each one of which relates to a location.

3.4 The Local Scale

3.4.1 Conditions Favouring Tourism Development

For the tourist resource base to be developed, someone, or some organization, has to act. These agents of development can be either in the private or the public (government) sector.

The public sector is involved not only in tourist development at the local scale but at all levels, including the international scale. Typically at the national and international level, involvement is with planning and coordination of tourism development. At the local scale, the public sector is likely to be involved in encouraging and providing tourist development. Normally, because of the scale and extent of development the public sector takes on the responsibility for providing the initial tourist infrastructure. Infrastructure includes all tourist development on and below ground such as roads, parking areas, railway lines, harbours, airports and runways as well as the provision of amenities.

Private sector developers typically take on the responsibility of providing the tourist superstructure, including accommodation, entertainment, shopping, facilities, restaurants and passenger transport terminals. Clearly, these development tasks reflect the motives of the two sectors: the private sector looks for profit and a return on investment; while the public sector is anxious to provide an environment conducive to tourist development.

At the local scale, accessibility is a vital consideration for tourist developments, especially for business travel. For successful tourist development, access from the major tourist-generating area is vital and may be a deciding factor in the success of the development. Resorts in the Mediterranean owe their success to their proximity to the major tourist markets.

Other factors favouring the development of tourist resources at the local scale include land availability; suitable physical site attributes (soil, topography, etc), and a favourable planning environment with zoning for tourist development. Many governments may also actively encourage tourist development by providing finance at generous rates.

3.4.2 Tourist Resorts

At the local scale, development of tourist resources leaves a distinctive imprint upon the landscape. Nowhere is this clearer than in the resort landscapes of the developed world. Indeed, in Western Europe alone over four hundred resorts can be identified and Lavery (1971) has classified them into eight basic types, based on their function and the extent of their hinterland.

Resort townscapes have distinctive morphology and blend of services catering for the visitor. Typically, a concentration of tourist-oriented land building uses is found adjacent to the main focus of visitor attraction (beach, lake, or falls). This area of tourist-related functions is termed the recreational business district (RED) and its nature will vary with the type of resort and the predominant tourist use. The RED develops under the twin influences of the major access route into the resort and the location of the central tourist feature. For example, in seaside resorts, the RED often develops parallel to the coast with a promenade (boardwalk in the USA), a road, and a first block of premier accommodation and shops.

The development of resorts over time is an important consideration for tourist geographers. Butler (1980) has suggested a tourist area life-cycle where resorts evolve from discovery through development to eventual decline. Although the life-cycle approach has its critics – who feel it is difficult to operationalise – the main utility of the approach is as a way of thinking about resorts, an explanatory framework for their development, and as a means of integrating supply-side developments with the evolving market of a resort. After all, the type of tourist who visit at introduction will be very different from that visiting in consolidation or decline. The tourist area life-cycle is as follows:

Exploration: A small number adventurous tourists, main attraction is unspoilt nature or cultural features.

Involvement: Local initiatives provide facilities and some advertising ensues. Larger numbers of visitors, a tourist season, and public sector involvement follows.

Development: A large number of tourists and control passes from locals to national or international companies. The destination begins to change in appearance. Over-use may begin.

Consolidation: The destination is now a fully-fledged part of the tourist industry – the rate of increase of visitors is reducing. A recognisable recreational business district has emerged.

Stagnation: Peak visitor numbers have been reached and the destination is unfashionable with environmental, social and economic problems. Major promotional efforts are needed to maintain visitor numbers.

Decline: Visitors now visit newer, rural resorts as the destination goes into decline. It is dependent on a smaller geographical catchment and repeat visits.

Rejuvenation: Here, the authorities attempt to ‘relaunch’ the destination by providing new facilities, attracting new markets and re-investing.

3.5 The Pleasure Periphery

Different forms of tourism obviously demand different blends of resources, but certain generalisation can be made. Christaller (1963) has stated that tourism avoids central places and agglomerations of industry and is drawn instead to the coastal or mountain peripheries of settlement districts. For example, Western Europe is ringed by a ‘pleasure periphery’ of resorts about two hours or less of flying time from their main markets.

Winter-sports tourism also fits Christaller’s statement. It requires good snow cover and hilly terrain; thus most ski developments are in peripheral location to major population areas-in Northern Europe (the Alps, Pyrenees, Andes), and Colorado in the USA. Obviously, not all tourism fits Christaller’s generalization: exceptions include tourism in capital cities, historical and cultural centres, and some health and spa tourism. However, the generalisation is useful and goes some way towards explaining tourism’s value as a regional development tool in the peripheral areas of many countries where tourism is, and often can be, the only significant employer and user of local resources.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What do different forms of tourism demand?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Geographical information is very vital to the knowledge of planning and management of tourism generally. The world natural resources are never evenly distributed. This is the reason why some areas of the world attract more tourists than others.

5.0 SUMMARY

Certain factors favour the development of tourist information and resources and this explains why the world pattern of tourism supply is uneven. Developed tourist resources are cultural appraisals considered by society to be of economic value. They are usually shared with other users and are both fragile and perishable. As the negative impacts of tourism are realised, tourism planning for resources will become vital. Planning aims to minimise the costs of tourism and to maintain the integrity of the resource base. At the world scale, physical features are key factors influencing tourist development. Of the range of physical features in the world, coasts, mountains, and inland water are the most popular locations for tourist development.

At the national scale, classifications of tourist attractions which include the whole tourist resource base are useful. Evaluations of the potential of the resource base to satisfy tourists' demands allow possible future areas for recreation and tourism to be identified. These valuations can then be applied to the local scale where resultant resort developments have a distinctive morphology and mix of services functions. It is also possible to identify a cycle of resort development. These factors have led to the development of tourism peripheral to large population centres and a concentration of tourism in mountain and coastal areas.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Mention 2 things that are of value in tourism – landscape, natural feature, a place.

ANSWER TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What does different forms of tourism demands? Different forms of tourism obviously demands different blends of resources.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention and discuss briefly two tourist area life cycle.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS.

Boniface, B. and C. Cooper, 1987. *The Geography and Travel of Tourism*. Heinemann, London.

Burkart, A.J. and S. Medlik, 1981. *Tourism, Past, Present and Future*. Heinemann, London.

UNIT 5 ECOTOURISM PROJECTS IN NIGERIA

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content**
 - 3.1 Nigeria's Garden of Eden (The Yankari Game Reserve)
 - 3.1.1 Warm springs
 - 3.1.2 Elephant
 - 3.1.3 Water Bucks
 - 3.1.4 Buffaloes
 - 3.1.5 Baboons
 - 3.1.6 Historical Sites
 - 3.1.7 The Museum/ Souvenir Shop
 - 3.2 The Tinapa
 - 3.3 The Obudu Cattle Ranch
 - 3.3.1 Other Tourist Attractions
 - 3.4 The Argungu Festival
 - 3.5 La Campagne Tropicana Beach Resort
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Among the notable ecotourism projects in Nigeria are the 8-gazetted National Parks in Nigeria. In this unit, we shall discuss just one of them i.e. the Yankari Game Reserve as an example of one of the National parks. In addition to the National Park, we shall discuss briefly the Tinapa and Obudu Cattle Ranch, both in Cross River States as typical examples of ecotourism projects in Nigeria. We shall also discuss the Argungu Fishing Festival and, of course, the La Campagne Tropical Beach.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

After reading through this unit, you would have had an appreciable knowledge about ecotourism projects in Nigeria.



Figure 1 (a)

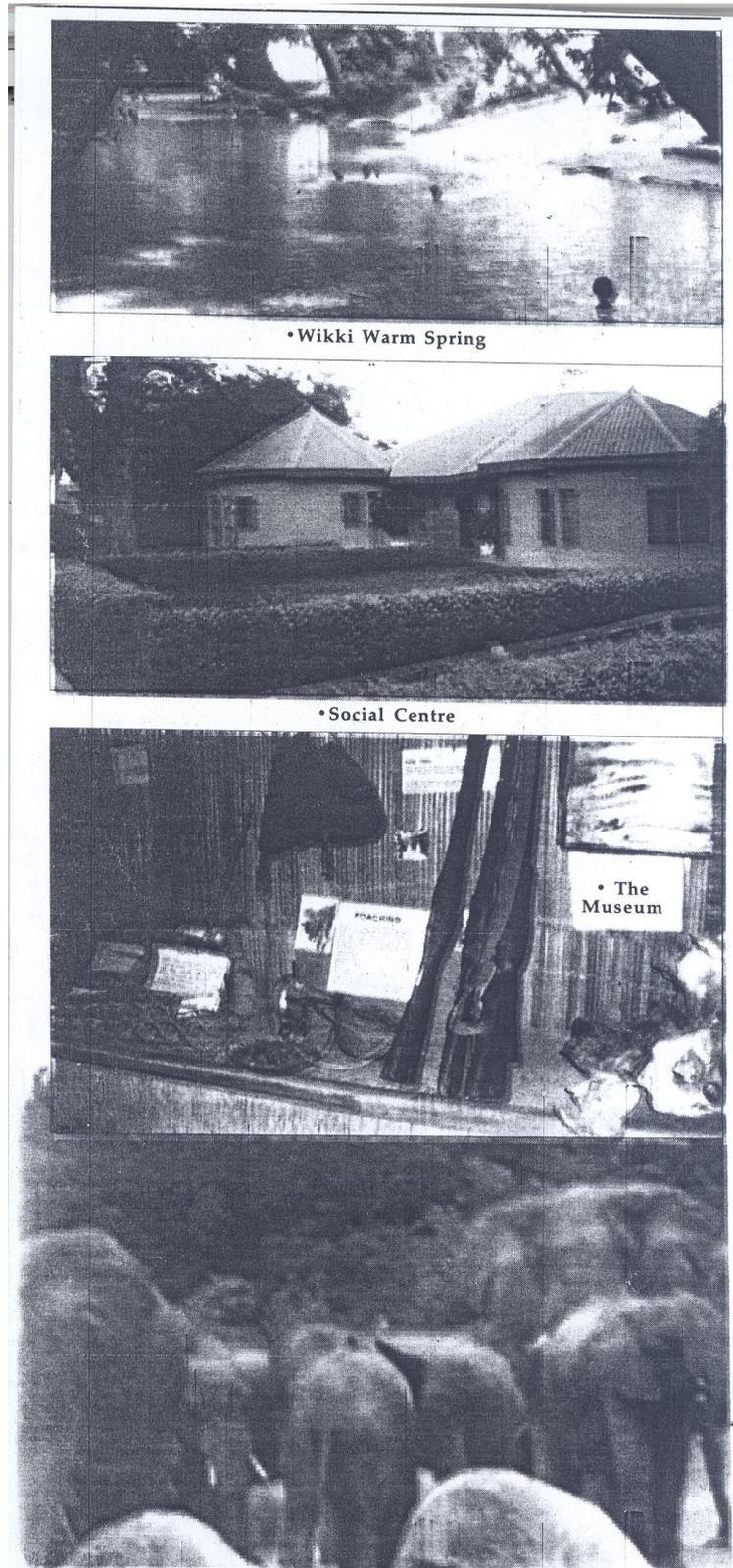


Figure 1 (b)

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Nigeria's Garden of Eden (The Yankari Game Reserve)

Yankari Game Reserve (formerly the Yankari National Park) is a naturally perfect enclave where any person who desires a serene environment to relax, seek fun, experience a blissful honeymoon, study nature or seek refuge from the hustle and bustle of city life, can satisfy his quest.

Locked inside the deep jungle of Alkaleri Local Government in Bauchi State, the natural endowment on which the Federal Government and the government Bauchi State have spent substantial resources, is unique.

Legally constituted as a Game Reserve in 1956 by the defunct Northern Nigeria Government, the Reserve was opened to the Public on December 1st 1962. It was then managed by the North-Eastern State Government before it was transferred to the Federal Government as a National Park in 1967. Finally, the Bauchi State Government under Alhaji Adamu Mu'azu, got it back for the state with a promise of visible development and noticeable enhancement of the facilities.

The various managements did their best at making sure that visitors to Yankari Game Reserve had access to facilities that would enhance utmost consummation of their objective inside the forest.

Though the road that leads to the Game Reserve is not smoothly motorable, the state government has) undertaken massive construction and rehabilitation of the facilities as an assurance to the people and tourists.

A tour of the park is a life-long experience and the management is always ready to ensure that visitors get value for their money.

Yankari has in its bowels over 70 chalets (which are being re-constructed), catering services, video hall, camping ground conference hall, restaurant, confectionery stores, health bay, a Governor's Lodge and a Presidential Building.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

When was Yankari Game Reserve 1st Legally Constituted?

3.1.1 Warm Springs

Yankari Game Reserve is blessed with four springs. Three: (Wikki, Mawuglo and Gwana are warm while one Dimil, is cold.

The most famous of them all is the Wikki Warm Spring, which gushes out from underneath a limestone escarpment surrounded by vegetation that boost the ecosystem.

The Spring offers an excellent bathing facility which is situated in a gorge immediately below the camp. The water is pure, crystal clear and free from all reptiles and fishes. It is 1.9m deep and 1.3m wide, and flows at the rate of 100 million litres daily. It has a constant temperature of 31.1⁰C.

3.1.2 Elephants

The Game Reserve harbours the African Elephants which are in two categories: the short-nosed and the long-curved tusk species.

The largest elephants in Yankari are about three meters tall at the shoulder and some of the fully groomed ones weigh over 7 tonnes.

3.1.3 Water Bucks

You cannot miss these animals in Yankari. They are always found grazing on the lush grass. Most of these antelopes are so huge that you can mistake them for cows.

3.1.4 Buffaloes

Another band of animals common in Yankari are the buffaloes. A fortunate visitor at the right time can see up to 200 buffaloes, though with different colours; some are pale brown and others black. Their horns also vary in both shape and size.

3.1.5 Baboons

In Yankari, the set of animals that welcome you to the Game Reserve are the Baboons. They are often referred to as *Area Boys*. Because of the way they behave, they are very troublesome. They try to intimidate of taste you, but they do not harm you. You cannot miss them.

3.1.6 Historical Sites

There are many historical sites inside Yankari Game Reserve. Among these are Marshal Caves (5 caves dug in sandstones); the 132 Dukkey

Wells (reported to have served as water storage facilities for slave traders who made the place a transit camp during the 19th century slave trade); and the Ampara Ancient Iron Smelting Furnace.

3.1.7 The Museum/Souvenir Shop

For the inquisitive tourist, Yankari has a museum which is equipped with more than one thousand samples of animals and birds found in the Reserve. There is also the souvenir shop where one can purchase exclusive souvenirs of the Yankari Game Reserve.

However, there is a great transformation going on inside the Game Reserve: many of the old chalets are giving way to a set of modern architectural designs.

The former Governor of Bauchi State, Alhaji Adamu Mu'azu, lived up to his avowed promise of turning Yankari Game Reserve into an Eldorado. Nigerians and foreign tourists now scramble to visit the reserve and romance with nature.

With the massive construction, renovation and rehabilitation going on at Yankari Game Reserve, Nigeria's *Garden of Eden* has been turned around so that you can give yourself a perfect break from the stress of the city.

The elephants, antelopes, buffaloes, the big and massive water bucks and the baboons, the Wikki Warm Spring, the historical sites, and many more, make Yankari Game Reserve a place to visit.



Figure 2

3.2 The Tinapa

“There is a palpable feeling of fulfillment. You are happy you have delivered a baby, but you are now expectant again about the future of the baby. It’s a never-ending story. Yes we are happy that we have brought it to reality. The child has been born out of the womb but again you’ve got to nurture (him/her) to maturity... The concept is to make it to work. That to us is the challenge” “With this declaration, Doanld Duke, the then governor of Cross River State, savoured the joy of

delivering Project Tinapa on schedule and set the tone for the next phases of the most ambitious project ever embarked upon by a state government in Nigeria.

Not many people gave him a chance of success. Some bits favoured him but the odds weighed heavily against him: humble federal allocation and a near-zero internal revenue portfolio could not foot the cost; most politicians in our clime never deliver on their promises, so most Nigerians have grown the wisdom not to trust them, let alone stake an investment on them. But Duke performed well, provided leadership where it counts mattered and created the necessary trust that investors needed to buy into Project TINAPA. The world is ready to come to TINAPA. Money-spinning project worth a staggering N50billion stands ready for business.

The vision for TINAPA did not come by a sudden flight. It predated Duke's government. The urge began way back in 1996, three years before he became governor of the state. "We thought that it was right to have a vision of what we would like to achieve and define where we wanted to take our state, or at least start a process," Duke recalls. So, he purposed in his heart to create opportunities for Cross Riverians to legitimately earn a decent living through employment.

Duke and his think-tank narrowed down to two areas where they believed their state has a comparative advantage –agriculture and tourism. "That exercise," he explains, "gave us a clear focus as to how to approach governance." He began with agriculture. Cross River's expanse of rich arable land, good rainfall and fine weather make it a natural food basket. To further enhance this, the government embarked on policies and programmes targeted at assisting farmers to have optimum harvest as well as realise good returns for their products, especially pineapple. This stimulated interest in agro-allied cottage industries.

It was in tourism, however, that Duke and the state found their elements. In this sector, he reconfigured and redirected his people's natural inclination to leisure into a viable and vibrant economy. Cross River has 24 natural tourist sites, including the famous Obudu Cattle Ranch Resort. But Duke still found there was a 'missing' link'. The state is at the south-east border, so they can explore the different sights and sounds of Cross River. "The state already has a free trade zone to activate things," reasoned Duke, "and so the concept of TINAPA came into being."

TINAPA was initially designed to be a huge leisure park, like Sun City in South Africa, but a feasibility study by KPMG advised differently. It

recommended rather, that the state should grow tourism as a business, then gradually graduate it to leisure and entertainment. In line with this concept, TINAPA was built around business tourism. Duke and his strategists equally concluded, after studying the expenditure patterns of most rich Nigerians, that what takes them out of the country is not leisure and recreation but shopping. So, why not provide them at home the environment and products they seek abroad, at perhaps even cheaper cost? “That, essentially, is the origin (of TINAPA),” he says.

Now sure of where he was headed and knowing the revenue profile of the state, Duke set to work, building confidence, seeking partners and investors. Experts say that the marketing strategy for TINAPA was the most efficient and effective campaign ever executed for any Nigerian product. Both the international and local media, were rigorously mobilised to market TINAPA. This courageous investment paid off as it yielded the needed local and offshore investors and partners.

Of the N50 billion invested in TINAPA at completion, the movie studio alone cost a tidy N5 billion or 10% of the total cost. And of the N45 billion invested in other programmes of the projects, the Cross River State government has an equity of N9 billion which it deployed into the provision of basic infrastructure. The sum of N36 billion was invested by both foreign and local entrepreneurs. About 13 Nigerian banks, led by UBA, are partners in TINAPA. Even the Rivers State government showed confidence in the project by investigating N1 billion for the Rivers people. A N1.4 billion support funding came from the ECOWAS Regional Development Fund. To reciprocate this confidence, Duke set up standard structures to operate TINAPA to reassure investors and remove it from the drawbacks of government bureaucracy. The TINAPA Business Resorts Limited was incorporated with a five-member board chaired by Festus Odimegwu, former managing director Nigerian Breweries Plc. Other members of the Board included Sam Anani, as managing director; Ahmed Dasuki, a director of MTN Nigeria; Kunle Elebute, senior partner at KPMG; and Arnold Mayer, representing the facility managers, Broll Consultants.

With all the logistics in place, the actualisation of TINAPA began. Most of the over 2000 guests at the grand opening ceremony on Monday April 2, 2007 may not believe that the magic complex they were beholding was a lush rubber plantation in 2004. It was 250 hectares of rubber trees and slopy terrain cascading down to a forbidding swamp, a tidal overflow from the Calabar River, which is today a magnificent tidal lake ready for the adventurous and the sporty.

TINAPA is an engineering marvel. It has over 9.6 kilometres of reinforced concrete pilling – 40 metres deep in some places, and 30

metres in others. It has over 12 km of storm water drainages reticulated together over 29.000 metric cubes of concrete works. The reticulation system for mechanical and electrical cabling is equally enormous run on to “the rough excavating”.

The rough excavations of rule soil. The reluctant rubber trees, the swamp and uncooperative landscape have given way to the magic and marvel of TINAPA.

The first phase of the TINAPA constitutes about 80 per cent of the project while the second, third and fourth phases constitute only 20 per cent and will be private-sector driven. The first phase is a mix of business and leisure. The entertainment area comprises the eight cinema halls, which will feature 24 hours daily varieties of films across global and local cultures. They have the capacity to seat 1,915 viewers. There are two casinos of international standard where patrons from all over the world will try to match the record of Las Vegas.

Also in the entertainment sector is the tidal lake where interested patrons can do water sports, including skating. The lake is fed by the water from the Calabar River; the more adventurous visitors can up their act into the Calabar River, which is being dredged to take larger vessels.

By the bank of the lake is the Fisherman Village. Built in an artificial beach, it is a reproduction of a typical coastal village in the creeks of the Niger Delta. It is built on stilts with bamboos, a traditional riverside architecture. For Nigerians keen on local delicacies this village would offer the best of such delicacies as well as promote and sell local cultural artifacts, display local music, drama and simulate the numerous native festivals.

Apart from all these, the flagship of the entertainment sector might end up being TINAPA Movies Studios, popularly called ‘Nollywood Nigeria’. Completed at the cost of N5 billion. It is a one-stop studio where films can be conceptualised, shot, produced and marketed. It is the first of its kind in Africa and is targeted at the very promising Nigerian movie industry. At full strength, it would have seven buildings. One will be a block of offices for make-up artists, actors and actresses and a cafeteria. One building is for storage, another for offices for site management, and for a reception with a cafeteria and a lot of attractions, including Hollywood sculptures. There are three other buildings which are for other functions.

Next to the movies studios are the water park and leisure rides, which are a major feature of **Tinapa**. It is a water resources area with waterslides, swimming pools and weight machines, big enough to

compare with those of Sun City. A soft driving range and a golf park are also being developed.

In the business area are the large emporiums and line shops. While the emporiums are suitable for big global and local operators, the line shops are suitable for everybody's use. To support the emporiums are four large warehouses of about 18,000 square metres, each, where bulk buyer will be serviced. They are close to a trailer park where trucks awaiting their turns to load will queue.

To power the whole **Tinapa** now is an integrated power project, IPP, until the Federal Government's new 320MW power station in Cross River, is ready. Currently, the station generates 6.4MW, which will be gradually increased to 12.8MW and to 16MW to serve the entire phases of the project.

Doing business in TINAPA will be a dynamic interactive activity. There is something in it for everyone. Walmart, Shoprite, Aspamda and Flamingo- are occupying the emporiums which cover about 10,000 m² of shop space each. The cost ranges from \$75 to \$200 per m². It costs between \$5 and \$6 million to rent an emporium. Acknowledging that this might not come easy for the average local retailer to take full advantage of TINAPA, the state government secured a \$3m grant facility to which the state government would add the matching fund of another \$3 million to have a \$6 million portfolio available for the serious local business persons who want to participate in TINAPA.

Nearly all types of business shall operate in TINAPA. The idea is to make TINAPA the Dubai of Africa. All goods from diary to household items will be on sale. The global brands are hoping to feed the West African markets from TINAPA.

The success of TINAPA is predicated on the special status granted it by the federal government as a free trade zone. That means that activities in the resort will be tax-free.

Even without the take-off, TINAPA, has succeeded in objective of putting food on people's tables through the provision of jobs. Tourism has multiplied job opportunities in the state and made Cross River a destination of choice in business and tourism. The hospitality industry in Calabar has reached an all-time peak with hotel occupancy rate rising up to 80 per cent on the average, and peaking at 100 per cent, during weekends. This has inspired people to convert their residences to guesthouses, with existing hotels expanding their facilities while, new ones are springing up.

It is estimated that at least 5.000 hotel rooms would be required to cope with the tourism explosion, which targets 1.5 to 3million visitors annually, with TINAPA coming on stream. Hotels are one major employers of labour, but their wages here are low, despite the large patronage. The government may have to legislate a minimum wage for the hospitality industry to protect the rights of its workers, most of whom work a minimum of 12hours daily without any overtime payment.

It is not only the hospitality industry that is experiencing a boom. Aviation, too, has never had it so good. In 1999, Calabar had only two flights weekly. It was only the defunct Nigerian Airways and later ADC Airlines that flew the unproductive route. But with TINAPA tourism initiative, there are now six flights out of Calabar daily. Today, Arik, Virgin Nigeria, and Aero contractors – operate four flights out of Lagos and two out Abuja to Calabar daily. Previously, Virgin was doing three flights weekly, but it now operates daily.

With TINAPA expected to add about three million visitors to Cross River state annually, this is sure to increase the income profile of every productive adult, including commercial motorcyclists who are now decked in the state's colours of blue and white, adding style and standard to the once-derided business.

Across the state and in neighbouring states. Tinapa will have a ripple effect on tourism. Primarily, it is expected to attract visitors who will then be introduced to the 24 other tourism sites in the state – the waterfalls the wildlife, cultural artifacts, the forests and, of course, the Obudu cattle, Ranch Resort. Cross River State Tourism Bureau is the regulatory body for tourism in the state. The three pillars of tourism in are the environment, the community and stakeholders in a productive synergy.

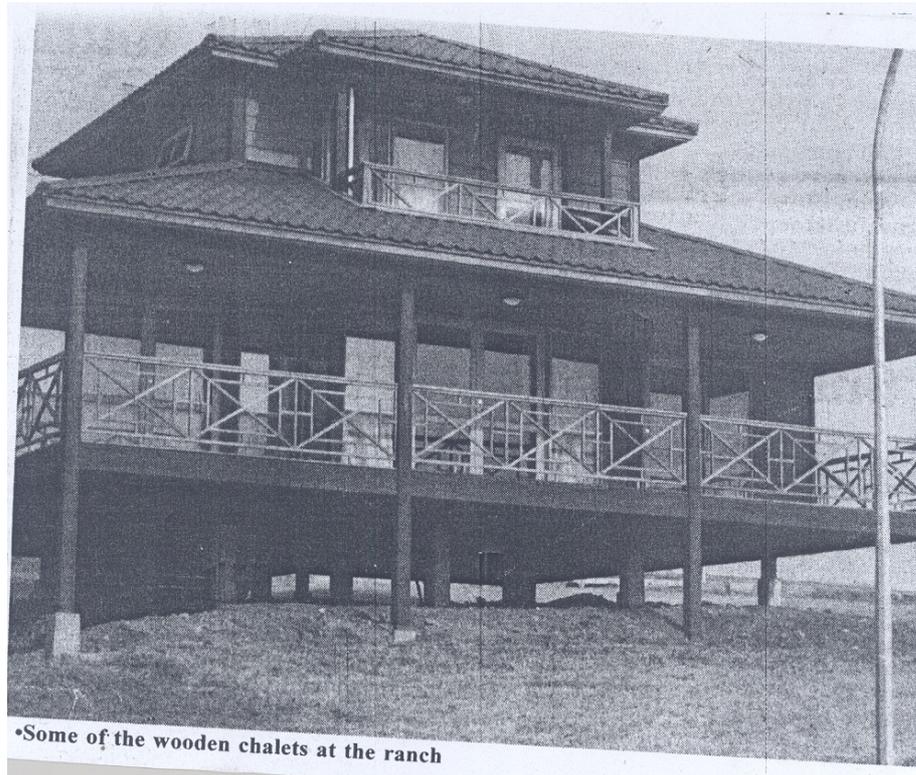


Figure 3(a)



Figure 3 (b)

3.3 The Obudu Cattle Ranch

The Ranch Resort is regarded as a leading tourist destination in Nigeria today. TINAPA is planned to multiply this several times over. Located on the plateau of Obudu Hill, 1,576 metres above sea level, it is a paradise in the clouds. The menu of the resort has been expanded to include the cable cars which take visitors from the foot of the hill to the

plateau. The natural springs, the sporty animals and birds of many colours complete a refreshing tourist haven worth every expense to get there. From only 16 chalets before 1999, the government of Donald Duke, has expanded the number to 160 quality chalets under the management of the world-class Protea Hotels. Now the ranch hosts a lot of events, including an annual international athletics competition sponsored by MTN Nigeria.

3.3.1 Other Tourist Attractions

Part of the innovation to Cross Rivers' tourism menu is the now famous Christmas Festival, which lasts for the whole of December high point of this festival is the carnival, modelled after the famous Brazilian carnival that draws tourists from across the world. Part of the financial fallout is that all hotels are fully booked right from October for the month of December as more Nigerians now prefer to spend Christmas in Calabar.

Another attraction is the ecosystem. There are four ecological zones in Cross River State – the mangrove forests, swamp forests, lowland forest and the savannah woodlands. Conservation International considers it one of Africa's biodiversity hotspots, home to 85 tree species, 68 genera and 26 families of endangered species. Out of the 23 primate species found in Nigeria, 20, or 86 per cent, live here. Similarly, many species of rare birds are found in the forest of northern Cross River. The state, according to conservationists has the highest biodiversity of butterflies in Africa. The legendary mangroves of Cross River estuary rank the fourth largest in the world and the most undisturbed mangrove ecosystem in West Africa.

In aquatic wealth, Cross River ranks great. The Cross River Basin is home to 165 fish species, 41 families and 97 genera of fresh water and marine intrusive components.

15 Wednesday, 10 January, 2006



Figure 4

3.4 Argungu Festival: Matan Fada fish once human

Musket shots ring out, drums throb, and then thousands of fishermen surge forward under a hazy blue sky as black-uniformed policemen scurry away with shouts of “They’re coming.” The annual Argungu Cultural Fishing Festival includes a variety of events over several days. Musa Kahita holds up a duck after winning the wild duck-catching competition and Murtala Gudado paddles to victory in the pot-swimming competition.

More than 10,000 competitors splash into the muddy Matan Fada stream in teams of two - one carrying gourds, the other a fishing net in each hand - and begin scouring the water for huge freshwater fish.

Their brown and white hand-nets flap over the water of the River Niger tributary like a flock of enormous butterflies while drums beat out a pulsating rhythm.

As fishermen grasp at slippery four-foot Nile perch, the crowd on shore pushes forward, watching them carry their writing catches to the bank. There, they are met by traditional horseback guards of the Sultan of Sokoto – dressed in pink, red and green robes – who escort them to present the fish to dignitaries sitting under shaded canopy.

The fisherman with a winning catch gets a prize. The victor wins a minibus and ₦150,000, about (\$1,087) in cash – a huge sum in a country where most people must get by on incomes of less than a dollar a day.

The Nigerian government plans to turn this extravaganza into a big tourist event. But for now, the festival seems suited to only the most intrepid tourists. Even getting in presents dangers. Armed police and the Sultan's guards hold spectators back from the main gate, raising clubs and whips threateningly when the entrance is inched to let in some dignitaries.

And along the riverside, scuffles regularly erupt when guards force fishermen to carry their catches to the audience of suited politicians and robed Islamic rulers. Contestant complains they often are forced to sell their catches to the dignitaries at below-market prices.

In a country best known for its oil resources, periodic ethnic fighting and widespread corruption that keeps most of its 140 million people in poverty, Nigerians feel the festival is something to be proud of. An official inspects the catch during the Argungu cultural fishing festival in Northern Nigeria. The winning perch weighed in at 165 pounds. It symbolises “peace and unity, and it will help Nigeria to promote its Tourism Board in nearby sokoto State.

The Argungu fishing competition started in the 1930s, to seal peace between traditional enemies; namely, the old Kebbi Empire, where Argungu town is located and the Sokoto Caliphate to the north.

In the early 18th Century, Sokoto's ruler, Shehu Usman dan Fodio, had stormed Kebbi Empire during a jihad and seized a village that he renamed Argungu. The name was derogatory meaning “those foolish people” in Hausa language.

Differences are, however, put aside at the raucous fishing festival. But participants, such as 42-year-old fisherman, Mohammed Ruwa, do not come just for fun. Winning prize money would help “feed and take care of my family,” says the fisherman who resides at a region where most people travel by donkey or camel and live in mud brick dwelling built on piled stones.

Although the people of the state are predominantly Muslim, and the state is one of 12 Northern Nigerian states that adopted the Islamic Sharia criminal code in 1999, traditional mystical beliefs still thrive.

According to Umar, many residents and people of Argungu town believe that the fishes in the Matan Fada were once human beings. Ancestors turn people into fish, the tale goes, and eat them to satisfy a need for human blood

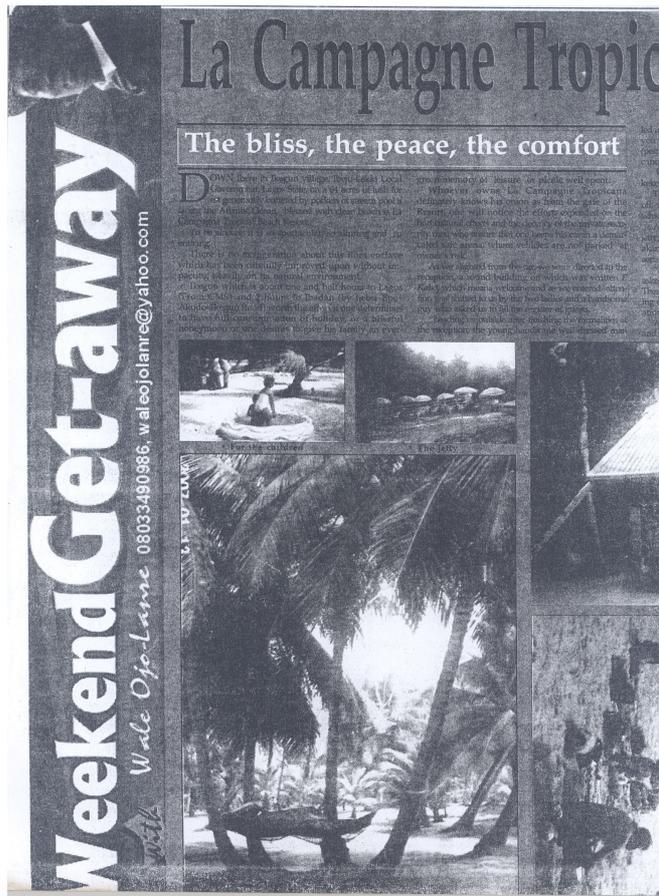


Figure 5

3.5 La Campagne Tropicana Beach Resorp

La Campagne Tropicana Beach resort is located in Ikegun village, Lekki Local Government of Lagos state. It sits on a 64 acres of Lush vegetation over looking the Atlantic Ocean, blessed with clean beach. This flora enclave is so spectacular, so alluring and so enticing. It has been carefully improved without impacting heavily on its natural environment.

Ikegun is about one and a half hours to Lagos and about two hours to Ibadan (by Ijebu-Epe-Akodo-Ikegun Road). With the effort if you determine to have fully consummation of a holiday, or a blissful honeymoon or to give your family an evergreen memory of leisure or picnic well spent. As from the gate of the Resort you will notice the efforts expended on the horticultural effect and the decency of the private security men who ensure that keep your car in demarcated safe arena. We were intrigued: Where vehicles are not parked at owner’s risk.

As we alighted from the car, directed to the reception, around building on which was written Ekaabo, which means welcome? As we entered, attention was shifted to us by the two ladies and a gentleman who asked us to fill out the register of guests.

After completing the formalities at the reception, we were led outside by the young, well dressed man. He asked to know by what means we would want to go to the beach. We had to choose between the four Keke Napep (motorcycle) taticabs and cause.

My colleagues opted to go by the Keke Napep, while I chose to go by the canoe. Those who favoured taxi were driven off, while I was escorted out to the jetty which was just outside the gate. As we walked along the path to the jetty we stopped at some kiosks where *akara*, groundnuts *adun* and other desserts were displayed. I wondered if my colleagues saw these items of snacks.

“How much are we paying for this?” I asked. The young man quickly replied. No, it is free. These are African desserts as what is being created here is a typical African situation”

At the jetty, we got into the canoe. The canoe-man livened up the journey with melodious African song. it went like this “Alakit, alakit kin...

The canoe experience was very interesting: the canoe-man apart from singing, constantly pointed us to the various paths, “that is the Lions path” the other one is the Elephants’ road, the one over there is the way for the buffalos”.

One thing fascinated us: the lush, evergreen and serene forest most especially the tall coconut trees which dominated the beach. They were a sight to behold.

Off the canoe, we were led through a path into the bowel of the Resort, where we were confronted with ingenuity, dream and taste displayed in beautiful designs. Dense green foliage, trees, creepers, amidst beautiful chalets with penthouse in diagonal shapes, all welcomed us into the scenic beauty buried inside the forest.

These are tastefully furnished chalets are in duplexes with the ground floor having the living room, convenience, kitchen and dining while the upper floor harbours two bedrooms with a big window through which guests could watch how the currents play with the sea and hug the shore.

At the front of one of the chalets are the swimming pool, one for the adult and the other, an artificial inflatable one for children. There are over 12 of these chalets which dot the upper part of the Resort. The Resort is well packaged with all the structures made of wood and other local building materials.

On the Resort are two big stages where musicians can perform while two deejay booths, a raised wooden restaurant, a football pitch, volley ball courts, massage rooms, hanging beds, table tennis court, Jacuzzi children entertainment house, picnic ground, sports hall and other facilities. Also there are small pools where water sporting activities can be gleefully carried out.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Since the Federal government of Nigeria has pronounced, or given tourism a 'preferred' status sector of the economy, many eyes are on tourism and it seems as the main focus of diversifying away from crude oil, several tourism projects had been embarked upon with the hope that something good will come out

5.0 SUMMARY

So far in this unit, we have discussed the Yankari Game Reserve, The TINAPA, Obudu Cattle Ranch, The Argungu Fishing Festival and The La Campagne Tropicana Beach Resort.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Write out at least 2 sentences about the following in Obudu Cattle Ranch

1. The fright,
2. The Cable care and
3. The weather

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Falade, G.O. 2000 Understanding Tourism in Nigeria JIS Printing Press, Bodija Ibadan.

Tell Magazine, April 19, 2007 (pp 28-33)

Wale Ojo – Lance 2007. The Nigerian Tribune, 14 January (pp 22-23)

Wale Ojo Lanre 2006. The Nigerian Tribune, Wednesday 10 January, (p. 13)

Wale Ojo Lanre 2007 The Nigerian Tribune, February 3, (p. 37)

Wale Ojo Lanre 2007. The Nigerian Tribune, Sunday 21 January, (p. 28 & 29).