

Introduction

Responsible Tourism in Southern Africa

Anna Spenceley

Sustainable and responsible tourism

Sustainable development

Development is a process that improves living conditions (Bartelmus, 1986) by increasing wealth (Dudley, 1993), and also by addressing human and institutional change (Hapgood, 1969). However, development is also associated with a number of environmental problems, such as pollution and climate change (Horobin and Long, 1996). In the 1970s concern for the local and global consequences of development-related degradation led to the evolution of the notion of 'sustainable development' (Basiago, 1995).

An output of the United Nations' (UN) World Commission on Environment and Development was the Brundtland Report, entitled *Our Common Future* (WCED, 1987). This landmark report suggested that intergenerational equity could not be achieved unless the environmental impacts of economic activities were considered. The report defined 'sustainable development' as that which '*... meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*' (WCED, 1987, p43). The definition received criticism for being vague, too general, rhetorical and impractical (e.g. Redclift, 1987), but despite this it sparked an important debate between stakeholders within government, academia and industry regarding the characteristics of sustainable development.

A decade after the Brundtland Report was published, the UN stressed the need for a holistic approach, and suggested that *economic* development, *social* development and *environmental* protection were three interdependent and mutually reinforcing components of sustainable development (UN, 1997). Elkington (1997) referred to this simultaneous pursuit of economic prosperity,

environmental quality and social equity as the ‘triple bottom line’ of sustainable development. Elkington’s (1997) book supported the view that companies were accountable for their impact on sustainability through the triple bottom line, and that accountants had a role to play in measuring, auditing, reporting rating risks and benchmarking it (rather than simply addressing their finances). The Seventh Session of the UN Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) reinforced the need to consider the triple bottom line, and stressed that sustainable consumption included, ‘... *meeting the needs of present and future generations for goods and services in ways that are economically, socially and environmentally sustainable*’ (CSD, 1999). Other parties also suggested that sustainable development should be carried out within the context of an open and accountable system of governance (Robins and Roberts, 2000), and that it should address poverty and inequality (Smith, 1992).

Ten years after the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) was held in Johannesburg, South Africa. The WSSD reaffirmed that sustainable development was a central element of the international agenda, and its meaning was broadened and strengthened; particularly with regard to important linkages between poverty, the environment and the use of natural resources (UN/DESA, 2002). The Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) released sustainability reporting guidelines and indicators (GRI, 2002b), and there was an increasing emphasis on demonstrating processes and performance by companies that contributed towards sustainable development.

Sustainable tourism

Even before Rio, Krippendorf had argued that the world needed a new, less exploitative form of tourism that could be considered with regard to its capacity to contribute to *gross national happiness*, by measuring ‘... *higher incomes, more satisfying jobs, social and cultural facilities, and better housing*’ (Krippendorf, 1987). The concept of ‘sustainable tourism’ has evolved since Krippendorf’s statement, and Butler (1993) subsequently defined ‘sustainable development in the context of tourism’ as:

... tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes.

(Butler, 1993, p23)

One of the outcomes of the Rio Earth Summit had been a global action plan called Agenda 21. Approved by 182 countries, Agenda 21 integrated the goals of environmental protection and economic development into an action plan for sustainable development, but based on free market principles (McCormick, 1997). Agenda 21 promoted the ‘... *formulation of environmentally sound and*

culturally sensitive tourism programmes as a strategy for sustainable development' of tourism (United Nations, 1992). In 1999 the Seventh CSD promoted a balanced approach to sustainable tourism by the private sector, widening the debate from an environmental focus, to local economic development and poverty alleviation (CSD, 1999). The commission called on the tourism industry to:

... promote sustainable tourism development in order to increase the benefits from the tourism resources for the population ... and maintain the cultural and environmental integrity of the host community; ... promot[e] linkages within the local economy in order that benefits may be more widely shared; [emphasizing] greater efforts [for] employment of the local workforce, and the use of local products and skills.

(CSD, 1999)

CSD7 urged governments to maximize the potential of tourism to eradicate poverty by developing appropriate cooperative strategies with major groups, indigenous and local communities (CSD, 1999).

In 2002 UNEP's Tour Operators Initiative (TOI) responded to the launch of Global Reporting Indicators by releasing a series of pilot indicators for the tour operators' sector (GRI, 2002a). These indicators addressed environmental, social and economic indicators of core business processes of project management and development, internal management, supply chain management, customer relations and cooperation with destinations (GRI, 2002a).

This international policy and global focus has provided the context for interventions in Africa and, in particular, in southern Africa.

Responsible tourism: The policy framework in southern Africa

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) strategic framework document arises from a mandate given to the five initiating Heads of State (Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa) by the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) to develop an integrated socioeconomic development framework for Africa. The 37th Summit of the OAU in July 2001 formally adopted the strategic framework document. NEPAD is designed to address the current challenges facing the African continent, including escalating poverty levels, underdevelopment and the continued marginalization of Africa (NEPAD, 2005). NEPAD's primary objectives are (NEPAD, 2001):

- to eradicate poverty;
- to place African countries, both individually and collectively, on a path of sustainable growth and development;
- to halt the marginalization of Africa in the globalization process and enhance its full and beneficial integration into the global economy; and
- to accelerate the empowerment of women.

4 *Responsible Tourism*

NEPAD identified tourism as an important vehicle to address the current challenges facing the African continent, and its broad objectives are to (NEPAD, 2001):

- identify ‘key’ anchor projects at national and sub-regional levels which will generate significant spin-offs and assist in promoting interregional integration;
- develop a regional marketing strategy;
- develop research capacity; and
- promote partnerships via sub-regional bodies.

The actions proposed to address these objectives (and which are relevant to the theme of this book) are to (NEPAD, 2001):

- forge cooperative partnerships to capture the benefits of shared knowledge, as well as providing a base for other countries wishing to enter tourist-related activities;
- provide the African people with the capacity to be actively involved in sustainable tourism projects at the community level;
- market African tourism products, especially in adventure tourism, ecotourism and cultural tourism; and
- increase regional coordination of tourism initiatives in Africa for the expansion and increased diversity of products.

Individual countries in southern Africa have taken different approaches to implementing the NEPAD tourism action plan, and towards promoting sustainable tourism growth. Interventions within a range of southern African countries are explored throughout this book. As an introduction, however, South Africa provides a good example of responsible tourism policy development within the continent.

Responsible tourism policy in South Africa

In 1996 the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) published its *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism*, which recognized that tourism had largely been a missed opportunity for South Africa, but which also considered that tourism could provide the nation with an ‘engine of growth, capable of dynamizing and rejuvenating other sectors of the economy’. A foresighted part of the paper promoted the development of *responsible and sustainable* tourism growth. The key elements of responsible tourism were to (DEAT, 1996):

- ensure communities are involved in and benefit from tourism;
- market tourism that is responsible, respecting local, natural and cultural environments;
- involve the local community in planning and decision making;

- use local resources sustainably;
- be sensitive to the host culture;
- maintain and encourage natural, economic, social and cultural diversity; and
- undertake assessment of environmental, social and economic impacts as a prerequisite to developing tourism.

Following the White Paper, DEAT produced national *Responsible Tourism Guidelines*, which included targets for the tourism sector and emphasized the need to address the triple bottom line of sustainable development (economic, environmental and social sustainability) (DEAT, 2002). DEAT envisaged that tourism industry groups would take the guidelines and develop sub-sector guidelines that are applicable to their business, and that codes of best practice would be derived. Through such voluntary systems, it was hoped that enterprises would achieve market advantage over their competitors by being demonstrably ‘responsible’ (Spenceley, 2003).

As a tool to assist the tourism sector, a *Responsible Tourism Manual for South Africa* was published by DEAT in 2002. This aimed to provide ‘mainstream’ as well as community-based tourism enterprises (CBTEs) with information about responsible tourism and the opportunities that it presented for improving their business performance. Specific to South Africa, and in line with international best practice, the manual provided a range of practical and cost-effective responsible actions available to tourism businesses, and referred to many useful sources of information that could guide their implementation of responsible business activities (Spenceley et al, 2002).

Also in 2002, South Africa hosted the first conference on Responsible Tourism in Destinations, just prior to the Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development. The Cape Town Conference was attended by 280 delegates from 20 countries, and resulted in a declaration that called upon tourism enterprises to ‘... *adopt a responsible approach, to commit to specific responsible practises, and to report progress in a transparent and auditable way, and where appropriate to use this for market advantage*’ (Cape Town, 2002). In particular, the Cape Town Declaration states that responsible tourism (Cape Town, 2002):

- minimizes negative economic, environmental and social impacts;
- generates greater economic benefits for local people and enhances the well-being of host communities, improves working conditions and access to the industry;
- involves local people in decisions that affect their lives and life chances;
- makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage, to the maintenance of the world’s diversity;
- provides more enjoyable experiences for tourists through more meaningful connections with local people, and a greater understanding of local cultural, social and environmental issues;
- provides access for physically challenged people; and

- is culturally sensitive, engenders respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence.

The declaration makes a commitment to ‘...*work with others to take responsibility for achieving the economic, social and environmental components of responsible and sustainable tourism*’.

In 2008 the second conference on Responsible Tourism in Destinations was held in Kochi, India. Strengthening the principles of responsible tourism outlined in the Cape Town Declaration, the declaration recognized that ‘responsible Tourism is not a product; it is an approach which can be used by travellers and holidaymakers, tour operators, accommodation and transport providers, visitor attraction managers, planning authorities, national, regional/provincial and local government. An integrated approach is required, involving many stakeholders in any place or space which attracts tourists’ (Kerala, 2008). For example, the Association for Independent Tour Operators (AITO) developed a Responsible Tourism policy (see Box 0.1), and the World Travel Market in London annually hosts a Responsible Tourism Award (see www.responsibletourismawards.com), using the Cape Town Declaration description of tourism to guide them.

Poverty alleviation through responsible tourism in local communities

Economic impacts of tourism

The WTO (2002) reviewed the significance of international tourism to poor countries, and found that tourism was a principal export for 83 per cent of developing countries. Eighty per cent of the world’s poor people (living on under US\$1 per day) live in 12 countries, and in 11 of those countries tourism is significant or expanding (i.e. over 2 per cent of GDP or 5 per cent of exports) (see Table 0.1). This implies that as a growth sector, international tourism has the potential to provide economic benefits in developing countries where large populations of poor people reside.

Economists consider tourism to be a response to a particular consumer demand, which directly and indirectly creates the need for a wide variety of products and services. The industry stimulates a wide range of economic opportunities that impact on many sectors including transport, communications, infrastructure, education, security, health, immigration, customs and accommodation. Tourism is an attractive industry to developing countries as the start-up costs and barriers to entry are generally low, while income may flow quickly under favourable strategic and marketing conditions. However, economic benefits may not be maximized in developing countries in cases where there are high levels of foreign ownership and deep leakage effects, caused by few local economic linkages (OMT/WTO Secretariat, 2002). A number of potential economic impacts and consequences of tourism that are relevant to this research are outlined in Table 0.2.

Table 0.1 *Significance of international tourism in countries with 80 per cent of the world's poor people*

Country	Is international tourism an important economic sector? ¹	Have international tourist arrivals grown significantly (1990–97) ²	Percentage of population living on under US\$1 a day ³
Bangladesh		Yes	?
Brazil	Yes	Yes	29%
China	Yes	Yes	22%
Ethiopia	Yes		34%
India	Yes		53%
Indonesia	Yes	Yes	15%
Kenya	Yes	?	50%
Mexico	Yes		15%
Nepal	Yes	Yes	53%
Nigeria		Yes	29%
Pakistan	?		12%
Peru	Yes	Yes	49%
Philippines	Yes	Yes	28%

Notes: 1 International Tourism Receipts of more than 5% exports or 2% of GDP in 1996. Data adapted from WTO, 1998 and World Development Indices 1998.

2 Percentage change between international tourist arrivals for 1990 and 1997, adapted from WTO, 1997 and WTO, 1998.

3 UNICEF, 1999; World Development Indices, 1998.

Source: WTO, 2002

There is debate regarding what forms of tourism optimize economic benefits. For example, Ashley and Roe (1998) compared package tourists and backpackers and found that although the total spend by backpackers was often lower than package tourists, more of their money reached local people. Research in the Philippines indicated that independent travellers spent significantly more per day than backpackers, but there was little difference in reported spending between domestic and international tourists (pers. comm. Goodwin, 2003, cited in Spenceley, 2003).

Poverty

Globally it is estimated that there are 1.2 billion people living in extreme poverty, of which about a quarter live in sub-Saharan Africa and three-quarters work and live in rural areas. More than 800 million people (or 15 per cent of the world's population) suffer from malnutrition, and the life expectancy at birth in the least developed countries is under 50 years (27 years less than in developed countries: UNDP, 2003). The United Nations classifies 49 nations as Least Developed

Table 0.2 *Potential economic effects of tourism*

Area of impact	Range of consequences
Employment	<p>Number of jobs: Tourism is a labour intensive industry (de Kadt, 1979; Boo, 1990) where jobs are particularly accessible to women (OMT/WTO Secretariat, 2002). Indirect employment may also be generated from locally re-spent income earned by people through tourism (Opperman and Chon, 1997)</p> <p>Low wages: Employment options may be menial, with low wages and low skills, with little opportunity for the advancement and training of local people (Ruf, 1978)</p> <p>Seasonal job losses: Variations in vacation times, climate or temporal attractions may lead to job losses during low seasons (Opperman and Chon, 1997)</p>
Local business development	<p>Supplying the tourism sector: Demand for a wide range of supporting products and services (e.g. agriculture, laundry, transport, craft, furnishings, construction) entrepreneurial activity and business development to support tourism may be stimulated (Lea, 1998)</p> <p>Demand from tourists: Tourists may develop preferences for destination products during holidays that continue when they return home, stimulating international demand for certain products (Cox et al, 1995)</p> <p>Reducing leakage: Local ownership of tourism enterprises, and opportunities for those enterprises to purchase supplies locally reduces leakage. Leakage is the effect where a portion of foreign exchange earnings generated is repatriated (e.g. through foreign owners' profits, imports of equipment, materials, capital and consumer goods) (Voss, 1984; Diaz, 2001)</p> <p>Seasonal business: May cause difficulties for enterprises to sustain profits during low seasons (Opperman and Chon, 1997)</p>
Diversified economy	<p>Improved standards of living: Tourism activity may provide complementary livelihood strategies, especially for poor, rural people – who rarely rely on one activity or income source (Ashley and Roe, 1998)</p> <p>Opportunity costs: Tourism may be incompatible with other revenue-generating industries such as agriculture or mining. In addition, it may not be the most appropriate tool for economic development in a particular area (Mathieson and Wall, 1982)</p> <p>Dependency on tourism: If the local economy is not diverse, service and product providers are vulnerable, and at risk if there is a downturn in visitation (Krippendorf, 1987)</p>
Infrastructure	<p>Patchy distribution of benefits: Benefits are often accrued by a small elite (Krippendorf, 1987; Saville, 2001) rather than the poorest people</p> <p>Investment: Attraction of private investment to finance infrastructure and supporting business development in tourism destinations, which may benefit local people</p> <p>Taxes: Government taxes accrued from tourism provide funds to increase infrastructure investment in schools, health facilities, roads and services such as education, policing and healthcare</p>

Countries (LDCs), due to their low GDP per capita, weak human assets and high economic vulnerability, and 34 are located in Africa.

The UN states that for ease of reference and coherence in global assessments, development agencies often employ quantitative financial measures of poverty, such as those setting a threshold of US\$1 a day. Specific indicators relating to certain economic and social factors (such as infant mortality and literacy rates) are also used, but many aspects of poverty, some of which are crucial to a human rights analysis, are not reflected in the statistical indicators. Economic deprivation (or a lack of income) is a standard feature of most definitions of poverty. However, financial measures alone do not take account of the wide range of social, cultural and political aspects of poverty. Poverty is not only deprivation of economic or material resources but also a violation of human dignity (UNHCHR, 2002)

Therefore, poverty can be defined using both economic and non-economic approaches (Sultana, 2002). The economic approach typically defines poverty in terms of income and consumption. The non-economic approach incorporates concepts such as living standards, basic needs, inequality, subsistence and the human development index. The range of characteristics integrated within the notion of poverty means that definitions of the term may differ both within and between societies, institutions, communities and households.

In the most comprehensive and rights-sensitive definition of poverty to date, the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights defined poverty as *'a human condition characterized by the sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for the enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights'* (UN, 2001).

In terms of tackling and resolving the problems of global poverty, the 1992 Rio Declaration challenged all people to, *'... cooperate in the essential task of eradicating poverty as an indispensable requirement for sustainable development'* (UN, 1992). A decade later, a key outcome of the WSSD in 2002 was a reaffirmation of the Millennium Development Goal to halve the number of people living in poverty by 2015 (UN/DESA, 2002).

Poverty and tourism

The term 'pro-poor tourism' emerged from a desk-based review of tourism and poverty conducted by Deloitte and Touche, the Overseas Development Initiative (ODI) and the International Institute of Environment and Development (IIED) that was commissioned by the UK's Department for International Development to explore the role of tourism in reducing poverty (DFID, 1999; Sofield et al, 2004). The review identified a number of strategies for developing or supporting poverty alleviation through tourism, but noted that these strategies had not been tried or tested. Subsequent work by the ODI, IIED and International Centre for Responsible Tourism (ICRT) generated a series of reports and case studies that measured the economic impacts of tourism in destinations across the world, and which considered different parts of the tourism industry (see www.propoor-tourism.org.uk). The series of case studies undertaken during 2000 and 2001

evaluated the impacts of tourism on the poor using a common approach, from the Caribbean, Ecuador, Nepal, Namibia, South Africa and Uganda (PPT Partnership, undated). Further research followed, with additional working papers, discussion papers, policy briefs, ‘How to ...?’ workbooks and annual registers of pro-poor tourism interventions which considered the role of different stakeholders (e.g. governments, development agencies, the private sector) and the impacts of tourism on poverty reduction internationally.

Pro-poor tourism (PPT) is defined as tourism that generates net benefits for the poor, and aims to ensure that tourism growth contributes to poverty reduction. It is not a specific tourism product, or sector of the industry, but an approach to developing and implementing tourism activities. PPT strategies aim to facilitate opportunities and break down barriers for the poor to gain in terms of revenue, livelihood or participation in decision making (Ashley et al, 2001). Ashley et al (2002) consider that although agriculture tends to be at the core of most rural people’s livelihoods, diversification strategies were critical for poor households in order to decrease risk and increase their rewards. Tourism’s ‘pro-poor’ potential lies in four main areas (DFID, 1999; Ashley et al, 2001):

- tourism is a *diverse industry*, which increases the scope for wide participation of different stakeholders and businesses, including the involvement of the informal sector;
- the *customer comes to the product*, which provides considerable opportunities for linkages (e.g. souvenir selling) to emerging entrepreneurs and small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs);
- tourism is *highly dependent upon natural capital* (e.g. wildlife and culture), which are assets that the poor may have access to – even in the absence of financial resources; and
- tourism can be more *labour intensive* than other industries such as manufacturing. In comparison to other modern sectors, a higher proportion of tourism benefits (e.g. jobs and informal trade opportunities) go to women.

The Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership is a collaboration between the ODI, IIED and ICRT, which emphasizes the importance of looking at tourism and poverty in a livelihoods perspective; that it can have both positive and negative social, economic and environmental impacts on local communities, and it is essential that a broad view is taken when assessing likely impacts and determining whether or not to proceed with particular initiatives (Spenceley and Goodwin, 2007). A southern African pro-poor tourism pilot project was established in May 2002 by the Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership to promote strategies that could be used by tourism companies to create and enhance linkages with local people or enterprises *that make business sense to the company*. The project worked closely with five ‘pilot’ tourism enterprises in southern Africa to promote and facilitate local linkages (Ashley et al, 2005). Over three years, the project facilitated a number of initiatives with the pilot enterprises to strengthen local linkages and enhance local economic development. The enterprise activities generated increased local employment, increased use of local contractors and suppliers, upgrading existing

product development facilities and stronger local relationships between the private sector and local community (PPT, 2005).

International initiatives for pro-poor tourism

There has been an increasing emphasis among non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and development agencies over the past two decades to use opportunities presented by tourism to diversify livelihood options and alleviate poverty. Although tourism may create problems for the poor, including limited access to markets, displacement, local inflation and loss of access to resources (Roe and Urquhart, 2002; WTO, 2002), agencies have become increasingly focused on the potential for tourism to provide net benefits to the poor. This has been reflected in international initiatives, such as the WTO's *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism* (WTO, 1997). The code argues that local populations should equitably share in the economic, social and cultural benefits generated from tourism, and in particular from employment opportunities (WTO, 1997).

At the WSSD in 2002 a number of agencies promoted tourism interventions and publications that related to poverty alleviation, such as the WTO paper specifically on poverty alleviation and tourism (WTO, 2002). This paper was the first formal response to the issue of poverty from the agency, and reviewed experiences and lessons learned by governments, industry, development agencies and communities. Also during WSSD the WTO and the United Nations Commission on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) launched the 'Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty' (ST-EP) programme. The programme aims to alleviate poverty through sustainable tourism by financing research and development, and also providing incentives for good practice (WTO undated: see Box 0.1). As a contribution to the WSSD, UNEP brought together a consortium of the World Travel and Tourism Council, International Hotel and Restaurant Association, International Federation of Tour Operators and the International Council of Cruise Lines to develop a paper regarding the role of the tourism industry in sustainable development. The report noted that one of the main barriers to achieving sustainable tourism had been the inherent fragmentation of the industry and the relative fragility of viable operating margins – especially for the small and medium-sized enterprises that made up most of the industry. Although these barriers had indirectly led to a deficiency of accountability in both the private and public sectors, the report stated that the tourism sector was increasingly recognizing the need to protect cultures, heritage and the environment, while allowing developing countries to obtain the full economic potential of tourism (WTTC/IH&RA/IFTO/ICCL, 2002).

Within this context, a number of UN programmes, donor agencies, private sector associations and NGOs have developed initiatives to encourage sustainable tourism development. For example, UNEP is now in the process of developing baseline criteria for sustainable tourism for presentation at the IUCN World Conservation Congress in October 2008. Although agencies have predominantly prioritized environmental issues, some have taken a more holistic stance to address sustainable development. A number of these are summarized in Box 0.1.

Box 0.1 Examples of sustainable and responsible tourism initiatives from different stakeholders

United Nations Initiatives

The **United Nations World Tourism Organisation' Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty programme**. The ST-EP programme includes four main components. The first is a research base to identify linkages, principles and model applications. There is also an operating framework for promoting and developing incentives for good practice among companies, consumers and communities. Forums for sharing and exchanging information, ideas and plans are designed to bring together private, public and non-governmental stakeholders. Finally, there is the ST-EP Foundation which was originally concerned with attracting new, dedicated financing from business, philanthropic and government sources. The Foundation operates under the guidance of the ST-EP Board of Directors, which includes representatives from eight different countries as well as the Netherlands Development Organization, SNV (www.unwtostep.org). One of the programme's initiatives in southern Africa has been the development of an online community-based tourism directory (Spenceley and Rozga, 2006).

The **International Trade Centre of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development** is a technical cooperation agency whose mission is to support developing and transition economies, and particularly their business sectors, in their efforts to realize their full potential for developing export and import operations with the ultimate goal of achieving sustainable development. ITC's Export-led Poverty Reduction Programme (EPRP) is to contribute to the goal of reducing the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by half by the year 2015 and operates through pilot projects in countries having submitted to ITC a formal request for technical assistance in sectors that offer the best leverage for poverty reduction: Community-based Tourism (CBT) being one of them. The EPRP concept of CBT focuses on the development and promotion of tourism businesses and services in which poor communities can play an entrepreneurial role (ITC, 2005).

Private sector initiatives

The **Tour Operators' Initiative (TOI) for Sustainable Tourism Development** was launched in 2000 and is hosted by UNEP. TOI is a network of tour operators that have voluntarily joined forces to improve their business practices and raise awareness within the industry. It provides a platform to develop ideas and projects to address the economic, social, cultural and environmental aspects of sustainable development within the tourism sector (WTTC/IH&RA/IFTO/ICCL, 2002). The TOI drafted the Global Reporting Initiative indicators for the tour operators' sector (GRI, 2002a).

The **Association for Independent Tour Operators (AITO)** developed a Responsible Tourism policy in 2001 that prioritizes protection of the environment; respect for local cultures; maximizing the benefits to local communities; conserving natural resources; and minimizing pollution. It is anticipated that within a few years members will have to endorse AITO's responsible tourism guidelines as a condition of

membership. Members are assisted in formulating their own Responsible Tourism strategy through a database of Responsible Tourism Advice Notes, available to them on the member's only section of the AITO website (www.aito.co.uk).

NGO initiatives in Southern Africa

Fair Trade in Tourism South Africa (FTTSA) is a non-profit organization initiated as part of the World Conservation Union (IUCN), and in 2002 launched a trademark that it would award to enterprises meeting FTTSA's criteria of 'fairly traded'. FTTSA markets the brand so that tour operators and consumers can choose tourism products that have obtained an independent hallmark of 'fairness' (Spenceley et al, 2002). (www.fairtourismsa.org.za).

The International Centre for Responsible Tourism – South Africa (ICRT-SA) has a mission to contribute to economic development, social justice and environmental integrity through the development and promotion of Responsible Tourism by (1) influencing public institutions, the tourism industry, donors and tourists to integrate the principles of responsible tourism into their policies, operations and activities; (2) communicating the principles of responsible tourism through capacity building, education and awareness programmes to the broadest possible constituency; (3) initiating and undertaking research to develop knowledge to support the implementation of responsible tourism; and (4) creating a network of individuals, institutions and tourism enterprises supportive of the objectives of the Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in Destinations. The ICRT-SA is part of a network of organizations in the United Kingdom, The Gambia and India (www.icrttourismsa.org).

Biodiversity conservation and nature-based tourism

The tourism industry and socioeconomic status of people have critical implications for biodiversity conservation, particularly in remote and under-developed areas where many of the poor reside. Biodiversity can be defined as, '*... the variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part; this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems*' (UNEP, 1994). Threats to biodiversity include poverty, poor planning, market failure, excessive wealth and open-access exploitation (Caldecott et al, 1996). In parallel with the globalization debate, van der Duim and Caalders (2002) recognized that the:

... growing concern for the deterioration of nature is a concern mainly of the developed world, whereas a large part of this nature falls under the jurisdiction of Third World countries. They generally are confronted with

many social and economic problems, which are felt to be more urgent than environmental and ecological ones.

(van der Duim and Caalders 2002, p745)

Redclift (1992) warned that the poor often had little choice but to choose immediate economic benefits at the expense of the long-term sustainability of their livelihoods. He noted that under these circumstances it was useless to appeal for altruism and protection of the environment, as individuals were effectively forced to behave 'selfishly' to survive. Since the tourism industry relies on the natural resource base to attract clients, reducing poverty in tourism destinations becomes vital in maintaining the viability of products over time.

Nature-based tourism and ecotourism

Since the term was coined in 1983 (Ceballos-Lascuráin, 1996), 'ecotourism' has been the subject of much debate, with a plethora of different definitions promoted by researchers, NGOs and the tourism industry (Goodwin, 1996; Stewart and Sekartjekarini, 1994). The WTO defines 'ecotourism' as '*... all forms of tourism in which the tourists' main motivation is the observation and appreciation of nature, that contributes to the conservation of, and that generates minimal impacts upon, the natural environment and cultural heritage*' (Frangialli, 2001). However, some enterprises have abused the term, and have marketed nature-based tourism products that have *not* benefited local people, or have damaged the environment as 'ecotourism'. The consequence has been a dilution of the term's value.

A WTO study in seven of the main ecotourism generating markets of Europe and North America highlighted that the use of the term 'ecotourism' in the private sector was actually very limited (Vereczi, 2001). Tour operators were quite reluctant to use the concept in their marketing literature and brochures, and instead preferred to use words like 'sustainable', 'responsible', 'environmental' and 'ethical' (Vereczi, 2001). Perhaps the most damning comments came from the AITO; whose members perceived that ecotourism was a hangover from the past, and a brand name that their clients found meaningless (Goodwin and Townsend, 2002). Despite such perceptions, the WTO and UNEP declared 1992 to be the 'International Year of Ecotourism'. During that year the WTO convened a series of regional conferences on ecotourism, culminating in a World Eco-tourism Summit in Quebec, and production of a report to the UN General Assembly on activities undertaken by governments and international organizations globally (UN, 2003). However, debates surrounding the World Eco-tourism Summit in Quebec, Canada were described as 'acrimonious' (Roe and Urquhart, 2002) and activists used the event to highlight cases of poor and negligent practice by 'ecotourism' operations.

'Nature-based tourism' is a simpler concept than ecotourism, and is motivated by enjoying wildlife or undeveloped natural areas (WTTTC, 1993). It may incorporate natural attractions including scenery, topography, waterways, vegetation, wildlife and cultural heritage; and activities like hunting or white-water rafting (Ceballos-Lascuráin, 1996). Nature-based tourism does not necessarily

contribute to the conservation of biodiversity, nor must it benefit host populations, but it includes sub-categories of tourism that may do so (for example, ecotourism). Some tourism researchers have chosen to avoid the confusion and controversy surrounding the term 'ecotourism' by using 'nature-based tourism' as a less contentious concept (e.g. Deng et al, 2002; McKercher, 1998).

'Wildlife tourism' is a form of nature-based tourism that includes the consumptive and non-consumptive use of wild animals in natural areas (Roe et al, 1997). Roe et al (1997) noted that wildlife tourism has frequently been used to link wildlife management with economic incentives to promote conservation in developing countries. Wildlife tourism has the potential to contribute towards the management of protected areas by generating revenue, employment, conservation awareness and stimulating economic activity. Within rural areas, wildlife tourism also provides a mechanism to realize tangible benefits from conservation and wildlife for local communities (Roe et al, 1997). Wildlife tourism may be undertaken through guided or self-drive excursions in vehicles, or through guided walks. During 'safari' excursions in southern Africa tourists learn about, observe and photograph charismatic and dangerous wildlife such as elephant, rhino, buffalo, lion and leopard.

Many of the chapters in this book consider the impacts of nature-based, and, in particular, wildlife, tourism in southern Africa. This form of tourism is particularly important in this region, because of the immense biological diversity and charismatic megafauna of savannah areas of southern Africa; because nature-based tourism often takes place in areas that are marginal for agriculture (e.g. due to soil quality and water availability); and because it can provide a sustainable and commercially viable livelihood opportunity for the private sector and poor people living in remote areas.

Tourism in Southern Africa

The tourism industry in southern Africa is very small, by comparison to the rest of the world, and in 2007 the total demand represented just 1.3 per cent of world market share (WTTC, 2007). However, over the past 20 years tourism development as a whole has been positive in Africa, and during the 1990s tourism grew at an average annual rate of 6.2 per cent in contrast to 4.3 per cent for the world. The continent is heavily endowed with some of the exceptional attractions which can be packaged into tourism products for local and international markets, including natural resources and sites of historical importance. Nature-based tourism is the main component of the African tourism product and the continent boasts a wide range of natural attractions (Mukugo et al, 2004).

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimated that travel and tourism in sub-Saharan Africa in 2007 would generate US\$ 90.1 billion of economic activity, and would account for 8.1 per cent of GDP and 10.4 million jobs (5.9 per cent of total employment). The industry is expected to grow by 4.5 per cent per annum (in real terms) between 2008 and 2017 (WTTC, 2007).

Research commissioned by NEPAD and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) assessed tourism growth in southern Africa, and indicates that South Africa and Mauritius had advanced tourism sectors, contributing 2.9 per cent and 4.2 per cent to gross domestic product (GDP) growth respectively in 2005. Tourism markets in Botswana and Namibia are still maturing; Zambia, Mozambique, Tanzania and Madagascar are emerging countries in terms of tourism growth; and Zimbabwe's market has regressed; while the tourism potential of Lesotho and Swaziland are promising. NEPAD has made tourism a priority sector with the potential to diversify economic opportunities and generate income and foreign exchange earnings for African countries. This is in line with the African Union and NEPAD tourism action plan, adopted at the union's third general assembly in Ethiopia in July 2004. However, the report noted that there was inadequate tourism education, training and awareness for the general public, and a lack of protection for the environment (Gadebe, 2005).

This book focuses on 'Responsible Tourism: Critical issues for conservation and development' in southern Africa. Responsible tourism practices are of particular interest in this part of the world: in part because of the context of NEPAD; due to the presence of national responsible tourism and poverty alleviation policies; because of the rich biological diversity and abundant charismatic wildlife, and because of the regional importance of local economic development and devising viable livelihood strategies for the poor.

Outline of the book

Following this introduction, the book is structured into three main sections.

Part 1: Policies, institutional interventions and market forces

Part 2: Responsible nature-based tourism

Part 3: Community-based tourism

An overview of the three parts of the book follows.

Part I: Policies, institutional interventions and market forces

The implementation of responsible tourism in southern Africa has been shaped by a number of interlinking factors. These include government policy frameworks; programmes and interventions by donor agencies and NGOs; and (because tourism is, of course, a business) by market forces and supply chains. In the first part of this book, practitioners working in Mozambique and South Africa present six chapters that describe the role and activities of governments, development agencies, non-governmental agencies and the private sector in initiatives that promote conservation and poverty alleviation through tourism.

In Chapter 1, Andrew Rylance describes tourism and poverty reduction policies and plans in Mozambique, and critically considers how the institutional framework has manifested in responsible tourism planning and local economic development in Nampula Province. The role of policy and planning in developing a sustainable ecotourism industry in Madagascar is the subject of Chapter 2, where the role of government interventions is evaluated by Michaela Pawliczek and Hitesh Mehta. In Chapter 3, Giju Varghese considers the role of public–private partnerships in national parks, and explains the commercialization process and lessons learned in South Africa. In Chapter 4, Steve Collins and Herman Snel describe the role of development agencies in facilitating responsible tourism development, using the example of the German development agency (GtZ) and its activities in South Africa. In Chapter 5 Nicole Frey and Richard George present a suite industry and NGO responses to the South African national policy on responsible tourism, and also consider the market supply and demand for this type of travel. Concluding this part of the book, Chapter 6 presents information on how the private sector can adapt its supply chains to promote local economic development and poverty alleviation. Using data from a joint intervention of a development agency and private sector, Caroline Ashley and Gareth Haysom present evidence of ‘win–wins’ for both business and local economic development.

Part 2: Responsible nature-based tourism

A series of six chapters describe the implications of responsible nature-based tourism (including ecotourism and wildlife tourism) in southern Africa for conservation and development, and interventions by government and the private sector. In Chapter 7 Anna Spenceley reviews research on the economics of wildlife tourism in southern Africa, and in particular the level of evidence that wildlife tourism reduces poverty. In Chapter 8, Helen Suich considers the role of protected areas, and, in particular, transfrontier conservation areas in delivering financial benefits for people, using the Kavango-Zambezi transfrontier conservation area as an example. Joseph Mbaiwa explores the impacts of wildlife tourism on conservation and development in Botswana in Chapter 9, and then Peter John Massyn provides insights into the participation of Botswanans in the lodge industry of the Okavango Delta in Chapter 10. This section is concluded with two papers from South Africa. In Chapter 11 Murray Simpson demonstrates the impacts of high-value nature-based tourism on rural livelihoods and poverty, and in Chapter 12 Piers Relly evaluates the impacts of the Madikwe Game Reserve on the local economy.

Part 3: Community-based tourism

Four practitioners review the impacts of community-based tourism enterprises (CBTE) on local livelihoods and conservation in southern Africa. In Chapter 13 Anna Spenceley synthesizes the impacts from 215 CBTEs located in Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa,

Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Fred Nelson then considers both macro- and micro-economic issues of wildlife-based CBT in Tanzania in Chapter 14. Louise Dixey provides a critical examination of donor funded CBTE programmes in Zambia in Chapter 15, and Jon Barnes concludes this section with very positive data on the livelihood impacts of communal-land conservancies in Namibia in Chapter 16.

The three sections of the book are followed by a conclusion in Chapter 17. This paper incorporates a discussion of the implications of the papers collated in this volume for policy, interventions by conservation and development stakeholders, and for the implementation of responsible tourism.

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