THE HOST COMMUNITY

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ISSUES CONCERNING WILDLIFE TOURISM





By Georgette Leah Burns and Trevor Sofield

WILDLIFE TOURISM RESEARCH REPORT SERIES: NO. 4
Status Assessment of Wildlife Tourism in Australia Series

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The host community is a fundamental component of any tourism system. Wildlife tourism activities have many impacts on a host community; therefore, any increase in wildlife tourism as a recreational pursuit will inevitably be accompanied by a growth in numbers of local people affected by tourism. For the purpose of this study, hosts are defined as those who live in the vicinity of the tourist attraction and are either directly or indirectly involved with, and/or affected by, the wildlife tourism activities.

Hosts and Sustainability

The host community is an important element to consider in the concept of sustainability. The sustainability of wildlife tourism is dependent, in part, on its support from the areas' residents. Host satisfaction is related to both the involvement of local community members in wildlife tourism activities, and the benefits and disadvantages of wildlife tourism to host communities.

Social and cultural issues need to be considered because of the importance of host acceptance to the overall sustainability of a wildlife tourism attraction. Determining how to make a wildlife tourism attraction sustainable from the perspective of the host community requires an understanding of the interplay of elements affecting both the perception of, and support for, that tourism. While some of the issues have been studied in relation to tourism systems in general, to date there have been very few studies specifically related to wildlife tourism.

Impacts and Attitudes

There are many factors that influence host community attitudes toward, and satisfaction with, wildlife tourism attractions. The actual and perceived impacts of wildlife tourism will influence the attitudes of the host community and ultimately have an effect on sustainability. It is postulated that wildlife tourism will only be sustainable where there are benefits for the host community (these may be social and/or cultural, and environmental and will not necessarily be confined to economic benefits).

The actual and perceived social and cultural impacts of wildlife tourism are numerous. Impacts on the social environment are likely to affect the behaviour of individuals, community groups, lifestyles, value systems and religious or traditional ceremonies. Members of the host community may be introduced to changes and new behaviours or ideas that have the potential to affect their attitudes, values, norms and motivations. The magnitude of the impacts is likely to vary with the number of tourists, the length of stay, the importance of the wildlife to community life before tourism, and its place in cultural history.

Community Involvement

The host population's acceptance of wildlife tourism is likely to vary depending on the way in which the host community interacts with the tourist and wildlife. A rural community whose lifestyle has incorporated consumptive/destructive activities (for example, shooting for food, sport and trophy hunting) may be introduced to a new understanding of wildlife. The establishment of an ecotourism venture based on wildlife or an enclosure venture (e.g. Dubbo Plains Zoo) may broaden world views of local residents.

Conclusions

A study of local government councils in Australia revealed that community involvement in wildlife tourism attractions varies widely from region to region and from one attraction to another within a region. For example, there exist in Australia wildlife tourism attractions that have a high level of community involvement as well as attractions that have little, or no, involvement from the local community.

The attitudes of host community members will also vary from region to region and from one individual to another within a region. For example, attitudes towards activities such as hunting and fishing will vary from one host community to another and also between members of a host community.

Recommendations

Further research is required to understand host community perceptions of wildlife tourism. An assessment is needed to identify the elements that affect host attitudes and levels of involvement, as well as factors that affect impacts on the community.

It would be appropriate to commence this research by conducting a range of case studies. The case studies could be conducted in areas where the level of community involvement in wildlife tourism activities is minimal, ranging to areas where community involvement is high. The range of communities selected should cover areas where wildlife tourism is currently encouraged and successful, to areas where wildlife tourism is, or has been, less successful. A comparison could then be undertaken to identify the elements that affect host involvement and attitudes and also the factors that affect the magnitude of impacts on host communities.

If the research identified a correlation between hosts' attitudes and their degree of involvement in wildlife tourism activities, it would be possible to develop a model to help predict the magnitude of impacts on community attitudes. Such a model would improve the sustainability of wildlife tourism by identifying management approaches that would minimise the negative impacts on hosts and by providing an environment in which communities' social values and norms can co-exist with wildlife tourism operations.

Finally, when the factors that influence host community perceptions have been identified and a model developed, it may then be appropriate to develop guidelines and recommendations for host community involvement in wildlife tourism. Local governments could play an important role in implementing and promoting these guidelines and, subsequently the sustainable role of wildlife tourism in host communities.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This report relates to the disciplinary area of 'the host community', which is one of the three major components (the tourist, the resource, the host) of wildlife tourism.¹ As well as highlighting special issues relating to hosts in the context of wildlife tourism, the report includes an overview of the status and nature of this area, and descriptions of several representative case studies. Also contained in this report is a compilation and analysis of existing information pertaining to the Australian context, as well as a review of the relevant international literature. Key social and cultural issues, obstacles, research gaps, and unrealised opportunities for hosts in Australian wildlife tourism are identified before making recommendations on priority areas for research. This report forms part of a series of reports comprising a status assessment of Australian wildlife tourism as an initial stage of the research of the Wildlife Tourism Subprogram of the Cooperative Research Centre (CRC) for Sustainable Tourism.²

1.1 Scope of the Report

The aim of this report is to identify and describe the social and cultural factors that influence the sustainability of wildlife tourism from the perspectives of local communities. The emphasis is on Australian communities living in proximity to, or involved with, wildlife as a tourism resource. Key issues relating to the participation of local community members in wildlife tourism activities are identified. The benefits and disadvantages, both actual and perceived, of such participation are assessed in order to determine the role of community participation in the sustainability of wildlife tourism.

The report begins by outlining some central definitions, and then briefly explains the methodology used to collect the data presented throughout. Following this, findings from both the literature and empirical research (a questionnaire) are discussed and case studies outlined before recommendations are made.

¹ Refer to the overview report (Higginbottom *et al.* 2001) for general background information on wildlife tourism.

² For further information on the CRC visit the web site – <u>www.crctourism.com.au</u>

1.2 Definitions

'Any living non-human, undomesticated organism in the kingdom Animalia' (Moulton and Sanderson 1999:111) is generally considered to be wildlife. Wildlife tourism, as a subset of nature-based tourism, can then be defined as tourism based on interactions with such animals, whether in their natural environment or in captivity (such as in a zoo). This form of tourism includes non-consumptive activities such as viewing, handling and photographing, as well as consumptive activities such as fishing and hunting (Higginbottom *et al.* 2001).

For the purpose of this report, and for use by other reports in the wildlife tourism sub sector, we have defined hosts as local people involved either directly or indirectly with wildlife tourism. The term is used to encompass local people affected by wildlife tourism ventures, as well as those who identify themselves as having an interest in the venture (such as 'friends of ...' groups). An important element in this definition is the identification of hosts as locals; that is, at this stage we are only including as hosts those who live in the vicinity of a tourist attraction.

A tourist is defined as any person who travels to a place outside their usual environment for a period of at least one night but not more than a year, and for whom the main purpose of the visit is something other than work. The term visitor is used more broadly to include shorter stays, and any managed tourism activity or experience is referred to as an attraction.³

Sustainable tourism is used to denote tourism, which remains viable over an indefinite period without degrading or altering the environment (both social and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes.⁴ Thus, for tourism to be sustainable it must provide a satisfying experience to visitors, must remain economically viable, and must not have significant negative effects on host communities and/or the natural environment.

³ For further discussion on the standard definitions of tourist, traveller, visitor, and so on, refer to the report 'Understanding Visitor Perspectives on Wildlife Tourism' (Moscardo, Woods, and Greenwood 2001).

⁴ There has been much debate on the definition of 'sustainability'. For further discussion on this see Davis, Tisdell and Hardy (2001).

2. METHODS

As the main aim of this report is to analyse existing information on hosts and wildlife tourism, a major technique used in its compilation has been to review existing Australian and international literature sources.

Data have also been collected by way of a short questionnaire (7 questions) sent to all Local Government Councils (LGC) in Australia.⁵ As an initiative under the Keating Government, each LGC was to employ a tourism planning officer; however, we discovered that this scheme was not implemented in all LGCs. Using a database of council addresses from the Local Government Council Association in Canberra, we contacted all 705 LGCs in Australia. Questionnaires (198) were sent by email, and 507 were sent by postal mail. Our preference was to use email for all LGCs, but only 198 of the 705 had email addresses. The aim of the questionnaire was to identify what wildlife tourism attractions exist in each LGC area, and the level of community involvement in this form of tourism.

⁵ A copy of the questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

3. FINDINGS

3.1 The Literature

Many issues relevant to the tourism industry as a whole are equally applicable to wildlife tourism; however, as might be expected, some issues are also very different. The first section of this literature review outlines issues from the wider field of tourism and discusses their relevance to wildlife tourism.

3.1.1 Background

In both the tourism literature and the literature concerning wildlife there has been an increase in publications concerning wildlife tourism in recent years (see, for example, Barnes *et al.* 1992; Bolton 1997; Child 1995; Crabtree *et al.* 1994; Decker and Goff 1987; Gray 1993; Harris *et al.* 1997; Kiss 1990; Knight and Gutzwiller 1995). In many of these publications tourism is either discussed as incidental to wildlife, or wildlife as incidental to tourism. Few evenly address both issues, although most do recognise a recent growth in wildlife tourism, attributed to its increasing popularity amongst tourists and its promotion by hosts.^{6,7} The growth of wildlife tourism as a recreational pursuit has been accompanied by a growth in numbers of local people involved with, and/or affected by it. Given the recent nature of this field, accurate estimations of the numbers of people involved have not been made.

Literature on the host community (also often referred to as the 'residents' or 'local community') has been an essential part of the general tourism discourse. The focus of this literature has been almost entirely on the impact of tourism on these communities (see Bax 1992; Bouquet and Winter 1987; Brown and Jafari 1990; Bryden 1973; Burns 1993, 1994, 1996, 2001; Cohen 1988; Crick 1991; de Kadt 1979; Din 1988; Dogan 1989; Forster 1964; Farrell 1977; Howell 1994; Jafari 1990; King et al. 1993; Mansperger 1995; Mathieson and Wall 1982). Research on host attitudes toward tourism and sustainability

⁶ Refer to the report 'Understanding Visitor Perspectives on Wildlife Tourism' (Moscardo, Woods, and Greenwood 2001) for further discussion on the level and nature of demand for wildlife tourism.

⁷ See also Table 1 in Green and Higginbottom (2001), which illustrates the availability and relevance of published literature on effects of wildlife tourism and related activities on Australian wildlife tourism.

has also been undertaken by many authors (see Allen *et al.* 1988; Allen *et al.* 1993; Ahmed 1986; Belisle and Hoy 1980; Botkin *et al.* 1991; Brougham and Butler 1981; Cheng 1980; Cooke 1982; d'Amore 1983; deKadt 1979; Doxey 1975; Harris *et al.* 1997; Martin and Uysal 1990; Milman and Pizam 1988; Pearce 1981). The majority of these works have focused on the fact that economic benefits positively affect host perceptions of tourism, while the effects on social and environmental issues have been negative (Ap 1992a; Liu and Var 1986; Pizam 1978; Prentice 1993; Tyrrel and Spaulding 1984).

Ap (1992b:666) criticises this literature, claiming that the theoretical orientation of it is 'underdeveloped' thus suggesting that much more work is needed. A recent article by Jurowski *et al.* (1997) poses a theoretical paradigm for examining resident attitudes about tourism that goes some way toward overcoming this underdevelopment. For the most part though, information on host satisfaction with tourism in general and, in particular, host involvement with wildlife tourism is almost non-existent.

The same cannot be said for information on tourist satisfaction. Mechanisms for assessing tourist satisfaction with the tourism product have been researched and documented widely, and more recently this literature has focused on factors related to tourist satisfaction with wildlife tourism (Arluke and Sanders 1996; Bitgood et al. 1988; Davis et al. 1997; Kreger and Mench 1995; Shackley 1996; Woods 1998).8

'The substantial growth in tourism during the past few decades and forecasts projecting increased growth in future decades have been widely documented' (Ap and Crompton 1998: 123). Since the 1960s, a rapid growth in tourist numbers has resulted from worldwide changes such as increased technology (especially the first commercial aircraft in 1958) and increased communication. Tourism has continued to grow, and playing no small role in this growth has been the promotion of tourism as an economic benefit. Research critical of literature promoting the economics benefits of tourism emerged strongly in the 1970s, such as that by Turner and Ash (1975) sarcastically entitled 'The Golden Hordes'.

⁸ For further information on the tourist and wildlife tourism see Moscardo, Woods, and Greenwood (2001).

More recently, interest has shifted from external impacts to the way host communities have internalised tourism and begun to control impacts and affect effects (Cohen 1999; Picard 1996; Sofield 2000; Woods 1998), and there has been growing recognition of the fact that the viability of an area's tourism industry depends on it operating at a level of sustained equilibrium. The idea of sustainable tourism as a means of protecting the long term viability of the destination and/or attraction can be operationalised as the number and type of tourists supported over a specified time before an unacceptable level of deterioration is perceived to occur. The deterioration may occur in:

- a. the physical, ecological, social or cultural environment, or
- b. the host population's acceptance of tourists, or
- c. the experience of the tourists (Ap and Crompton 1998:123).

We use this point to illustrate the importance of both host satisfaction and involvement to the overall sustainability of a tourism venture, found in both a) and b) above, which is a focus of this report.

We know that some host communities seek to attract tourists to their area because of the industry's perceived potential for improving existing social and economic conditions (Ap and Crompton 1998:124; Ratz 2000). However, previous studies (such as Burns 1993, 1994, 1996, 2001; Britton 1979, 1980a, 1980b, 1981, 1982a, 1982b, 1983, 1987a, 1987b, 1987c; Turner and Ash 1975; and MacCannell 1976) have shown that tourism also has the potential to degrade hosts' perceptions of their quality of life, especially if too many tourists are attracted. On this scale the concept of 'how many is too many' needs to be determined by the host because it is recognised that 'for tourism to survive in an area it needs support from the area's residents' (Ap and Cromptom 1998:120).

3.1.2 Impacts and values

The many and varied impacts of general tourism have been well documented and as part of this status assessment it is necessary to examine the impacts, both perceived and actual, of wildlife tourism

on host communities. This is necessary because such impacts will influence the attitudes of the host community⁹ toward wildlife tourism, and such attitudes ultimately have an effect on sustainability.

Early publications on perceived impacts tended to focus on the positive economic effects of general tourism (Pizam 1978; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Keogh 1989). This idea prevailed during the 1960s and was characterised by optimism about the positive aspects of tourism (Keogh 1989; Ap and Crompton 1998). During the following decade the effects of tourism were examined more critically from both social and cultural perspectives (Young 1973; Turner and Ash 1975; Smith 1977; deKadt 1979, Farrell 1977), with more pessimistic findings. Since this time, the study of tourism has 'been characterised by a more balanced perspective, where both positive and negative perceived impacts are evaluated' (Ap and Crompton 1998:121).

Our concern here is with the host community and our focus is on the social and cultural impacts. In the context of general tourism, such impacts include the ways in which tourism is perceived to contribute to changes in individual behaviour, family relations, collective lifestyles, and community organisations, as well as value systems, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expressions and traditional ceremonies (Fox 1977). It is reasonable to assume that wildlife tourism could contribute in similar ways to changes in these areas.

Factors related to the characteristics of the destination area can also influence the nature of perceived social and cultural impacts. Five of these are identified by Butler (1974) in the context of general tourism. These are:

- 1. the economic state of the area
- 2. the degree of local involvement in tourism
- 3. the spatial characteristics of tourism development

⁹ Throughout this paper we are discussing the host community in a way that may suggest it as a single entity. Of course, it is not. When we comment on community support for an attraction, it is important to recognise that there are variations in levels of support within the same community (Ap and Crompton 1993; Jurowski *et al.* 1997; Mason and Cheyne 2000; Taylor and Davis 1997). Guijt and Shah (1998) clarify this point clearly in their text aptly titled 'The Myth of Community'.

- 4. the strength of the host culture
- 5. other characteristics (such as, political attitudes of the local population).

Although Butler identified these factors for general tourism, they too can be applicable in the wildlife tourism setting. Of particular importance here is (2) the degree of local involvement in wildlife tourism, which is discussed further throughout this report.

The study of the host falls under the 'human-dimensions' area of tourism studies. According to Manfredo *et al.* (1995), four concepts are applied in the human-dimensions area: attitudes, values, norms, and motivation (needs and satisfaction). 'Attitude' is a term used frequently throughout this paper to refer to an evaluation or feeling about something (such as a person, object or action). It is important to measure attitudes because they are known to be consistent with human behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Andressen and Murphy 1986; Fishbein and Manfredo 1992; Manfredo *et al.* 1995). Thus, if we discover host attitudes toward wildlife tourism then we will be a step closer to understanding host behaviour in the wildlife tourism setting. As noted by Jurowski *et al.* (1997:3):

The support of the local population is essential for the development, successful operation, and sustainability of tourism. Achieving the goal of favourable community support for the tourism industry requires an understanding of how residents formulate their attitudes toward tourism.

A second important concept is that of 'values'. The term value has two common uses. It is used to describe both 'assigned' values and 'held' values. Assigned values give an indication of how important something is to us, while a held value, in contrast, is a basic evaluative belief, a building block for attitudinal positions and behaviours. 'Resident evaluation of the impacts of tourism and resident support for tourism are dependent on what they value' (Jurowski *et al.* 1997:3) and thus perception of tourism's impact is a result of assessing benefits and costs, and this is clearly influenced by what residents' value. When comparing attitudes and values, it is useful to

note that changing attitudes is possible, but changing values is far more difficult (Manfredo *et al.* 1995:22).

Thirdly, 'norms' are standards used by individuals for evaluation. These standards define what people think their behaviour, and the behaviour of others, should be (Manfredo *et al.* 1995:23).

Finally, the concept of 'motivations', why people behave the way they do (Manfredo *et al.* 1995:25), is useful in evaluating the wildlife tourism context. Much of the literature stresses the importance of host satisfaction in wildlife tourism, and satisfaction is a crucial motivation for behaviour.

3.1.3 Interaction and attitudes

In the context of this report series we have identified the host community very broadly, and the community can thus encompass a wide range of people. These people interact with the other two major components (the tourist and the resource) of wildlife tourism in varying ways, and this interaction can have implications for the sustainability and long term viability of wildlife tourism. Again, this is an area of discourse that has not been covered extensively in the literature specifically dealing with wildlife tourism. However, it has featured in the general tourism literature and many of the same issues identified in the general context are applicable to the wildlife tourism setting. For example, in the 1970s Butler identified five important factors that influence host and tourist interaction in any tourism setting:

- 1. number of tourists and hosts
- 2. length of stay of tourists
- 3. cultural background of tourists and hosts
- 4. economic characteristics of tourists and hosts
- 5. activities of the tourists and hosts (Butler 1974).

Considering these factors in the wildlife tourism setting, it is anticipated that interaction between hosts and tourists will increase in situations where the number of tourists is larger and when they stay longer. It is also anticipated that interaction between hosts and tourists will increase in situations where the cultural background, and language, of these two components is similar, as well as their economic background. However, these are merely assumptions and further research is necessary to understand not only these factors but also how an increase or decrease in interaction affects host attitudes. In addition, to understand the effect of activities on interaction we need to investigate what activities hosts and tourists engage in the wildlife tourism context.

We know that hosts will interact with the other two of the three components (tourists and wildlife) involved in any wildlife tourism venture, and we know that this interaction can be influenced by a range of factors. Further research is needed in this area to determine how these factors operate in the wildlife tourism setting.

Because host interaction with wildlife and wildlife tourism ranges over a broad spectrum, different communities can be expected to have different attitudes toward wildlife (ranging from open hostility to care, concern and conservation). A host community may regard wildlife as a valuable resource to be exploited either for self-consumption or for commercial consumption (such as poaching for food, skins and hides, ivory, and other material). The harvesting of mutton birds (shearwaters) in Bass Strait is an Australian example. Such activities would in many cases be in direct conflict with the utilisation of the same wildlife for tourism purposes. Alternatively, the host community may be in a 'state of hostilities' as appears to be the case with some Australian farmers who are concerned about kangaroo populations competing for scarce pastures with their sheep and cattle (e.g. Kangaroo Island). The host community may also have an integrated relationship with wildlife in which certain animals are perceived as vital to their social, cultural, and psychological well being and play an important ceremonial and symbolic role (e.g. traditionally oriented Australian Aboriginal communities and their totemic value system).¹⁰ Some of the activities of such communities and their relationship with

¹⁰ For further information on Indigenous Australian involvement with wildlife tourism, see Palmer (2001).

wildlife may be incorporated into tourism (e.g. wildlife Aboriginal tours of Bathurst Island, NT).

At the other end of the scale, there may be indifference by host communities to the wildlife around them. There is also the issue of conflict between hosts and tourists where a significant wildlife attraction could bring greatly increased numbers of visitors to the area (e.g. the Philip Island 'penguin parade'). Conflict may also exist between hosts over wildlife resources and their utilisation for tourism. For example, a study of Townsville Town Common (Birtles and Sofield 1992) recorded significant community opposition to tourism development, which was considered intrusive, although other elements within the community supported greater commercial exploitation of resources for tourism.

Factors that affect host attitudes towards any tourist attraction include the hosts' access to financial benefits from the attraction, as well as the degree of economic dependence they have on the attraction, and the length of their residence in the vicinity of the attraction (Harper 1997). Another factor known to affect resident attitudes is related to the level of economic activity in the area (Allen et al. 1988; Long et al. 1990; Johnson et al. 1994), while McKercher (1998) argues that feelings of empowerment (control) or disempowerment in relation to the attraction are also crucial in influencing host attitudes (discussed in 3.1.5).

3.1.4 Support

From the general tourism literature it becomes obvious that determining how to make a wildlife tourism attraction sustainable from the perspective of the host community requires an understanding of the interplay of elements affecting both perception of and support for that tourism. We also need to understand the balance of benefits and detriments hosts are willing to accept, and what influences whether or not a specific impact is viewed as a benefit or cost. Jurowski *et al.* (1997:11) claim that 'resident support for tourism is attributable to an exchange process and that residents evaluate various factors that influence the way in which they view the impacts, which in turn influences their support for tourism'. This recent research by Jurowski *et al.* (1997) provides a theoretical basis

for explaining the interplay of elements that affect host community attitudes toward tourism. In this study, they present many items that can be used to measure host attitudes and perceptions. They assess economic impacts (such as employment opportunities, revenue for local government, the price of goods and services, and the cost of land and housing), social impacts (such as opportunities for shopping and recreation, traffic congestion and crime rates, local services, the preservation of local culture, and relationships between residents and tourists), and environmental impacts (quality of the natural environment). They also stress the importance of factors such as economic gain, use of the tourism resource base, an ecocentric attitude (ecological worldview), and attachment to community.

Wong (1996) has also commented on the importance of the host community, recognising that there is considerable strength in public opinion. This strength can lead politicians to delay or even oppose projects if community support is against them. Like Bolton (1997), Wong (1996) concludes that community attitudes are fundamental in planning processes.

3.1.5 Participation and empowerment

There is general agreement in the tourism literature that hosts should have a full participatory role in every stage of development of a tourism proposal (Kamsma and Bras 2000, Jackson and Morpeth 2000). But, as Bolton (1997:241) warns, host participation is not a proven solution to all problems. If hosts resent the intrusion and attention of outsiders, for whatever reason, then it is reasonable to assume that they might also resent the existence of a wildlife tourism attraction. Bolton (1997:146) suggests that this situation can be avoided by keeping people and wildlife separated; that is, do not encourage tourists at the wildlife tourism attraction to also interact with hosts. This, however, seems an evasive method that may solve some of the host discontent but may also exacerbate it by excluding hosts from something that they may in fact want to be involved with. It is also a method that effectively avoids any chance of real empowerment for the host community.

Sofield (in press) posits that community empowerment is a crucial element in attaining sustainable tourism, but that further research is

needed to understand how such empowerment is best achieved. In particular, Sofield (in press: 282) notes a need to 'better understand sustainable development, the role of empowerment ..., and residents' perceptions, values and priorities regarding tourism's place in their community'.

What the majority of the literature emphasises is that hosts cannot be excluded, that they are a crucial element in the sustainability of any tourism venture, and that there are many factors that influence their attitudes toward and satisfaction with an attraction. Whilst some of these issues have been studied in the context of tourism in general, very little has been studied in the context of wildlife tourism in particular, and this gap urgently needs filling.

3.2 The Questionnaire

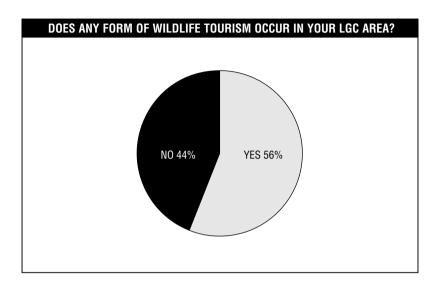
As stated in Chapter 2, a questionnaire was sent to 705 Local Government Councils. 320 of those 705 (45.5%) responded. Results from the questionnaire illustrate the magnitude and depth of the topic being dealt with. Results show not only what wildlife tourism occurs around Australia and the levels of community involvement, but also what the LGCs know about wildlife tourism in their area. There are also interesting findings with regard to what the council officers identified as wildlife tourism and how they rated the importance of host community involvement.

3.2.1 Occurrence of wildlife tourism in Australia

The respondents were asked to answer the question 'Does any form of wildlife tourism occur in your LGC area?' Just over half of the LGCs answered 'yes' (182/320 = 56.5%),¹¹ suggesting that, while under researched, this form of tourism currently occurs across half the country (see Figure 1). It is from this base of positive responses that the following results have been derived.

[&]quot;The results given in this section are all cited as a percentage of the total. See Appendix B for further detail.

Figure 1: Occurrence of Wildlife Tourism in Local Government Councils Areas in Australia



The most obvious reason for an absence of wildlife tourism relates to the location of the particular Council area. The town of Kwinana, for example, responded that no wildlife tourism exists within it. Kwinana is south of Perth, Western Australia, and although a coastal location, it is also a very industrial area containing some of the state's largest refineries and thus would seem to be a very unsuitable location for wildlife tourism. Some Council areas are also very urban, and thus contain no wildlife tourism. The City of Nedlands, for example, within the Perth metropolitan area, reported no wildlife tourism, as did the City of Boroondara, Victoria, which replied that 'our City is a little too settled to indulge in wildlife tourism'.

Important also in the decision by each council to record 'yes' or 'no' to this question may be their perceived definition of 'wildlife tourism'. For the purpose of the questionnaire wildlife tourism was defined loosely as 'any tourism involving any wildlife', and thus each respondent's decision was based on their own perception of what constitutes wildlife tourism. As a result, responses included reference

to what we have defined as a wildlife tourism 'experience or encounter' as well as 'activity', 'operation, venture or enterprise'. 12

This lack of a structured definition may also account for some discrepancies between answers by different councils. The aforementioned town of Kwinana, for example, incorporates the city of Rockingham. At the end of the Rockingham Jetty is an artificial reef made of tyres placed there approximately 15 years ago to attract people snorkelling and scuba diving. Those using the reef in this way view coral and fish as part of their experience. Is this wildlife tourism? It could be that the town of Kwinana is not recognising this as a tourist attraction because they have categorised most of the people as local visitors rather than tourists, and because the wildlife (in this case ocean life) is not necessarily the attracting feature.

A similar situation exists in the City of Nedlands. The City of Nedlands includes some small parkland areas alongside the Swan River. Undomesticated birds, such as ducks, seagulls and pelicans, reside on and near the river and people visiting the parks often interact with the birds by feeding them. Again, the people are more likely to be local residents using the recreation feature, and are therefore visitors instead of tourists, and their reason for interaction with the wildlife based on a motivation to visit the park first and foremost rather than the wildlife. The City of Nedlands also contains the Pelican Point Nature Reserve, with a bird hyde and viewing platform constructed for and opened by the Duke of Edinborough during his trip to Perth for the Commonwealth Games in 1964. Several thousand birders visit Pelican Point each year, yet this local government council did not identify this as wildlife tourism.

3.2.2 Types and forms

Respondents were asked to identify what wildlife tourism occurs in their LGC area. Identified were 463 situations of wildlife tourism. Of these, bird watching (49.1%) was the most commonly

¹² For the wildlife tourism report series, 'wildlife tourism' is defined as 'tourism focusing on non-domesticated animals'. A 'wildlife tourism activity' is a generic term used for any managed tourism experience, while a 'wildlife tourism experience or encounter' is a broader term referring to any type of tourist encounter with wildlife, and a 'wildlife tourism operation, venture or enterprise' includes any business or organisation that includes wildlife encounters as a planned component of its operation. For further information see Higginbottom *et al.* (2001).

acknowledged type. Other popular types included visiting a wildlife park or sanctuary (35.0%), and visiting a national park (29.8%). These have in common the fact that they require little effort on behalf of the tourist in order to have the experience, and can be undertaken by most tourists regardless of age, gender or financial status, thus giving the potential to appeal to a large number of people.

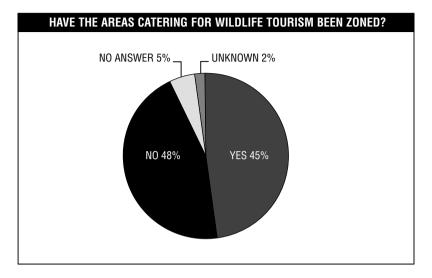
A wide range of other activities was also identified. These varied from consumptive activities such as fishing (10.5%) to non-consumptive activities such as watching possums, frogs and platypus (each 1.75%). Responses vary from answers that indicate the nature of the wildlife (for example, 'bird watching') to those that identify what the tourism is (for example, 'National Park'). This question also asked about the location of the attraction. Most of the answers to this question were specific (e.g. 'Reedy's Swamp'), but some were more general (e.g. 'all parks'). Consequently, we now have a general idea of the wildlife tourism that occurs and where.¹³

3.2.3 Formal recognition

Question 4 asked whether the wildlife tourism identified in the previous question is zoned. This tells us about the formal nature of the wildlife tourism attraction. Results indicated that approximately half were zoned (44.5%) and half were not (48.5%). Four of the 180 (2.25%) LGCs did not know the zoning status of the wildlife tourism, while eight of the 180 (4.75%) did not record a response to this question (see Figure 2).

¹³ These data complement information provided in Higginbottom et al. (2001) on formalised wildlife tourism attractions and tours.

Figure 2: Zoning of wildlife tourism

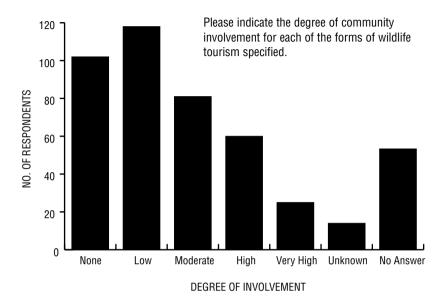


Respondents were also asked how the attraction was zoned, which informs us whether the wildlife tourism was established enough to be zoned as a tourist attraction or whether it was a less formal venture and not incorporated within a separately zoned area.

3.2.4 Community involvement

Respondents were asked about the degree of community involvement in the wildlife tourism identified, and were requested to choose the level of involvement from one of five (no involvement, low, moderate, high or very high involvement) (see Figure 3). In some cases (14/463 = 3%) the LGC stated they did not know anything about community involvement, while 11.5% (54/463) did not give an answer. This lack of an answer is interesting in itself as it suggests that community involvement is often not a formal or regulated thing, which provokes the question of whether the majority of community involvement in wildlife tourism attractions is voluntary. If in fact this is the case (and we do not know the answer without further research), then what factors influence local involvement? What motivates them to become involved in the first instance? To discover the answer to these questions, we would need to conduct interviews with members of host communities.

Figure 3: Community involvement with wildlife tourism



Of those LGCs who did know about community involvement, most recorded it as 'low' (117/463 = 25.5%). The second most common category was that of 'no involvement' (105/463 = 22.5%). Of the five levels given to choose from, the 'very high' level was indicated as the least common (25/463 = 5.5%).

Community involvement in wildlife tourism attractions appears to vary widely according to the shire and the attraction. In general, if the facility was privately owned and operated then little or no community involvement was recorded. Examples of this include The Australian Reptile Park in Somersby, New South Wales, an emu farm in Mirboo, Victoria, the Bimbimbie Wildlife Park and the Gumbaya Park in Victoria that were both described a 'purely commercial', a deer farm near Cootamundra, New South Wales, and the Waratah Park in Duffy's Forest, New South Wales, which was described as a 'private enterprise'.

Where no involvement was identified (22.5%), this was often attributed to the fact that the tourism attraction is privately owned.

Under these circumstances it may be that the locals are not permitted to become involved. Again, further research both with the hosts and with the owners of the attraction would need to be undertaken to ascertain the correctness of this assumption.

Quite a lot of involvement by hosts was identified (289/394 = 73.5%). This answer could be inflated simply because we asked the question; that is, it may be recognised as a desirable thing for the local community to be involved. Several of the LGCs explained that locals had been consulted and involved from early stages. Whatever the reason, at this early stage we can only begin to get a superficial picture from this data. It raises as many questions for further research.

Respondents were also requested to describe how the host community was involved with the wildlife tourism attraction(s) identified. The answers to this question are more qualitative than quantitative and give a measure for what was meant by 'low, moderate', and so on. For example, if the answer for level of involvement was 'high', respondents were then able to describe this (e.g. 'occasional guide') in their following answer. This again is important for future research as it will assist us to choose a community that is actively involved versus one that is not.

How host communities are involved with wildlife tourism also varies significantly. Although LGCs often correlated private enterprises with no involvement, there is perhaps a lack of recognition that employees at these enterprises often live within the local community. Many of the types of involvement cited in this section of the questionnaire included hosts working as guides, either voluntarily or paid. Another common type of involvement is through 'friends of ...' organisations (see case study 3.3.2).

Results from the questionnaire illustrate the different levels and styles of community involvement existing in wildlife tourism (ranging from nil involvement to entire community involvement in a project). For example, host communities are sometimes custodians of the wildlife tourism, as is the case with some Aboriginal groups in the Northern Territory. At Kakadu and Uluru the local landowners have a majority of members in the National Parks' Management Boards, act as guides, and determine policy and practice. In some situations there is active

and specific involvement by host communities with wildlife for tourism (e.g. Kangaroo Island, South Australia – penguins, seal colonies and koalas), while in other situations there is no involvement at all.

The results also tell us that there are a wide range of wildlife tourism activities that occur around Australia, that host communities are often involved with these attractions, and their involvement is sometimes acknowledged by the LGCs. Where the local community is not involved, most frequently in the cases of privately controlled attractions, we do not know whether this exclusion is willing or not but we do know that where the activities are government controlled or monitored then there is often encouragement for the hosts to be included.

3.2.5 Unrealised potentials

Many respondents identified someone in their organisation for us to contact in the future, thus providing a useful contact for further research questions. We will be able to decide what to focus on from the results of this questionnaire and then contact those involved.

Respondents were also asked if they had any additional comments to make. Most left this section blank, though some did use this section to provide us with other useful contacts. A small number (such as the Indigo and Moorabool Shires in Victoria) indicated here that they expected wildlife tourism to increase in their areas in the future. For these areas, the potential was there (that is, they must have identified some wildlife) but the infrastructure was not yet in place to support this as a formal tourism attraction. These comments suggest a recent interest, and focus on, wildlife as a form of tourism by the LGCs.

Overall, results from the questionnaires illustrate for us the breadth of wildlife tourism around Australia. It is recorded as occurring in 56.5% of the LGC areas, and ranges from consumptive activities such as fishing to non-consumptive activities such as bird watching. It takes place in formal (e.g. Wildlife Sanctuaries) and informal (e.g. non-zoned coastal areas) situations, and host involvement ranges from very high (5.5%) to non-existent (22.5%) depending on a range of factors.

3.3 Case Studies

Many potential case studies became clear from the results of the questionnaire. However, before outlining these a recent report is discussed that may also be useful in preparing guidelines for host involvement in wildlife tourism in Australia.

3.3.1 Nature based tourism strategy for Western Australia

In 1997, the Nature Based Tourism Advisory Committee in Western Australia prepared a report. The report outlines a Nature Based Tourism Strategy for the state and recognises both host community and Aboriginal community involvement (1997:16). Wildlife tourism, in places such as the Shark Bay World Heritage Area (dolphins) and Ningaloo Reef (whale sharks), is incorporated in this recent strategy, and the report mentions many of the key issues raised in the current literature (as reviewed above). For example, it notes that financial benefits and employment opportunities from this form of tourism can provide significant benefits to host communities, and recognises that opportunities exist for host communities to participate in the tourism industry as tour operators and providers of knowledge, services, facilities and products. Although it stresses these benefits and opportunities, it does not explain how they will be realised.

The report states that 'local communities should be encouraged to develop plans and strategies to develop and enhance tourism in their localities in accordance with their cultural practices'. This type of involvement may be difficult, especially in more remote areas where host communities may have little experience or prior involvement in the tourism industry.

In addition, the report recognises the important role host communities can play in the planning stages of tourism activities and that involvement of hosts can assist in protecting the natural environment (including wildlife) and ensuring that interactions between hosts and tourists are perceived as positive. It also raises the notion of community attachment with comment that 'local people develop personal and historical attachments to natural areas which assist their long-term protection.' The knowledge that comes from

this attachment and the involvement of people with this knowledge in planning processes, as we know from the literature, has positive implications for the sustainable use of tourism areas and attractions.

Given the encouraging wording of this document, and the fact that the ideas behind it seem grounded in relevant and recent literature, it has potential as a topic for further evaluation to determine if the goals of host community participation are reached successfully.

3.3.2 Lancelin Island

An example of a wildlife tourism situation that clearly illustrates many of the points raised in this report is that of Lancelin Island, Western Australia. Community involvement in this example takes a range of forms, exemplifying both the complexity and the importance of this type of involvement in wildlife tourism.

Lancelin Island is located 110 km north of Perth, approximately 700 m off the coast of the township of Lancelin. The town has approximately 600 permanent residents, most of who work in the nearby fishing or farming industries, although a large number are also retired. The number of residents swells to a peak of approximately 6,000 during the summer season, due to Lancelin's popularity as a holiday destination and attractions such as the annual Lancelin Classic windsurfing competition. Some of these people have holiday homes in Lancelin, spending part of the year residing in the town and part of the year elsewhere. Other peak times include the spring school holiday period, as well as long weekends throughout the year (especially during the summer months).

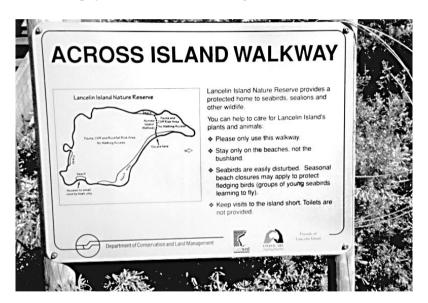
Lancelin Island has been gazetted as a nature reserve since 1974, and has a total land area of approximately 8.2 ha. Little is formally recorded about visitor numbers and types to the island.¹⁴ However, it is well known that the island is a popular destination for visitors engaged in activities such as picnicking, snorkelling, diving, fishing, and bird watching. Some local residents traditionally visit the island for New Year celebrations, and it is estimated that numbers of visitors to the island can exceed several hundred at a time during peak visitor

¹⁴ A study is currently being undertaken by a researcher from Murdoch University that should soon provide this necessary information.

days (CALM 1998). Thus, the local community as well as people from further afield are users of the island for recreational purposes. The island's status was upgraded to an A Class Nature Reserve in 1989 in recognition of its unique flora and fauna, ¹⁵ and over the last 2-3 years increasing concern for the welfare and conservation of the flora and fauna has prompted changes to the way the island is managed.

The concern has come predominantly from a group calling themselves the 'Friends of Lancelin Island' (FLI) who, without formal membership registration or a bank account, have rallied to raise funds and muster both government and community action towards conservation of the island. This resulted in the construction, in May 1999, of a walkway across a heavily traversed section of the island (see Plate 1 and Plate 2).

Plate 1: Signpost at start of walkway



¹⁵ For further information on the island's flora and fauna see Browne-Cooper and Brad (1992); CALM (1998); Dunlop (1979, 1997a, 1997b); Green (1999); Jones (1996); Pearson and Jones (1995, 1996).

Plate 2: Walkway across Lancelin Island



The FLI group is comprised of approximately 50% local community members (fishermen, school teachers, nurses, parents, etc) and 50% non-locals (also described as the 'community of interest') many of whom reside in Perth but have an associated interest in the island (based on birds, conservation, or the island itself). These two groups of people became concerned about the island at the same time and joined forces, and this combination of members has been significant for the group's success. The local people provide local knowledge, and are strongly motivated by their own interests and concerns. However, they needed connections with people who could work with government bodies to enable change. This is provided by the nonlocals, resulting in an important partnership that drove an interim plan of management for the island. The Department of Conservation and Land Management (CALM) could not access financial resources for the island without such a plan, and the FLI were responsible for bringing the process forward and enabling public consultation.

CALM, the managing agency, then obtained a grant from Coastcare for \$50,000 with FLI as the necessary community partner.

Another way the community is involved with the island is through the local school. In November 1999 members of the FLI group took the Year Fours (aged 8-9 years) from the Lancelin Primary School on an 'environmental excursion' to the island. While there, the children positioned 15 nesting boxes for bridled terns under the walkway. The boxes had been made at the school in 'technology and enterprise' classes. The children also took cuttings of plant material from the island, which they intend to grow at the school and then return to the island to rehabilitate trampled areas.

FLI began this project with the school three years ago and take children to the island 2-3 days per year, as well as giving regular talks at the school. Impacts of visitors to the island are shown to the school children and they engage in activities such as rubbish collection, closing unwanted tracks, and planting on the island. The aim of this involvement of children by FLI is to educate and motivate future carers of the island.

This case study shows the diverse and effective way the local community is involved with the management of this wildlife tourism attraction, and the importance and benefits of such involvement. The aim of the walkway, according to the FLI, was not to encourage increased tourism but rather to control the impact of visitors already crossing the island to access alternate beaches. However, CALM, in the 'Interim Guidelines for Management' (1998:8), does not rule out the possibility of commercial ventures on Lancelin Island; stating that 'proposals to operate commercial ventures such as ferry operations, eco-tours or educational walks will be evaluated on their merits and compliance with the purpose of a Nature Reserve'. Such commercialisation would almost inevitably lead to an increase in visitation, in contrast to the wishes of the FLI group whose concerns focus on the adverse impacts the current level of visitation causes.

This stance emphasises the principled conservation advocacy of community involvement. The way the island was being used was unsustainable. Recent involvement of the local community, at their

own initiative, has lead to changes that are likely to enhance sustainability of the wildlife on the island.

3.3.3 Other case studies

In choosing further case studies, a beneficial strategy would be to compare host communities that illustrate a range of involvement with wildlife tourism. Some possible cases, across the full spectrum, for this type of study are as follows:

- 1. No wildlife tourism. The Moorabool Shire in Victoria currently does not have any formal wildlife tourism. However, the potential for this form of tourism has been recognised there and it is something the LGC is keen to develop.
- 2. No involvement. Waratah Park in Duffy's Forest, New South Wales, is a private enterprise that offers no involvement for the local host community. It is a wildlife park, marketed as the home of 'Skippy' from the popular television series of the 1960s and 70s, which displays Australian native fauna.
- 3. Low involvement. The Osprey House Environmental Centre at Dohles Rocks in Queensland is an accredited ecotourism attraction in the Pine Rivers Shire Council. The centre is not zoned, but is part of a road reserve. It includes many wetlands/mangrove types of wildlife, including migratory shore birds in their natural habitat. Community volunteers, who maintain a low level of involvement, run the centre.
- 4. Moderate involvement. The Dolphin Discovery Centre in Bunbury, Western Australia, is a non-profit association established in 1989. The Trust is dedicated to promoting wildlife tourism, in the interests of developing economic and employment opportunities for the local community. The centre has a strong volunteer program. Recruitment occurs each October and all successful volunteers participate in a 20-hour training program. During the summer months there are between 15 and 25 volunteers, though this decreases to approximately eight in the winter months. Volunteers assist in the management

- of tourist dolphin interaction, and are responsible for providing information to visitors when they arrive at the Centre.
- 5. High involvement. Bird watching in the Barraba Shire, New South Wales, involves a high level of community involvement. The claiming of Barraba as a habitat of the Regent Honey Eater (RHE) and the depiction of this bird on the 'welcome to Barraba' signs has been a community initiative. The host community has also been responsible for setting up designated bird watching trails through the district, and for promoting 'birds of the district' via the media. A bird watchers club has been set up and members act as guides to visitors and tourists. The locals produce and distribute literature promoting Barraba as a destination for bird watching, as well as designing wine labels (again of the RHE) and printing t-shirts and tea towels.

Other alternatives could be to choose case studies that consider different types of tenure, or differing proximity of the wildlife tourism attraction to the host population clusters to determine the effect of type or location on host satisfaction and involvement, and thus sustainability.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The findings in this report are derived from an extensive survey of relevant literature, from a questionnaire sent to local governments, and from fieldwork. The findings, particularly those in the literature review, have been largely extrapolated from the general tourism literature. This is because host involvement with wildlife tourism is a very recent area of scientific enquiry and involves a broad range of disciplines. It is also a field in which gaps in the knowledge are considerable as there have been relatively few studies in human dimensions of wildlife tourism.

From the findings in this report, we know that host interaction with wildlife tourism ranges over a broad spectrum and, as has been noted, the interest in both wildlife tourism and human dimensions of wildlife tourism has grown considerably in recent years. We also know that the place and role of host communities and their relationship to and interaction with wildlife will have a direct impact upon the sustainability of those resources. Thus, this is a new and broad field that holds tremendous importance and promise for all concerned with wildlife tourism attractions

RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Research

It is necessary to devise guidelines and recommendations for host community involvement in wildlife tourism that are likely to result in sustainability of the attraction, from the host perspective. To do this, data need to be collected from communities where wildlife tourism is perceived as successful (financially, socially and environmentally) and the locals are satisfied with it. Questions need to be asked of these data to determine what makes this particular situation a success. This should then be contrasted with data from sites that are not perceived as successful, to determine why one succeeded and the other did not, and to establish the fundamental differences between them.

Findings from the literature suggest that there is a correlation between attitude of hosts and their degree of involvement. If this is correct, it should be possible to produce a model to predict the effects of community attitudes. Such a model would allow us to make decisive recommendations providing advice, mechanisms and techniques on how the tourism industry can better co-exist and provide benefits to host communities affected by their operations. The Tourism Impact Scale devised by Ap and Crompton (1998) would be valuable in this process, as would the theoretical paradigm posed by Jurowski *et al.* (1997). However, our questionnaire has not measured host attitudes. It has identified wildlife tourism attractions and whether a local/host community is involved with each attraction. From this, we can contact hosts for more information in the next phase of the study.

Findings from the questionnaire suggest that there are gaps in the knowledge of LGCs about wildlife tourism in Australia. Local government is often the decision maker that brings new projects (such as wildlife tourism) into the community. Their role is important, and therefore it is recommended that we find ways of informing and educating local government officers in such a way that may stimulate their interest. To do this, we propose to examine several case studies looking at different aspects of the host community and wildlife tourism relationship with a view to identifying benefits (social,

environmental, economical, educational, etc.) of such tourism for communities. We would then disseminate this information to all the LGCs in both the form of a report and by holding workshops for their planning/development officers.

5.2 Action

It is recommended that communities and organisations seeking to develop or to increase wildlife tourism be aware of the complex nature of formulating host support. When attempting to maximise the benefits for a specific community, planners should gather information about individuals in that community who stand to gain economically from the development, those who are currently using the resource to be developed, those who are attached to their community, and those with strong environmental attitudes.

It is also recommended that LGCs be better educated and informed about wildlife tourism, and suggestions for how to achieve this have been outlined above.

Jurowski et al. (1997:10) have evidence to suggest that internal marketing campaigns should explain social benefits to reduce opposition by host community, and that businesses should promote their ecological efforts to the host community, whose support they need, as well as to the customers. In addition, education and interpretation programs for the host community could be useful in the reduction of opposition by them and as a means of gaining their support.

It is strongly recommended that this project move into its next phase with detailed analysis of a range of communities to explore the many issues associated with the spectrum of wildlife tourism opportunities raised above

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APPENDIX A: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Wildlife Tourism Status Assessment Project The Host Community: Social and Cultural Issues Concerning Wildlife Tourism

Dear tourism planning officer

As part of a Wildlife Tourism Status Assessment being undertaken by the Co-operative Research Centre (CRC) for Sustainable Tourism, we are compiling a report entitled 'The Host Community: Social and Cultural Issues Concerning Wildlife Tourism'. The aim of this report is to identify and describe factors that influence the sustainability of wildlife tourism from the social and cultural perspectives of local communities involved.

We are trying to achieve the aim of this report by analysing existing information on hosts and wildlife tourism. As local government councils are an important source of information when trying to identify what wildlife tourism happens in their respective communities and what involvement each of their communities has in this form of tourism, we are sending you this e-mail requesting your co-operation.

Please type your answers to the questions stated below in the designated boxes and return the document (as an attachment to your e-mail) to us as soon as possible. Your answers will help us to obtain the required information about wildlife tourism in Australia's communities and therefore produce this much-needed report.

If you wish to know anything further about this research please do not hesitate to contact us

Thanking you in advance for your assistance.

Leah Burns (co-ordinator), Griffith University.

Email: Leah.Burns@mailbox.gu.edu.au

Dr Trevor Sofield (senior researcher), Murdoch University.

Fax: (08) 9360 7091

Carlo Gelissen (research assistant), Murdoch University.

Email: cgelisse@central.murdoch.edu.au

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Which Local Government	Council (hereafter	to be referred	to as LGC)
do you represent?			

Ouestion 2:

Does any form of wildlife tourism (loosely defined for this purpose as any tourism involving any wildlife) occur in your LGC-area? Please answer by choosing yes or no.

If yes, then please proceed to question 3.

If no, please proceed to question 7.

Question 3:

Please identify what wildlife tourism occurs in your LGC-area, and where it is located. In case of more than five, please add.

	WHAT KIND OF WILDLIFE TOURISM	LOCATION
A		
В		
С		
D		
E		

Question 4:

Have the areas that are catering for wildlife tourism been zoned? Please answer by choosing yes or no.

YES NO

If yes, please give details of this zoning with regard to each form of wildlife tourism present in your LGC-area below.

Α	
В	
C	
D	
E	

If no, please proceed to question 5.

Question 5:

Please indicate the degree of community involvement (including the involvement of any indigenous groups) for each of the forms of wildlife tourism that you specified at question 2. Please choose the level of involvement from the following:

No involvement Low involvement Moderate involvement High involvement Very high involvement

A	
В	
C	
D	
Е	

Question 6:

Please describe the type of involvement (once again including the involvement of any indigenous groups) the community has with each of the forms of wildlife tourism mentioned at question 2 (e.g. the

	is of the best person in your organisation to contact in oly name including contact details).
B C D E	
D E Question 7:	
E Question 7:	
Question 7:	
Plaasa inform us	
Name	
Position	
Address	
Phone number	
Fax number	
Email	
Do you have a	any further comments?

APPENDIX B: CALCULATIONS

Two slightly different cover sheets were used for the questionnaire to allow for different instructions for those replying by email and those replying by postal mail.

705 Local Government Councils in total

198 Contacted by email (25/8/99, reminder sent 14/9/99)

507 Contacted by postal mail (16/9/99)

At the time this report was first drafted (17/1/00), results had been calculated for all those who responded to questionnaires.

Total responses = 320/705 (45.5%)

Question 2: Of the 320 who replied, 138 (43.5%) identified no

WT in their LGC area. Leaving 182 (56.5%) as the

base for responses.

Question 3: Number of incidents of wildlife tourism recorded

= 463

Question 4: 44.5% were zoned (81/182)

48.5% were not zoned (89/182)

2.25% responded that they did not know about

zoning (4/182)

4.75% did not respond to this question (8/182)

Question 5: No Involvement = 105/463 = 22.5%

Low Involvement = 117/463 = 25.5%

Moderate Involvement = 82/463 = 18%

High Involvement = 65/463 = 13.5%

Very High Involvement = 25/463 = 5.5%

3% responded that they did not know about community involvement (14/463)

11.5% did not respond to this question (55/463)

Total involvement = 117+82+65+25/463-(55+14) = 289/394 = 73.5%

AUTHORS

Georgette Leah Burns

Leah Burns is a Lecturer in the Environmental Science Faculty at Griffith University. She obtained her Masters degree, in anthropology, from the University of Western Australia in 1997 and is currently undertaking her PhD through Murdoch University. Her research initially focused on the effects of tourism on indigenous people, with Fiji as the central location of this focus for 10 years. Ecotourism is a more recent research interest, as is the influence of local communities on sustainable tourism development. Email: Leah.Burns@mailbox.gu.edu.au

Dr Trevor Sofield

Dr Sofield is Foundation Professor, Tourism Program, University of Tasmania, and Adjunct Professor of Tourism, Murdoch University, Western Australia. He lectures in Tourism Policy and Planning; Naturebased Tourism; and Cultural/Heritage/Indigenous Tourism. As a former diplomat with residence in Tanzania, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Vanuatu, New Caledonia, Solomon Islands and Fiji he has a wide first-hand experience of tourism issues in the Asia Pacific region. He was a founding member of the Asia Pacific Tourism Association (APTA) that has more than 40 of Asia's leading tourism universities as its members. He is the Australian national representative to APTA, and a member of its executive. He is a Resource Editor for the world's leading tourism academic journal. 'Annals of Tourism Research', and on the editorial boards of "Journal of Sustainable Tourism", "Pacific Tourism Review" and "Anatolia". He is also Tasmanian state Director of the Australian National Cooperative Research Centre (CRC) for Sustainable Tourism, and is on its Steering Committees for its Regional Tourism Development Program, Policy and Economic Planning Program, and its International Research Program. Dr Sofield's interest in regional tourism issues extends over many years and he has undertaken research, consultancies, and has been involved in such projects in Australia, China, 12 South Pacific Island countries (including Fiji, Micronesia, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tahiti, Tonga, and Vanuatu), Indonesia, Malaysia, Vietnam and Nepal. In the past eight years, China had become a focus of research interest. E-mail: tsofield@utas.edu.au

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- The Host Community, Social and Cultural Issues Concerning Wildlife Tourism – Burns & Sofield
- Negative Effects of Wildlife Tourism Green & Higginbottom
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email: trish@crctourism.com.au or Telephone: +61 7 5552 9053



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- Sustainable Tourism Holdings CEO – Peter O'Clery (poclery@interact.net.au)
- National Centre for Tourism
 Managing Director Stewart Moore (nct@ug.net.au)
- Green Globe Asia Pacific CEO Graeme Worboys

(graeme.worboys@ggasiapacific.com.au)

For more information contact:
Communications Manager – Brad Cox
CRC for Sustainable Tourism Pty Ltd
Griffith University, PMB 50
GOLD COAST MC, Qld 9726
Ph: +61 7 5552 8116, Fax: +61 7 5552 8171
Visit: www.crctourism.com.au or email:
Brad@crctourism.com.au

Northern Territory Node Coordinator Ms Alicia Boyle Ph: 08 8946 6084

alicia.boyle@ntu.edu.au

CAIRNS Cairns Node Coordinator Prof Philip Pearce Ph: 07 4781 4762 philip.pearce@icu.edu.au

CTC Sustainable Tourism crctourism.com.au

PERTH Western Australia Node Coordinator Prof Jack Carlsen Ph: 08 9266 1132 CarlsenJ@cbs.curtin.edu.au

ADELAIDE

South Australia Node
Coordinator
Prof Graham Brown
Ph: 08 8302 0313
graham.brown@unisa.edu.au

CANBERRA Industry Extension Coordinator Mr Peter O'Clery

Ph: 02 6230 2931 poclery@iprimus.com.au

Australian Capital Territory Node Coordinator Prof Trevor Mules Ph: 02 6201 5016 tjm@comedu.canberra.edu.au

MELBOURNE *

Director of Research Prof Leo Jago Ph: 03 9688 5055 Leo.jago@vu.edu.au

LAUNCESTON ---

Tasmania Node Coordinator Prof Trevor Sofield Ph: 03 6324 3578 trevor.sofield@utas.edu.au

BRISBANE

Tourism Engineering, Design and Technology Research Dr David Lockington

Dr David Lockington Ph: 07 3365 4054 d.lockington@uq.edu.au

IT & Informatics Research Dr Pramod Sharma Ph: 07 3365 6513 p.sharma@uq.edu.au

Sustainable Tourism Services
Mr Stewart Moore

Managing Director Ph: 07 3211 4726 sts@crctourism.com.au

Education Program Coordinator Dr John Fien Ph: 07 3875 7105 i.fien@mailbox.gu.edu.au

GOLD COAST

Chief Executive Prof Terry De Lacy Ph: 07 5552 8172 t.delacy@mailbox.gu.edu.au

Conservation and Environmental Management Research Prof Ralf Buckley

Prof Ralf Buckley Ph: 07 5552 8675 r.buckley@mailbox.gu.edu.au

LISMORE

Centre for Regional Tourism Research Prof Peter Baverstock Ph: 02 6620 3809 pbaverst@scu.edu.au

SYDNEY
New South Wales
Node Coordinator
Mr Tony Griffin
Ph: 02 9514 5103
tony.griffin@uts.edu.au

International Program Co-ordinator Dr Johannes Bauer Ph: 02 6338 4284 jbauer@csu.edu.au