LOCAL COMMUNITIES AS SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PARTNERS

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Local communities as sustainable tourism development partners

ABSTRACT

The Egyptian Strategic Tourism Development Plans are trying to play an increasingly important role in supporting the hoped-for transformation of Egypt's undeveloped areas into world-class tourism destinations. The plans aim to add a considerable number of hotel rooms in the Red Sea region within the immediately forthcoming years. Particular natural features such as corals and other marine characteristics provide the main supply of revenue for locals, including fishermen; however they also constitute at the same time the core tourism attraction. Local people feel their land rights are being challenged by outsiders and threatened by planned tourism development of the area. They fear being cut off from traditional opportunities. Tourism development in the Red Sea region is characterized by the disregard of communities and illustrates the failure to improve local development and alleviation of poverty.

This research investigated the relationship between mass-tourism development and local communities in the southern part of the Red Sea region. It has been undertaken to investigate barriers to change and assess means of promoting local communities involvement and evaluate roles and values of their participation. The study sought to clarify the conflicts between local communities and government which result from the tourism development structure, which has neglected locals' rights. Consequently, the concept of sustainable tourism development (STD) and the interaction between tourism and environment, economy, society and culture are examined along with in depth analysis of the main characteristics influencing the host community.

The investigation aims to understand the range of perception of tourism development stakeholders, so local communities, private sector parties, decision makers and tourism development facilitators such as consultants and NGOs have been investigated. Local communities' opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses have been explored. Under the umbrella of STD a clear vision arises of the existing conditions surrounding local

communities, not only in terms of their needs and their problems but also as a means to categorize local communities' customs, intercultural and traditional life style. Recommendations aimed to secure improvements for local communities are discussed through explaining a rationale, standards, policy integration and roles for tourism development stakeholders. It is suggested that by promoting local communities' key factors and using a community-based tourism approach in the study area, local people may be empowered and problems that hinder sustainability may be addressed.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my research to the spirit of my father.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACCE	American Chamber of Commerce in Egypt
CBET	Community-based ecotourism
CBT	Community-based tourism
CCC	Community carrying capacity
CDA	Community Development Association
CI	Conservation International
DHI	Danish toxicology centre in cooperation with ministry of tourism
EIUL	Economist Intelligence Unit Limited
EEAA	Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency
GOE	Government of Egypt
HEPCA	Hurghada Environmental Protection and Conservation Association
IDCs	Integrated tourism development centers
IGICB	Indonesian Government Investment Coordinating Board
ICLEI	International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives
ICG	International Crisis Group
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
JICA	Japans International Cooperation Aide
LAC	Limit of acceptable change
MOT	Ministry of Tourism
CNI	Native Community of Inferno
NG	National Government
NGOs	Non governmental organizations
PRLC	Project for Recovery of Life and Culture
RFE	Rain Forest Expeditions
RSG	Red Sea Governorates
CBD	Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity
SAP	Strategic Action Programme for the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden
SOS	Safaga Oceanic Society
SRS	Southern of the Red Sea
WCED	The World Commission on Environment and Development
IUCN	The World Conservation Union
WFP	The World Food Programme
TAT	Tourism Authority of Thailand
TCC	Tourism carrying capacity
TDA	Tourism development authority
TDCs	Tourism development centers
TCC	Tourism carrying capacity
TNRMA	Trans-boundary Natural Resources Management Approach
UN	United Nations
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UPA	Urban Planning Authority
WTO	World tourism organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

PREFACE

Over the years, the author has witnessed the tourism boom and rapid transformation of many native tribes from coastal villages to growing tourist cities, and has experienced from understanding how development has affected local people and fishing communities. With the advent of these changes, native communities find themselves living and operating within different contexts. The main goal of this thesis is to develop a type of planning that advocates and integrates community-based considerations in the life cycle of Egypt's national development plans, particularly tourism and local development. The outcome of this work is intended to directly integrate, what is seen in the varied communities and environment of Egypt's vast undeveloped land as a planner and the problems for which solutions are sought in the field. There is a strong interest in pursuing research into the mechanisms of community-based planning from an environmental perspective and to translate those findings into tools for the integration of community and the tourism national development plans in Egypt and the realization of the native community as development partners.

THE RESEARCH INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction

Two billion people will be added to the world's population over the next 30 years, and another 1 billion over the following 20 years. Most of this increase will occur in developing countries, and almost entirely in urban areas. Today, 2.8 billion people in developing countries live on less than $2 a day (World Bank, 2003, p.2). The core challenge for sustainable development is to ensure better quality of life for all these people while meeting everyone's aspirations for well-being in the future. The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) annual report (2004) considers "this demands substantial growth in income and productivity in developing countries. At the same time, it is necessary to sustain critical ecosystem services and strengthen the social fabric that underpins development". The CBD states that by 2025 three-quarters of the world's people may live within 100 kilometers of the sea; furthermore two-thirds of all fisheries will be exploited at or beyond their sustainable limits, and half or more of the world's coral reefs may perish in this century (SCBD, 2004, pp2-6). This in turn is putting massive pressure on coastal ecosystems.

Tourism contributes to the urbanization and industrial activities to add more pressure on the coastal ecosystem; however, it is considered as one of the world's main economic sectors particularly in developing countries (UNEP, 2002a). According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1999) the leisure and tourism industry is one of the leading global economic activities; in 2000 there were almost 700 million international arrivals worldwide. In 20 years, the number of international tourists will nearly triple to 1.6 billion (WTO, 1999). Furthermore, the income generated by tourism in the form of export earnings is significant for many countries, generating some US$455 billion in 1999. Moreover, tourism also generates a considerable number of jobs, for example CBD (2004) points out that "the global tourism already accounts for over 250 million jobs at countries with high levels of poverty".

The magnitude of the tourism industry can clearly be seen from the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) statistics. The WTTC shows that in the year 2007, travel,

tourism and related activities will contribute approximately 10% of the world's GDP, growing to 10.6% by 2012. The industry is currently estimated to help generate one in every 12.8 jobs, 7.8% of total employment. This will rise to 8.6% by 2012 (WTTC, 2002). Tourism has helped to create millions of jobs in developing countries, in terms of the relative importance of different sectors for job creation. Tourism is a significant sector in almost half of the low-income countries, and in virtually all the lower-middle income countries. In most countries with high levels of poverty, tourism plays a significant role by providing over 2% of GDP or 5% of exports (UNEP, 2002, p.3).

As tourism becomes increasingly important to communities across the world, the need for sustainable tourism linked to sustainable community development becomes a primary concern. In fact it is highly likely that "without community involvement, tourism development cannot be expected to be sustainable" (ICLEI, 1999). On the one hand community involvement is a desired aim of the planning process; the attitudes of the communities to development will be affected when the government provide more attention to local communities. Indeed, the dilemma for tourism development authorities is that they both need and fear participation. Richards (2000) states that governments need people's agreement and support but they fear that this wider involvement is less controllable and precise and so is likely to slow down these planning processes. Therefore it is natural that "the government agencies that are used to full power are reluctant to encourage community participation in decision making" (Wells and Brandon, 1992). The unwillingness of local governments to adopt community involvement is perhaps due to the perception that it slows down democratic processes, as they believe that communities lack experience and knowledge of issues (Peace, 1998, p.144). On the other hand the relationship between indigenous people and their environment has been changed, from working with their land to working for tourists (King and Stewart, 1996; Morris, 1995). Ultimately tourists have begun to recognize that every piece of land used for tourism purpose is owned by someone when the community-based tourism trend is presented to them (Gunn, 1988).

The roots of community-based tourism derive from the concept of community development (Horwich et al., 1993; Lynn, 1992). That concept encompasses several goals: for instance, politically it encourages autonomy, decision making power, local participation and community control over the initiation and direction of development projects (Timothy, 1999). Economically, community development cultivates sustainable and rewarding employment that is made available to all members of the community. Further economic benefits are distributed widely and equitably, while remaining in the hands of local people rather than of outsider individuals or corporations (Wallace and Pierce, 1996). Environmentally; local community experience can provide the source of potential solutions in the sphere of sustainable development (Richards and Hall, 2003). This research investigates the conflict between mass-tourism development, poverty alleviation and local communities in the south of the Red Sea region in Egypt. It not only explores ways of promoting and improving local communities by finding roles and value of their participation, but also investigates methods to solve the problem of being cut off from traditional opportunities and life-sustaining resources, which are instead reserved for the benefit of the tourism development.

1.2 Problem definition and description

In view of the fact that Egypt's tourism industry is considered as the country's number one foreign currency earner, producing about the US $ 4 billion a year and accounting for more than 11 percent of GDP (MOT, 2003, pp.5-9), the government has adopted an aggressive tourism development plan for new tourism destinations, particularly the Red Sea region (MOT, 1999, p.11). The Red Sea region, which is considered as one of the most arid areas of the world, extends from the desert and dry land mountain ecosystems in the land of the Sudanese and towards the Gulf of Suez (see figure 1.1). The Red Sea mountain chain is bordered on one side by the coastal desert strip along the Red Sea region and by wide *wadis* that cross the desert towards the Nile and the Red Sea region (EEAA, 2001). Today, the Red Sea region is far behind the rest of Egypt in terms of economic, infrastructural and social development. It is only during the last 10 years that the coastal area has witnessed intensive tourism development and resorts have

mushroomed all along the Red Sea coast starting north of Hurghada down to Marsa Alam (Pearson, 1999). Concerns have been raised from different sides that this development has not been sustainable and that, as a result, important ecosystems have been destroyed (EEAA, 2001).

Figure 1.1: The Red Sea region
Source: Google Earth (2007)

In the coming years, the Southern Red Sea region is expected to see important increases in tourist activity. For the purposes of expanding this service industry, the local communities inhabiting the area present a vital and rich human resource (Dar el Mareef, 1982). However, there is concern that little of the revenue created by tourism will actually reach local people and local people cannot be adequately integrated into the changing economy (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). Considerable numbers of people in the local communities are living in miserable conditions (ICG, 2007). Local people are powerless and excluded from opportunities because they lack the capabilities to make the system work on their behalf (Pearson, 1999). Consequently there is a great need for auditing, impact assessments and other such exercises to ensure that decisions made to implement sustainable environmental programmes are strategic, people-focused, cost effective and truly sustainable.

There may be risks involved in mass-tourism development primarily the effects of development on natural habitat and indigenous populations (Salah El-Din, 1994; Sultan, 1992). The government has realized that the great tourism potential of the Red Sea region could be threatened by intensive tourism development (Pearson, 1999). Behbehanian (2000) argues that many local communities feel uninvolved and in some cases threatened

by the planned tourism development of the area. Individuals feel their land rights are being challenged by outsiders and fear being cut off from traditional opportunities. Additionally, regional and local plans point to increased tourism development and immigration (TDA, 2005b; MOT, 1997). Migrant entrepreneurs from other parts of Egypt compete with local communities for work opportunities, which will result in the further marginalization of local people.

1.3 The importance of the research

The coastal zone in Egypt is currently under severe and increasing pressure due to the fact that a number of development plans have been designed by different stakeholders to take place by 2017 (UNEP and the World Bank, 2000). A number of factors contribute to this situation; these include: rapid urbanization of the coast; pollution from residential, commercial and industrial activities; tourism development; resource allocation conflicts between and among users and continued development in hazard prone areas (TDA, 2005a; EEAA, 2001; Pearson, 1999). Tourism is generally concentrated in the coastal areas particularly along the Red Sea coast, which is designated to play a major role in Egypt's economic activities as one of the main tourist attraction with its sand beaches, warm coastal climate and desert and marine life.

This research comes at a critical time to explore some of the issues related to local communities' marginalization and to recommend alternative community-based development approaches. It identifies the relationship between policies and implementation techniques and their impacts in order to assist in explaining the processes involved, and future role of civil society. Tourism must be recognized as leading both to high positive and to negative impacts that will affect the development of the Red Sea region; perhaps then the achievement of community involvement in the planning and development of sustainable tourism will be changed from aspiration to a tangible reality. The study sets the stage for further research into regional development of the southern part of the Red Sea region; the role of tourism development in sustaining local

Work by the Egyptian Tourism Development Authority (TDA, 2005b) states that the oldest map in the world is that of the gold mining sites at the southern part of the Red Sea region. These sites are still pristine whole mining villages that span the entire history of mining from its prehistoric beginnings. The oldest middle Paleolithic flint mining in the world is located in the limestone hills at the Eastern Desert and there were complex gold mining operations here in Ptolemaic and Islamic times. The cultural heritage found at the southern area of the Red Sea region can potentially become a major source of revenues (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). Consequently the present research will be limited to the area between the south of Marsa Alam and Egyptian/Sudanese border; this area is designated for new tourism development destinations of Upper Egypt that may be expected to expend with a considerable number of hotel rooms by 2017.

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Figure 1.2 Children from the study area

Given Egypt's unique history and irreplaceable human and ecological heritage, insight into tourism sustainability should originate from and within a local perspective and adopt a global approach, inspired by a common vision of a better future and aspire to stimulate dialogue between cultures and people and improve respect for the environment.

1.6 Research design and structure of the thesis

A comprehensive methodology is adopted to address research questions and achieve the study goals. Multiple sources of evidence via observation, semi-structured interview, workshops and focus group discussion are investigated together with analysis of existing documents and records. The strategy of the research is based on the case study approach, which involves an investigation of the socio-cultural impact and the weaknesses and strengths of the local community. Also it includes assessment of the living conditions of the local population and examines their tourism development potential. The study explores the attitudes and interests of the local communities in particular settlements; the relations between the populations settled in and out of the tourism development zones;

internal migration patterns and a profile of the local population to assess their interest in participating in tourism development process activities. The study seeks to identify human and cultural assets that could contribute to sustainable tourism development in the southern part of the Red Sea region. The research discusses this through: **firstly** the literature review which could be divided into (1) a theoretical approach; (2) analysis of experience; (3) The Red Sea – Egypt case study. The **second** part provides analysis, evaluation and critical determination of relationships based on the outcomes of stages one, two and three and outlines the research methodology. In the **third** part the fieldwork and the research findings are identified and analyzed whilst the **forth** part presents the research discussion and conclusion.

The first part of the literature review considers the existing sustainable tourism literature linked to community development and critically examines the concept of sustainable tourism development. It also reviews concepts and ideas including environmental planning and community development. It explores the positive and negative impact of tourism on society, environment, economy and culture. This part of the literature review evaluates the interaction between tourism and environment, economy, society and culture. It examines the ecotourism experience as a source of community based tourism and the tourism carrying capacity method as an approach to control the direction and the consequences of development.

The second part of the literature review considers the global experience that analyzes integrated tourism planning and development models in order to understand positive and negative dimensions that are linked to community development. It recognizes the relation between the theoretical approach and implementation. Integrated approaches to sustainable tourism planning and development linked to local community are analyzed. A numbers of concerns are investigated in the light of its fit with current Egyptian economic, social and cultural circumstances. Aspects of planning are reviewed: regional planning, land use plans, the development process and community participation methods; how to improve local communities' participation characteristics. Criteria for sustainable tourism development are identified in parts one and two and are tested and adopted for

use in the case study part in order to compare findings. This helps to identify the various factors involved in sustainable tourism development.

The third part of the literature review provides an introduction to the case studies: (a) the national perspective is explored by analysing the Egyptian experience in coastal tourism development, tourism development polices, the role of tourism development and the institutional framework; and (b) the regional perspective is reviewed via the tourism development plan which focuses on the Red Sea region as a tourism development destination. There is an evaluation of the existing development plans, process, principles and stakeholders, assessing the environmental, economical, social and cultural perspectives.

The research methodology is developed from the above sections. The general environmental, cultural and economic framework of the local communities is categorized. Issues and concerns confronting stakeholders and the area are identified; this part presents the investigation measures and the research methods used. In the light of case study selection criteria, techniques that may apply to the fieldwork investigation are explored.

In view of the fact that the southern part of the Red Sea region is considered as a target for future tourism development plans and as the tourism development movement at the area has recently started, any conflicts between local communities and tourism development are easily identified. The profile of each selected local community (its pattern of mobility, cultural traditions and the social, physical and economic impacts of tourism) are identified at the field survey stage. In the light of the investigation measures, which were explored in previous parts, inhabitants of large, medium, and small settlements are interviewed at both coastal sites and in the "deep-range". The views of governmental and private sector stakeholders are investigated in addition to those of tourism development facilitators from NGOs and consultants in order to draw a profile of local communities in the study area and understand existing tourism development mechanisms and their interaction with local communities. Analysis of the fieldwork

survey data is undertaken to understand the local communities' potentials, strengths and the threats that face them. In the light of the research findings and community-based tourism criteria and measures obtained from the previous part of the research basics for formulating community-based tourism development in the study area key factors are recognized. Finally on the basis of the critical analysis, methods and procedures are recommended for integration of local communities with tourism development.

The research contributes to offer enhanced methods for community based-planning process in the southern part of the Red Sea and provides suggestions linked to stakeholders' roles and the prospected results through an indicative framework for promoting local communities. Such strategies and tactics ought to provide future tourism development plans with courses of action that will help achieve the overall aim of sustainable community development within tourism development and avoid problems that hold back community based-development. (see annex K). It adopts particular manner to enrich the fieldwork procedures with local communities in the Red Sea through investigation measures and criteria. The research shows that different perceptions exist among local communities. These perceptions depend on the nature of the place, the size of the community, the volume of development and tourists' characteristics.

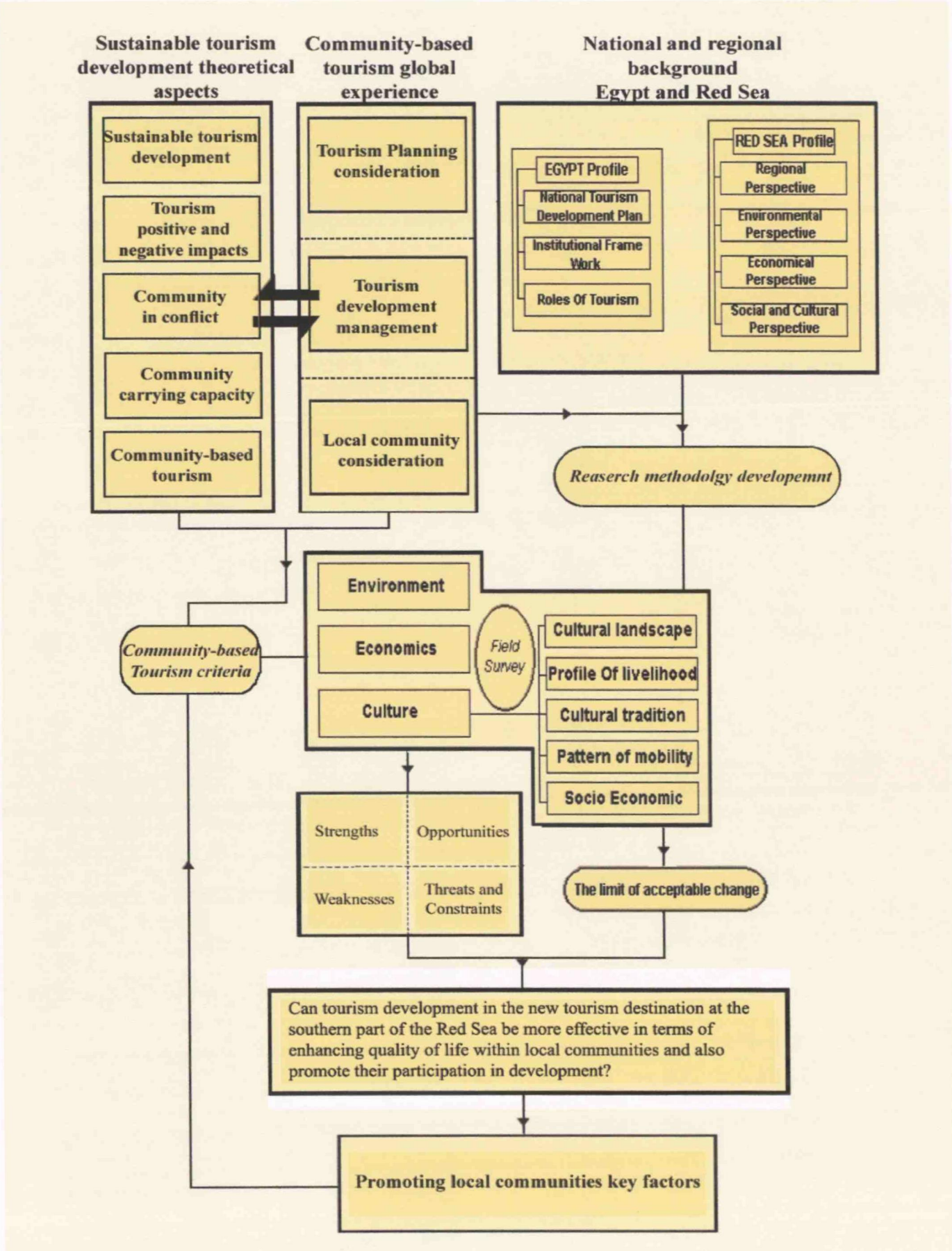


Figure 1.3: The research methodology

PART ONE:
THEORETICAL APPROACH FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER TWO:
THEORETICAL APPROACH FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

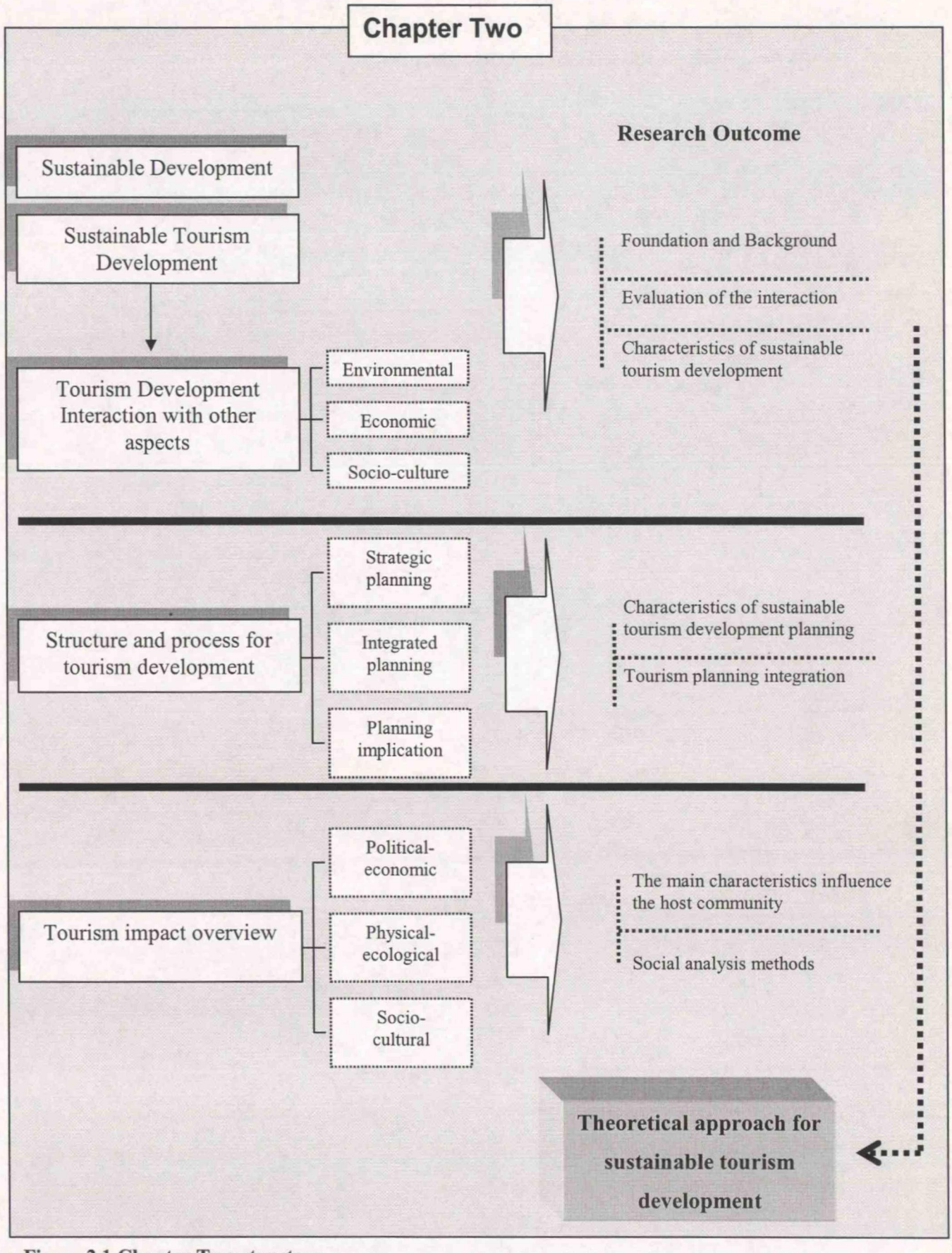


Figure 2.1 Chapter Two structure

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the first part of the literature review of the study that outlines three major contextual areas: **first**, the historical background for development, sustainability and sustainable tourism development in addition to the process for sustainable tourism and environmental planning; **second**, the interaction between tourism development and other aspects; **third**, tourism positive and negative impacts of tourism. Various definitions are discussed, linked to sustainable tourism development; environmental planning; socio-cultural management; and socio-economic impact from mass-tourism development. The discussion identifies the characteristics of sustainable tourism development and demonstrates the importance of strategic planning. It emphasizes the need to evaluate the impact of tourism development. Moreover it considers how large scale tourism development activities in marginal areas create conflicts over access to resources and lead to changes in local community identity, with the lose of local sources of income, marginalization of the community as well as negative impacts for tourism development.

2.2 Sustainable development

The sources of the concept of sustainable development may date from the 18th century (IUCN, 2002), when attempts were made to understand and categorize its nature. In the 19th century attention to environment conservation came forward associated with development (IUCN, 2002) due to the fact that negative effects on the environment have resulted from economic growth, which often produced unfortunate pressures on the wellbeing of people (WCED, 1987). However, a perception of sustainability was started in the environmentalism that grew to prominence in the 1970s. A clearer understanding of sustainable development was first highlighted by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN, 1980), which defined sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". It should be recognized that a complex understanding of political, economic, cultural and ecological processes is

needed and this is encompassed by the term sustainable development "to provide a useful basis for conceptualizing its natural principles and objectives and the extent to which they can be transposed into the specific sustainable development context" (Sharpley, 2000, p.4). It is obvious that sustainable development combines both development and sustainability objectives as identified by the IUCN. Table 2.1 shows the development aims and sustainability objectives and the requirements for sustainable development linked to enhancement of community, which demonstrate the key elements of this concept.

Table 2.1: Sustainable development objectives and requirements

Development objectives	Improvement of the quality of life for all people: education, life expectancy, opportunities to fulfill potential
	Satisfaction of basic needs; concentration on the nature of what is provided rather than income
	Self-reliance: political freedom and local decision making for local needs
	Endogenous development
Sustainability objectives	Sustainable population levels
	Minimal depletion of non-renewable natural resources
	Sustainable use of renewable resources
	Pollution emissions within the assimilative capacity of the environment
Requirements for sustainable development	Adoption of a new social paradigm relevant to sustainable living
	International and national political and economic systems dedicated to equitable development and resource use
	Technological systems that can search continuously for new solutions to environmental problems
	Global alliance facilitating integrated development policies at local, national and international levels

Source: IUCN (1991).

IUCN considers that sustainable development requires a harmonized balance between different aspects, within international, national and local perspectives. In fact it is highly likely that economic growth may be necessary, but not sufficient, to improve human well-being and reduce poverty. Moreover, poverty reduction efforts must address the economic, human, environmental, financial and social dimensions of development. In particular it has become clear that "economic and social developments are inextricably linked" (World Bank, 2004).

2.3 Sustainable tourism development

Sustainable tourism development has been defined in many ways (Page and Dowling, 2002; Butler, 1999). The World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2001) gives its official definition as:

> *"Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, and biological diversity and life support systems".*

Underlying the principles of sustainable tourism development is the need to recognize and protect the value of the natural environment and cultural characteristics in order to enhance tourism product development and management in the long term (Liu, 2003).

Liu (2003) suggests that "The sustainable tourism debate is patchy, disjointed and often flawed with false assumptions and arguments", although it has become a catchphrase in development studies since the late 1980s. Some argue that it is a slogan more honoured, in the disregard of its objectives, than in its observance, for the reason that "it appears to put together two irreconcilable principles, those of environmental sustainability and economic development" (Barton, 2000, p.8). In other words, sustainable tourism development debatably represents the combination of two separate objectives or processes and may be considered as an equation (Lélé, 1991, p.615). This argument suggests that "such definitions fall primarily within two categories; those which are tourism-centric, focusing on sustaining tourism as an economic activity, and those which consider tourism as an element of wider sustainable development policies" (Richard, 2000). WCED (1987) considers the term 'sustainable tourism development' has more economic content, particularly in terms of mass-tourism development, which is the most widespread type of tourism development. Nevertheless WTO (1996) believes that *"sustainable tourism development wisely manages all resources in the way that those economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, and biological diversity and life support systems*". In

addition they describe the development of sustainable tourism as a process, which meets the needs of present tourists and host communities. Moreover the 1980 World Conservation Strategy recognized the main requirements for sustainable development and acknowledged that both biodiversity conservation and development are for people (UNEP, 2002a).

Since then there has been a call for a more sustainable type of tourism development, often referred to as soft tourism, environmental based tourism, or green tourism, in which tourism should be environmentally sustainable in both the natural and cultural environments in order to be economically sustainable. Butler (1993, p.29) gives the following definition of sustainable development in the context of tourism:

> *"Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community and environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and doesn't degrade the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such degree that it prohibits the successful development and well being of other activities and processes".*

According to Bramwell and Sharman (2000), cited by Richards (2003) and as mentioned by several commentators such as Inskeep (2001); Faulkner and Tideswell (1997), community members living in a tourist destination should be enabled to participate in decision-making about tourism activity which affects their lives. According to definitions given the sustainable tourism development concept is underpinned by three fundamental principles, which originate from both its developmental and environmental contexts. The sustainability of tourism development may be assessed in terms of: "**Firstly** the holistic approach which means that development and environmental issues are integrated within a global social system. **Secondly** futurity that focuses on long-term capacity for continuance of the global ecosystem, **Finally** equity development that is fair and equitable and which provides opportunities for access to and use of resources for all members of all societies, both in the present and future" (Sharpley, 2000, p.8).

In contrast with the IUCN vision Trevor (1998) gives more attention to the local level. He summed up the main principles of sustainable tourism development as four basics norms, illustrated by Box 2.1. Nevertheless "the concerns of sustainable tourism development

are not just environmental, but are also economic, social, cultural, political and managerial" (Richards and Hall, 2000). In order to evaluate tourism's potential role in sustainable development it cannot be viewed in isolation from the broader developmental context of which it is meant to be a part (Sharpley, 2000, p.3). Consequently sustainable tourism should meet at least two criteria:

1- It should be well matched with the conservation of the natural environment.

2- It should provide economic benefits for local communities (Driml and Common, 1996).

Box 2.1: Sustainable tourism development principles

- *Ecological sustainability: Development must be compatible with maintaining ecological processes, biological diversity and biological resources.*
- *Economic sustainability and intergenerational equity: Development must be economically efficient and equitable within and between generations.*
- *Social sustainability: Development must be designed to increase people's control over their lives and maintain and strengthen community identity.*
- *Cultural sustainability: Development must be compatible with the culture and the values of the people affected by it. Thus community involvement in tourism development has moved nearer to the center of the sustainability debate.*

Source: Trevor (1998)

The rationale of sustainable tourism development usually depends on the guarantee of renewable economic, social and cultural benefits to the community and the surrounding environment. An integrated approach to sustainability requires that the continuing improved social, cultural and economic well-being of human communities is an integral component of environmental renewal (Taylor, 1995, p.487). Amongst objectives of sustainable tourism development, the concept of 'satisfaction of basic needs' in particular puts emphasis on community involvement in the planning, development and control of tourism as a key player of appropriate strategies. That is, "it is only when the concern is mainly given to the developmental needs and interests of local communities over the goals of the tourism industry itself that broader social development will be achieved" (Brohman, 1996; Simmons, 1994).

2.4 The interaction between tourism development and the wider environment

The world tourism industry has shown exponential growth over the past half century. This is not only in terms of tourist numbers, but also it has slowly transformed into a diversified and complex economic activity. It is an important source of foreign exchange for a large number of developing countries. While mass-tourism remains the main type of tourism, other types of tourism related to culture, environment, business, education, health, religion, etc. have emerged (UNEP, 2002b). Although the Rio Earth Summit 1992 was a major turning point for the tourism industry, which led to environmental issues taking a significant position, the sustainability approach has not yet generally been practically considered. Instead the focus has been on minimizing environmental impacts that the industry is directly responsible for.

On the other hand, it should be clear that tourism development has widespread impacts that influence other matters, such as the social, political and economic aspects. This interaction takes several dimensions; it depends for example on the industry's volume, frequency, seasonality and nature of the destination. **Firstly** the natural environment as the main attraction for tourism, with significant natural features, scenery, cultural tradition or biodiversity, is becoming increasingly popular for tourist destinations. Small islands, coastal areas, wetlands, mountains and deserts are all now accepted as tourist destinations. But unfortunately these are five of the six 'fragile ecosystems' as identified by Agenda 21 and the International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives (ICLEI, 1999). As the scale of tourism grows, the extent of resource use threatens to become unsustainable (UNEP, 2002a). As a result of damaged physical environments, destinations are at risk of losing their original attraction, through threats to ecosystems and biodiversity, disruption of coasts and deforestation.

Secondly tourism is highly desirable for most countries because, by attracting and serving visitors, communities earn new and basic income from other parts of the country and globe. Such income is a combination of new wealth that is considered as the

equivalent of export earnings. The necessity of economic development is usually the driving force behind the growth of tourism (Richards and Hall, 2000). In this sense, environmental sustainability is unavoidably bound up with concepts of economic, social, cultural and political sustainability (Trevor, 1998). Nevertheless, it should be recognized that mass-tourism was perceived as a key activity for generating foreign exchange and employment by both development institutions such as the World Bank and by governments. In fact it is highly likely that mass-tourism is more than an increased volume of visitors, it has come to mean numerous manufacturing and services businesses which combine to offer a travel experience through scale economies (Murphy, 1985). Although the World Tourism and Travel Council (WTTC) (2002) has pointed out that there was an approximate 40% cumulative growth in international tourism demand between 1990 and 2000, some argue that, it does not always develop its positive side owing to the fact that it is highly competitive, and usually dominated by large suppliers who have little commitment to a destination and are less likely to use local suppliers. Table 2.2 shows the contribution of tourism to economic development. Furthermore, despite the negative economic impacts of tourism "for instance; inflation; dominance by outsiders in land and property markets; inward-migration eroding economic opportunities for domestic industry including the poor" the demand for travel and tourism continues to grow (Sharpley, 2000, p.5).

Table 2.2: The contribution of tourism to economic development

Countries	Contribution of Tourism to GDP (direct impact only)				Employment (direct employment only)			
	2000		2011 (foreseen)		2000		2011 (foreseen)	
	US$ Bn.	% of total GDP	US$ Bn.	% on total GDP	Jobs (000's)	% on total employment	Jobs (000's)	% on total employment
EU	401.48	4.71	784.73	4.9	7,212.80	4.7	8,845.50	5.35
World	1,301.04	10.66	2,654.40	11.03	74,274.9	8.06	99,321.7	8.96

Source: World Travel and Tourism Council (2001)

Tourism is a consumer industry where active market variables such as changing user preferences or demographic issues lead to continuous cycles and adjustment on the part of destination areas. The direct relation between tourism and economic development has been defined as the range of the interaction by three categories of what depending mainly

on the interaction duration by Murphy (1985, pp.79-82):

- Initially, the short-term tourism cycles which usually take place within a year's time span. As a consequence they are highly visible and generally easy to predict and it do not produce noticeable destination changes.
- Secondly, the medium-term cycles, at the second step, are those, which involve a change in circumstances, requiring some adjustment over several years.
- In contrast the last stage, which is defined as long-term cycles, requires more changes as a result in more consequences. Those changes take different dimensions in the natural, cultural and destination's patterns, which require subsequently adjustment to the new circumstances if a destination is to remain competitive. Murphy (1985, p.83) emphasize that "a change of focus to look at a longer time frame begins to uncover new types of business cycles in terms of an individual destination, which considered in a regional context takes on the spatial patterns of diffusion".

Coccossis and Mexa (2002) explore the tourism development outstanding role in the economic sector (see Box 2.2).

Box 2.2: The tourism role in the economic development

Tourism is one of the strongest economic sectors in the member states of the European Union (EU). Tourism activities in all Member States involve around 2 million businesses (mostly small and medium-sized enterprises) currently generating up to 12% of GDP (directly or indirectly), 6% of employment (directly) and 30% of external trade. All these figures are expected to increase further as tourism demand is expected to grow by almost 50% and capital investments (as a percentage of GDP) are expected to double by 2010 in comparison with 1996 (EU average).(EEA 2001)

However, there are significant regional differences in European countries in respect to tourism development, indicating the unequal distribution of economic benefits.

Source: (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002)

Finally the proper relationship between tourists and host community is essential for thriving tourism development. This demonstrates the direct and the first communication that affects the host community. In some cases it may be a fundamental reason for tourists to travel to explore the way of life and material products of different communities. In reality communities shape the natural landscapes which many tourists

consume (Singh and Dallen, 2003, p.21; Richards and Hall, 2000, p.36; Driml and Common, 1996). Unfortunately tourism development pays little attention to local communities particularly mass-tourism, although green or responsible tourism may consider the needs of the local community. Consequently the interaction between host community and tourism takes different dimensions depending on tourism development type. However, some argue that fears of mass-tourism threatening local cultures can be misplaced and many cultures have proved resilient enough to be able to take in their stride the rapid changes required by tourism (Gunn, 1988). This argument suggests that host communities should take specific, active measures to protect their values, norms and customs. Moreover tourism development in remote areas can be positive, however, bringing with it infrastructure, health services and education facilities. It could be a by-product, or a result of increased incomes, or as is happening increasingly, a result of corporate and customer social responsibility (ICLEI, 1999). This is somewhat debatable since local people may not only be unnoticed by the industry but may also be banned from their right to use access to land, water and natural resources.

Tourism development has extensive impacts that influence environmental, social, political and economic aspects that take place according to the nature of destinations, volume of development, tourism seasonality, the relationship between tourists and host community and the duration of the interaction. Furthermore, as WTTC (2002) has pointed out, rapid tourism development can come at a price and often creates its own unique problems. The social and natural assets of a community could be harmed by tourism activities. Social relationships and values for local communities would be affected by the arrival of large numbers of uninformed foreigners. For instance the sex trade and drug tourism remain areas that are poorly reported or regulated, especially where they concern children. "The root causes behind these growing problems may not wholly lie with growth in tourism, but it is significant and should be a real cause for concern throughout the sector" (UNEP, 2002a). This is particularly a problem where tourism business is massed, centered and ignores the traditional social systems, such as in isolated communities or indigenous peoples (Singh and Dallen, 2003, p.27). However, the actions plan for the industry which presented by Agenda 21 for the Travel & Tourism

Industry Towards Environmentally Sustainable Development aim to find a general mechanism for involving communities in environmental issues and partnerships for sustainability as a priority goal to be achieved, which are discussed subsequently.

2.5 Planning for sustainable tourism development

Achieving successful tourism development essentially requires tourism plans at all levels. The experience of many tourism areas in the world has demonstrated that, on a long-term basis, benefits could be gained with fewer problems if there are appropriate development plans which satisfy tourist markets. Places that have allowed tourism to develop without the assistance of planning are often suffering from environmental and social problems (UNEP, 2002b). In the light of this the structure and the process for sustainable tourism development will be identified in this study by exploring tourism planning and policies in addition to the strategic tourism plan methods, as well as the integration of tourism planning as a meaning of achieving sustainability.

2.5.1 Approaches to tourism planning

Concern has been expressed worldwide about social injustices and environmental problems. Tourists are moving from consumptive to less consumptive activities, often adopting 'green consumer' lifestyle as a result of integrated planning trends (Paul et al., 2002, p.19). Consequently tourism plans may be able to support local conservation and community development initiatives. Richard and Hall (2000, p.20) defined tourism planning "as a framework for sustainable tourism initiatives that help develop, manage and protect key natural and cultural heritage assets, which will be used to develop new and existing tourism opportunities in an environmentally, economically and socially sustainable manner". Consequently planning goals and objectives, environmental policies, economic actions and social behaviour interactions have been affected which in turn required a variety of measures at various levels. Among the key features of these 'planning philosophy' linkages between economic activities, social performance and

environmental problems have been recognized and developed (Andriotis, 2005, p.82). Natural resources as an essential value are given a very strong 'ranking' within thinking on sustainability. Turner (1993, pp.3-36) describes four positions on sustainability, from very strong to very weak, which are linked to resources that may be attractive. He argues that whether or not they are able to provide particular benefits to society these are resources which must be preserved and he rejects the substitution of natural by manmade resources. By contrast, a very weak position on sustainability allows resources to be used according to market demand; it is strongly oriented towards economic growth, and allows substitution of natural by human-made resources.

On the other hand Hunter (1997: 864) cited by Richard and Hall (2000, p.20) describes planning approaches to tourism, which are intended to contribute to sustainable development, and he presents four sustainable tourism planning approaches which are labeled as tourism imperative, product-led, environment-led, and inconsequential tourism (see Table 2.3). This analysis illustrates the relation between stages of tourism development and their interpretation of sustainable development by means of each development's attitudes to the destination's resources. It shows that at early stage of tourism development unless the attraction of the destination is not affected, recourses loss is acceptable as economic objectives are considered as the main concern. Nevertheless a very strong sustainable tourism development takes place when actions are taken to protect destination resources. However, UNEP (2002b) shows that to conserve the environment and provide benefits for local communities by ensuring that tourism planning is undertaken as part of overall development plans for any area, plans for the short-, medium-, and long-term may encompass the following objectives;

- The identification of all development objectives for all sectors should be integrated;
- Opportunities for local communities should be explored;
- Understand conservation methods and conservation techniques for natural resources in order to apply suitable ones and
- Monitoring and evaluating techniques should be clarified.

Table 2.3: Four possible approaches to planning for tourism as a contribution to sustainable development

Approach to tourism as a contribution to sustainable development	Likely stage of tourism development	Primary concern	Attitudes to destination resources	Interpretation of sustainable development
Sustainable development through a *tourism imperative*	Early tourism development	Enhancing the development of tourism because it is comparatively more sustainable than other economic activities	Resource loss is acceptable as long as it is less than would otherwise occur and it does not affect the destination's attraction for tourists	Very weak
Sustainable development through *product-led tourism*	Tourism is well developed	Developing new and maintaining existing tourism products because the well-being of local communities might be reduced unacceptably without the wealth generated by tourism	A wide range of concerns about destination resources but as rule only when these very directly and clearly help to sustain the tourism products	Weak
Sustainable development through *environment- led tourism*	Perhaps most applicable to early development Conceivably applicable to developed tourist destinations seeking to reorientation tourism along more sustainable lines	Priority given to destination's resources by; promoting type of tourism which overtly relies on maintenance of high-quality environmental and cultural resources Establish strong links between environmental quality and tourism success	Perhaps strong product focus but with priority to conserving destination resources Opportunities sized to provide support for other locally important economic activities Opportunities sized to create tourist experiences which highlight resource conservation	Probably moderate strong
Sustainable development through *inconsequential tourism*	Prior to significant tourism development	Active discouragement to tourism in order to protect destination resources	Minimizing the use of destination resources	Very strong

Source: Adapted from Hunter (1997) cited by Richards (2003)

Steer, *et al.*, (1996, p.4-7) points to an important argument that the new environmentalism which demonstrates this planning trend is "characterized by greater precision in factoring environmental costs and benefits into policy-making that put local people at the center of environmental strategies, diagnoses and addresses behaviour al causes of environmental damage, and recognizes the political dimensions of environmental reform". Consequently, the central part of a sustainable development structure is integration between the different factors (environment, social, culture, economic, etc.) within the involvement of all stakeholders for the benefit of local people.

It may be recognizes that an integrated approach to tourism planning and management must be based on sustainability principles which define what is needed to achieve sustainable tourism development. Box 2.3 shows some of the most important principles of tourism planning. It is clearly acknowledged that local communities' participation expresses the cornerstone of a successful tourism plan (Singh and Dallen, 2003, pp.127-129). Furthermore it should be recognized that the claim that local people's participation is less controllable, less precise and so likely to slow down these planning process is highly debatable. Peace (1998, p.144) stresses that community involvement is an essential factor, without the community members being experts in tourism planning.

Box 2.3: The most important principles of the tourism development plan (TDP):

- *TDP should be initiated with the help of broad-based community inputs and the community should maintain control of it.*
- *TDP should provide quality employment to community residents and a linkage between the local businesses and tourism should be established.*
- *A code of practice should be established within TDP at all levels - national, regional, and local - based on internationally accepted standards. Guidelines for tourism operations, impact assessment, monitoring of cumulative impacts, and limits to acceptable change should be established.*
- *TDP should consider education and training programmes to improve and manage heritage and natural resources.*

Source: Noble, el at., (2000)

Unfortunately the powerlessness of these communities to fully participate in the planning process has often resulted in the majority of tourism benefits being taken away from

them, particularly in developing countries, where poverty and social desperation create great need for the local community to profit from tourism development. It is thus argued by Liu (2003, p.466) that "a greater level of local involvement in the planning and development of tourism is an essential requirement of sustainable tourism".

2.5.2 Strategic tourism planning

National and regional plans lay out the fundamental development lines for tourism destinations. Policies, physical, institutional structures and standards for development are not only recognized through them, but also "provide the basis for the continuous and effective management of tourism which is so essential for the long-term success of tourism" (Inskeep, 2001; pp.17). Recognizing that if the tourist-attracting resources are despoiled or destroyed, tourism areas will not be sustainable, tourism development plans depend on resources attractions and the sustainability of activities. Planners have a responsibility to meet the challenges offered by the growth in tourism and to understand how their activities affect tourism (Dredge and Moore, 1992, p.20).

The vision that there is an ideal, integrated and absolute planning theory is highly debatable. Kieran in Mandelbaum (1990, p.175) cited in his classic 1979 article, which asks planners to consider a model of a complete and general theory of planning. He takes "theories to be particular sorts of statements which organize the vast array of causal narratives and explanations. The domain of planning theory includes all statements which relate the attributes of planning processes, the settings in which they are applied, and their outcomes and that pursuing a complete, general theory of planning is unrealistic". This could be considered as the main reason behind upgrading the planning classical theories as cited by Kaiser (1995); he points out that plans are viewed as constant in content among plans up and down the hierarchy, controlling action, widely recognised as serving collectively chosen common interests, and created through structured procedures by the traditional theories.

> *"The hierarchical comprehensive view for instance argues that plans must control action and be consistent to be useful. It follows that all actors should do what the plan says they should do. A plan is good if it is consistent with higher-level mandates and plans, agreed to by consensus, created by prescribed procedures, and implemented".*
>
> *(Kieran et al., 2006, p.188)*

On the other hand planning theories have been developed dramatically over the last 20 years. Hoch (1994) cited by Kieran (2006) suggests that planning theories are improved in terms of objectives and process and they have been focused on how individuals acting as planners behave when planning, both as effective actors and as moral beings. These authors suggest that community-based planning is a central aspect of successful planning. This approach focuses on community involvement in the planning and development process, and designing the types of tourism development which generate benefits to local communities.

Strategic planning has received considerable attention in recent years as an approach to comprehensive planning. It focuses more on classification and resolution of essential issues for the long term. "Strategic planning typically is more oriented to rapidly changing future situations and how to cope with changes organizationally" (Inskeep, 2001, p.11). However, since the tourism development central authority - particularly in a very large country - arranges development strategy or regional planning, which can be termed the `top-down' approach, it usually does not achieve the sustainability objectives of strategic planning in terms of communication with the local community. In contrast, using procedures such as `bottom-up' as a planning mechanism, would allow local people to be involved. Thus the local community would be able to involve and choose between alternative products for their region (Singh and Dallen, 2003, pp. 165-168). Then once that choice has been made, improved participatory planning processes can contribute to meeting criteria of equity, efficiency, and sustainability (Rothman, 2001, pp.317). The local objectives and ideas, which are proposed by the community, are then fitted together into the strategic plan. This approach achieves greater local public involvement in the planning process (Dredge and Moore, 1992, p.20). Some argue that this approach may lead to conflict of objectives, policies and development recommendations among the

local areas which need to be matched at the national and regional levels in order to form an integrated plan. However, it should be recognized that the development patterns of the local areas, as Inskeep (2001) points out, "complement, reinforce one another and reflect the needs and desires of local communities. Often a combination of the `top-down' and `bottom-up' approaches achieves the best results".

Considerable benefits are obtained when using strategic tourism planning. It not only provides the framework for effective coordination between stakeholders, but also a balanced basis for decision-making by both the public and private sectors on tourism development. Furthermore Inskeep (2001, p.8) points out the economic, environmental and social benefits are not only optimized and balanced within a strategic tourism planning approach with equitable distribution of these benefits among the society, but also possible problems are minimized.

Box 2.4: The advantages of using strategic tourism planning

- *Establishing the overall tourism development objectives and policies - what tourism is aiming to accomplish and how these aims can be achieved.*
- *Developing tourism so that its natural and cultural resources are indefinitely maintained and conserved for future, as well as present, use.*
- *Integrating tourism into the overall development policies and patterns of the country or region, and establishing linkages between tourism and other economic sectors.*
- *Making possible the coordinated development of all the many elements of the tourism sector. This includes inter-relating the tourist attractions, activities, facilities and services and the various and increasingly fragmented tourist markets.*
- *Providing a physical structure, this guides the location, types and extent of tourism development of attractions, facilities, services and infrastructure.*
- *Establishing the guidelines and standards for preparing detailed plans of specific tourism development areas that are consistent with, and reinforce, one another, and for the appropriate design of tourist facilities.*
- *Laying the foundation for effective implementation of the tourism development policy and plan and continuous management of the tourism sector, by providing the necessary organizational and other institutional framework.*
- *Offering a baseline for the continuous monitoring of the progress of tourism development and keeping it on track.*

Source: Inskeep (2001)

2.5.3 Implication for tourism planning

Since tourism is a sensitive industry to the surrounding, and understanding of how dynamic change may affect the tourism business, a comprehensive tourism development plan is needed. The planning of tourism should be recognized as a continuous and flexible process. The tourism plan framework and its policies should be flexible to allow for adaptation to changing circumstances not only for the existing conditions but also considering the future. Tourism development plans should bring together the current setting and the desirable future in order to set out a range of credible alternatives, and propose implementation strategies and actions that will achieve the desired outcome.

Paul (2002, p.13) states: "planning moves us from the present to the future. It is critical therefore that planners understand social, political and economic trends, as these form the context for planning". Various techniques of implementation should be considered throughout the planning process; also, creative and original recommendations should be made. Figure 2.2 shows the typical planning processes which clearly identify the feedback influences on the process starting from the objectives and the study preparation reviewing and analysing existing conditions. This framework did not categorize a particular role for stakeholders and, in particular, the local community.

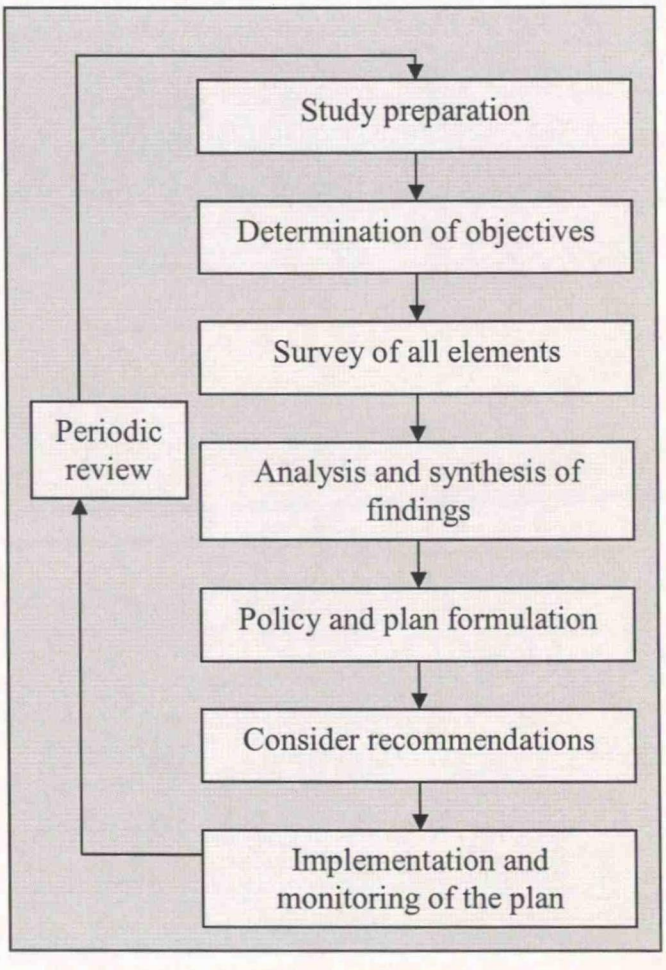


Figure 2.2: Tourism planning process
Source: Page and Thorn (1997, pp. 62)

Four main trends in thinking may be combined to represent alternatives of tourism planning philosophy (Gunn, 1994, cited by Simpson, 2001).

- Community approach: tourism is a social and political force, which can best be developed through the medium of local control.
- Environmental approach: tourism should be developed in such a way that negative environmental impacts are minimized.
- Economic approach: tourism is a valuable force for economic development and is best used to generate income and employment for selected regions.
- Booster approach: tourism is an entirely beneficial activity and the extent of its operations should be maximized wherever possible.

An important argument here is that collaboration and partnerships among various stakeholders in the process of tourism development demonstrate the key point of an efficient and successful planning process, moreover tourism development objectives cannot be achieved without this cooperation (Bramwell and Lane, 2000). Although it is claimed that critical planning theorists do not explain how communicative action through stakeholders can be achieved, furthermore "there is a gap between planners and the public that they serve which has been related to the planners' failure to reflect the plurality of interests in society" (Taylor, 1998). It should be recognized that as Simpson (2001, p.13) points out "an effective development process for sub-national tourism is one which incorporates the input of all affected stakeholders to determine an appropriate strategic direction which will maximize the equitable distribution of tourism benefits in the interests of local, regional and national sustainability". With this purpose he identified the foundation elements of a strategic planning philosophy as:

- Clarifying the desired future objectives and the existing condition;
- Using critical evaluation and monitoring techniques;
- Establishing specific objectives to bridge the gap between current status and basic objectives;
- Clarifying stakeholders' roles;
- Allocating priorities, responsibility and control systems to monitor implementation effectiveness.

As Hall (1996) cited in Simpson (2001) remarks under all circumstances the mechanism of strategic planning will be influenced by the environment. Thus, institutional arrangements and culture, stakeholder values and attitudes, a range of broader economic, political and social issues will be reflected. Clearly participants in any particular planning process will bring their own perspectives to bear when considering the task which faces them. However, if tourism is being integrated into the planning process that consistently involves all stakeholders in a process which is guided by a strategic orientation, then the literature indicates that prospects for ultimate sustainability will be considerably enhanced (Helmy, 2002, p. 515).

2.5.4 Planning for tourism development at local level

> *"The intrusion of large numbers of foreigners with high-consumption and high-waste habits into natural areas can produce changes to those natural areas at a rate that is far greater than imposed by local residents. These tourism-related changes are particularly deleterious when local residents rely on those natural areas for their sustenance. Resulting economic losses can encourage socially deleterious economic activities such as prostitution, crime, and migrant and child labor".*
>
> (ICLEI, 1999)

Eadington and Smith (1992) cited by Sindiga (1999, p.110) point out that since 1958 when jet airplane services started, there has been a rapid growth of mass-tourism supported in great part by the development of infrastructure which could provide services and convenience for tourists. Unfortunately the development strategy for mass-tourism since then has not been environmentally-friendly nor has it shown concern for communities, particularly in developing countries, where the contrasts between tourists and native hosts are extreme and where the majority of the negative social and cultural experiences have occurred particularly at local level. Furthermore, there is growing evidence that similar stress can be found within industrialized nations themselves (Singh and Dallen, 2003, pp.144-148; Murphy 1985). There is a desire for an alternative style of development that provides higher levels of local contribution, which can be applied to such forms of tourism (see section 3.5). It could be seen as "forms of tourism that are consistent with natural, social, and community values and which allow both hosts and

tourists to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences" (Sindig, 1999, p.115).

On the other hand, the bottom-up approach as an alternative is the reverse of the long-held top-down strategies, which have tended to deny local people direct benefits from their participation. It is simply community-based tourism in terms of planning, operating and monitoring which provide direct benefits for local communities without losing their values, norms and character (Singh and Dallen, 2003, pp.25- 30). In addition, there is the need for particular approaches which support the trend towards regionalism, due to the fact that "Regions on the periphery of the global economy are asserting their identity as a means of preserving their cultural identity and developing their socio-economic potential" (Richards and Derek, 2000). The programme of action toward sustainable development launched by the 1992 Earth Summit under the banner of Local Agenda 21 draws attention to the significant role of citizens and highlights the importance of making all sectors of society engage with the goal. The Local Agenda 21 approach emphasizes this trend and identifies the main components for a successful tourism development strategy which considers local community benefits as the following:

- Practical arrangements for a stakeholder contribution should be recognized, both in setting the direction for tourism in the community and in working together to develop and manage it;
- Identifying a strategy for sustainable tourism within the context of a wider sustainable development strategy that reflects stakeholders' views and that allows tourism management to be integrated with other management functions in the destination;
- Identifying and implementing a set of actions, in line with the strategy, which address the economic, social and environmental sustainability of tourism in the area.

Thus within a context of regional and national policies, local or more detailed levels of planning will be the best procedures to apply community-based tourism approaches; furthermore it can be set out as a policy approach at the national and regional levels. The benefits accruing to local communities are also beneficial to the country, through the

income and foreign exchange earned, employment generated and support that local communities give to national tourism development and conservation policies (Inskeep, 2001, pp.38-55). These techniques may be applied to ensure that most of the benefits of tourism development accrue to local residents and not to outsiders. Maximizing benefits to local residents typically results in tourism being better accepted by them and their active support for the conservation of local tourism resources. However, this approach raises questions about the nature, scope and function of the community itself. Community-led sustainable development requires an understanding not just of the relationship between local communities and their environment, but also of the political, economic and cultural tensions within communities (Richards and Derek, 2000). Consequently tourism development at local level should identify impacts on the host community and its carrying capacity; as well as the relationships between local, regional and global aspects.

2.6 Tourism impact overview

Tourism impact can be identified in different ways because it links with environment, economics, culture, politics and society. For instance environmental impact is caused within the circumstance of a sustainable policy that involves the use of fragile environments for tourism, where an economic dependency upon tourism impact is created based on economic contact. Additionally, the political economy of the local area is likely to have a critical impact on what type of assessment policy will materialize (Holden, 1999, pp.97-106). This depends on the selected types of tourism development, seasonality, concentration of tourists in time and space, average length of stay, kinds of activities exercised by tourists, socio-economic characteristics and behaviour of tourists and degree of use of tourism infrastructure (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002).

The interaction between host environment and tourists has been analyzed in destination areas in different way depending on the development stage. Four major categories have been identified by Murphy (1985) according to UNESCO (1976); the **first** category presents the temporary relationships when tourists are only in a community for a short

period, so the communication – 'socially, environmentally and economically' - has little chance to improve. **Second**, seasonal and non-repeated tourist events can be identified as chronological constraints to visitor-host relations, so business comes in to profit from this situation. This tourism pattern of concentrated tourist activities puts emphasis on outstanding attractions and the destination community's desire to minimize the disruption of other activities. **Third**, controlled activities and commercial arrangements, which take place with mass-tourism, deeply affect the interaction between visitors and residents. Most contacts are arranged via package tours or planned attractions. **Fourth**, hosts often feel inferior in comparison of their situation to a visitor's apparent wealth, and can become resentful at the contrast. This occurs when visitors and residents meet generally in an unequal and unbalanced experience. It should be recognized that tourist motivation and behaviour throughout all tourism categories have a massive influences and impacts. Ross (1992, pp.13–17) argues that visitor-type impacts substantially on the attitudes and behaviour of resident populations and also affects the economic circumstances and the natural environment as well. A large number of studies associated with the impacts of tourism development point to the fact that local particularities require careful consideration. Nevertheless it is possible to identify common impacts anticipated in most tourist developments and organize them into three distinct groups: physico–ecological, socio-cultural and politico-economic impacts. In order to more clearly understand how these groups have been affected and influenced by tourism development, more details will be given at local level.

2.6.1 Politico- economic impacts

Tourism may be considered to be an excellent economic activity as it demonstrates a fruitful source of jobs, and it can provide lasting employment in regions not reached by other industries. At present 192.2 million persons are estimated to be employed in tourism worldwide (one in every 12.4 jobs in the formal sector). By 2010, this is expected to grow to 251.6 million jobs (one in every 11 formal sector jobs). This includes employment created by fixed capital formation activities and by providers to the tourism industry (ILO, 2001).

Tourism employment is an alternative to traditional and more physically rigorous work, such as agriculture or fishing, and provides both men and women with greater occupational choices. However, some argue that the majority of the jobs provided are lower paid, informal or casual employment in services (Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997, pp.7-9) and much of this employment is seasonal and unskilled and the community's traditional work patterns might be seriously affected (Richards and Hall, 2000). Furthermore it causes workers to migrate from other regions which compete with local communities and many of them stay for a number of years, which leads to imbalance in the community's economic status (ILO, 2001). This argument suggests that the differences in income between the two groups have led to social tension; moreover little of the tourism money goes to the country of destination. It may be considered as a quick economic solution as it brings exchange earnings and balance of payments advantages (WTO, 2005). The economic benefits to communities, if carefully managed and shared fairly among the local people, can be used sensitively to raise educational and living standards without destroying local culture. Nevertheless, tourism like any industrial activity has negative and positive impacts; Box 2.5 summarizes these impacts.

Box 2.5: Negative and positive economic impacts of tourism at local level

Tourism economic negative impacts include the following:

- *Alteration of urban structure (e.g. the case of traditional agricultural market towns)*
- *Higher cost of living for residents (prices for land, services, products, etc.)*
- *Land-use conflicts among various activities.*
- *Rise public costs and expenses for infrastructures, management, intervention against pollution, etc, which are not adequately shared by the tourists.*
- *Seasonality of employment and income*
- *High dependence on tourism activity.*
- *Uneven distribution of economic benefits*
- *Loss of potential economic benefits from tourism if tourism is not closely linked with other local economic activities, resulting to increased imports of goods and services*

Continued

Box 2.5: continued

Tourism economic positive impacts include the following:

- *Benefits for employment and income.*
- *Increased direct (hotels, restaurants, tour and travel operations and retail shops) and indirect (supplying sectors such as agriculture, fisheries, craft production, manufacturing and construction)*
- *Stimulation of local entrepreneurship through creation of local tourism enterprises and development of skills.*
- *Foreign exchange earnings at the national level.*
- *Contribution to government revenues at all levels including the local level through local taxes for tourism. These revenues can be used to improve community facilities and services and local infrastructure.*
- *The multiplier effect of tourism serves as a catalyst for the expansion of other local economic activities such as agriculture, fisheries, crafts, etc.*

Source: Coccossis and Mexa (2002)

2.6.2 Physico-ecological impact

Like many other types of development, tourism as an industry, even at low levels of intensity, will produce environmental impacts. Such impacts take place both at the site level, and over larger areas. Tsartas (1992, pp.516-533) points out that all types of tourism physical impact are local in terms of geographical frame. For instance noise, visual pollution and atmospheric emissions, the wider consequences of the demand for and supply of the product in destinations, are unavoidable, particularly in the case of mass-tourism because it could have significant negative environmental impacts on destinations. A number of attempts have been made to identify negative physical and environmental impacts. Tables 2.4 set out the environmental risks from tourism development.

Table 2.4: Environmental risks from tourism

Element	Examples of risk from tourism activities
Ecosystems	• The construction of accommodation, visitor centers, infrastructure, and other services has a direct impact on the environment, from vegetation removal, animal disturbance elimination of habitats, impacts on drainage etc. Wildlife habitat may be significantly changed (travel routes, hunting areas, breeding areas, etc.) by all kinds of tourist development and use.
Soils	• Soil compaction can occur in certain well-used areas. Soil removal and erosion also occurs, and may continue after the disturbance is gone.
Vegetation	• Concentrated use around facilities has a negative effect on vegetation. Transportation may have direct negative impacts on the environment (e.g. vegetation removal, weed transmission, animal disturbance). Fire frequency may change due to tourists and park tourism management.
Water	• Increased demands for fresh water
Air	• Disposal of sewage or litter in rivers, lakes or oceans. Release of oil and fuel from ships and smaller craft. Propeller-driven watercraft may affect certain aquatic plants and species. • Motorized transportation may cause pollution from emissions (from plane, train, ship or automobile).
Wildlife	• Hunting and fishing may change population dynamics. Hunters and fishers may demand the introduction of foreign species, and increased populations of target animals. Impacts occur on insects and small invertebrates, from effects of transportation, introduced species, etc. Disturbance by visitors can occur for all species, including those that are not attracting visitors. Disturbance can be of several kinds: noise, visual or harassing behavior. The impact can last beyond the time of initial contact. Marine mammals may be hurt or killed by boat impacts or propeller cuts. Habituation to humans can cause changed wildlife behavior, such as approaching people for food.

Source: Paul (2002)

As well-managed tourism can enhance economic opportunities and benefits, the environment could also benefit from tourism use of the natural heritage, and so improve the way in which nature is used by all concerned (Tsartas, 1992). Paul (2002b, p.25) considers that "tourism can be a key factor in supporting the conservation of the natural". Table 2.5 briefly describes some of these benefits.

Table 2.5: Environmental benefits from tourism

Element	Examples of environmental benefits from tourism activities
Protecting natural heritage	• Increases funding for protected areas and natural potential. • Protects ecological processes and watersheds. • Conserves biodiversity (including genes, species and ecosystems) by rises awareness. • Creates economic value and protects resources which otherwise have no perceived value to residents, or represent a cost rather than a benefit. • Transmits conservation values, through education and interpretation • Helps to communicate and interpret the values of natural and built heritage. • Supports research and development of good environmental practices and management systems to influence the operation of travel and tourism businesses, as well as visitor behaviour at destinations. • Helps develop self-financing mechanisms for protected area operations. • Supports environmental education for visitors and local people. • Establishes attractive environments for destinations, for residents as much as visitors, which may support other compatible new activities, from fishing to service or product-based industries. • Improves intercultural understanding. • Encourages the development of culture, crafts and the arts Increases the education level of local people. • Encourages people to learn the languages and cultures of foreign tourists. • Encourages local people to value their local culture and environments.

Source: adopted from IUCN (2002); Paul (2002b)

2.6.3 Socio-cultural impact

Socio-cultural impacts are associated with the topics of employment, equal distribution of economic benefits, quality of life, and cost of living. To quote from a World Bank report (2004) "increases in income are not enough for sustainable poverty reduction. Sustainable change requires social change – with systematic attention to the challenges of embedded social, political and economic exclusion". Social development is seen as the fundamental and indivisible counterpart to economic development within an integrated development vision. In other words political, economic, technological, social, cultural and natural aspects affect and influence the social and cultural characteristics of the host community (Richards, 2000). In fact it is highly likely that at local level enormous impact may affect the local community, influencing the social and cultural structure. Therefore it might be

helpful to identify exactly who are the local people and the local communities, before investigating how they are impacted by tourism development.

2.6.3.1 Classification of local communities

The term 'local community' has been interpreted in different ways linked to the political system, geographical location, socio-culture philosophy, norms and attitudes. But taking a postmodern perspective, some argue that through global communications geographical location is no longer an issue that community could be identified with, thus 'community' in terms of location is somehow debatable (Sharpley, 2000). Singh and Dallen (2003) emphasize that in some cases the nation state - based on political, social and economic structures within specific geographical location - seems to be questioned. Nevertheless, community, particularly at local level is providing the essential social link between locality and nationality.

Beltrán (2000) defines indigenous local people as those who are observed as aboriginal as they belong to populations which inhabit the country. This argument goes that "tribal people in independent countries whose social, cultural, and economic conditions distinguish them from other sections of the national community, and whose status is regulated wholly or partially by their own customs or traditions or by special laws or regulations and who irrespective of their legal status, retain some or all of their own social, economic, cultural and political institutions". Richards and Hall (2000) identify four different uses of the term of local community: "First, the idea of community as belonging to a specific topographical location; second as defining a particular local social system; third in terms of filling communities' or togetherness; and fourth as an ideology, often hiding the power relation which inevitably underlies communities". The study aims to assess the existing tourism development impact upon local communities in the southern part of the Red Sea region in the light of the previous local community definition (see sections 1.4 and 5.9.4). Generally speaking according to sustainable development objectives and requirements (see Table 2.1) communities have become

central to a holistic concept of sustainability, which embraces and integrates environmental, economic, political, cultural and social considerations (IUCN, 1991).

2.6.3.2 Local community socio-cultural impact

Liu (2003) believes that "tourism development is a multi-dimensional process involving major changes in social structure, popular attitudes and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty". However, the view that socio-cultural changes brought about by tourism development are positive and tourism, which encourages modern values, norms, social progress and cultural evolution should be greatly appreciated, is debatable. Although the idea that tourism, through its interaction between the hosts and the visitors often introduces new ideas, values and lifestyles and new motivation for both economic and social progress, most tourism studies take the view that its social and cultural impacts are mainly negative. Contributing to this, unfortunately, many governments give less attention to the social and environmental aspects compared with their attempts to optimize economic benefits linked with tourism expansion (Faulkner and Tideswell, 1997).

Box 2.6: Socio-cultural negative impacts

Negative Change or loss of indigenous identity and values

- Commodification
- Standardization
- Loss of authenticity; staged authenticity
- Adaptation to tourist demands

Culture clashes

- Economic inequality
- Irritation due to tourist behavior
- Job level friction

Physical influences causing social stress

- Resource use conflicts
- Cultural deterioration
- Conflicts with traditional land-uses

Ethical issues

- Crime generation
- Child labor
- Prostitution and sex tourism

Source: adopted from UNEP (2002b); UNEP (2002c); Richards (2000); Milman and Pizam (1988)

It should be recognized that the socio-cultural impacts take place when there are direct or indirect relations with tourism, which brings about changes in value systems and behaviour and thereby threaten indigenous identity, owing to the fact that host communities are the weaker party in interactions with tourists. A UNEP study (2002c) concerning the socio cultural impact from tourism, clarified that tourism has both positive and negative impacts. Box 2.6 summarizes socio-cultural negative impacts. **Firstly** it shows the possible negative change or loss of indigenous identity and values for local community when traditional ethnic rites and festivals are turned into commodities and are modified to satisfy tourism expectations. More basic changes in human values may take place when destinations customized for tourism demand souvenirs and other commodities (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). Tourism areas suffer from the risk of standardization in the process of satisfying tourists desires for familiar facilities, as tourists in an unfamiliar environment look for recognizable services such as well-known fast-food restaurants and hotel chains.

Secondly Richards and Hall (2000); Milman and Pizam (1988, pp.191-204) emphasize that culture clash occurs when local people come into contact with tourists and may develop a sort of copying behaviour , as they want to live and behave in the same way. Furthermore due to a lack of professional training, as well as to the influence of hotel or restaurant chains only highly qualified employees are desired. Those two reasons may cause friction because particular category of local people may be influenced by copying tourists' behaviour in addition to the job level friction may increases the gap between the cultures (Singh and Dallen, 2003). **Thirdly** the physical influences, which cause social stress to local communities, can also result from environmental degradation and increased infrastructure costs for the local community (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). **Finally**, impacts linked to ethical issues and conflicts arise when the choice has to be made between development of land for traditional use for local people and tourism activities. The indigenous populations at such destinations are frequently the losers in the contest for these resources as the economic value. Faulkner and Tideswell (1997, pp.8-11) clarify that the presence of a large number of tourists with a lot of money to spend, and who use expensive possessions, will attract the attention of criminals and bring with it activities

like robbery and drug dealing. Further damage to cultural resources may arise from vandalism, littering, pilferage and illegal removal of cultural heritage items. Gambling may cause negative changes in social behaviour . Evidence shows that the commercial sexual exploitation of children and young women has paralleled the growth of tourism in many parts of the world (Richards, 2000). Though tourism is not the cause of sexual exploitation, it provides easy access to it. For many such jobs young children are recruited, as they are cheap and flexible employees (Faulkner, 1997). Moreover, changes often occur in community structure, family relationships, lifestyle or individual behaviour (Milman and Pizam, 1988). Accordingly, the impacts of tourism need to be monitored on a continuous basis if adverse effects are to be avoided, or at least reduced (Glasson, 1994).

Box 2.7: Socio-cultural positive impacts

Bridging between cultures

- Promote understanding between peoples and cultures.
- Providing cultural exchange between hosts and tourists
- Supportive force for peace and reduce bigotry.

Enhance living standard

- Improve social development through employment creation.
- Create local jobs and redistribute income and poverty alleviation.
- Upgrade infrastructure and public services.

Ethical issues

- Conserve and sustain natural resources and local heritage.
- Foster pride in cultural traditions Revive indigenous cultures, cultural arts and crafts.
- Raise local awareness of the financial value of natural and cultural assets.

Source: adopted from UNEP (2002a); UNEP (2002c); Richards (2000); Faulkner (1997)

Nevertheless tourism can also generate positive impacts as it can serve as a supportive force for peace, foster pride in cultural traditions and help avoid urban relocation by creating local jobs. Richards (2000) argues that tourism can contribute to positive developments, not just negative impacts. It has the potential to improve social development through employment creation, income redistribution and poverty alleviation. This is because tourism has an educational element such as promoting understanding between peoples and cultures and providing cultural exchange between hosts and tourists, which increase opportunities for people to develop common

understanding and to reduce their bigotries. Contributing to this vision (UNEP, 2002c) emphasizes that tourism can strengthen communities in many ways; it can bring higher living standards to a destination, upgraded infrastructure, health, transport improvements, recreational facilities and restaurants. Faulkner (1997) has claimed that it contributes to the conservation and sustainable management of natural resources, the protection of local heritage, and a renaissance of indigenous cultures, cultural arts and crafts. Furthermore tourism also helps raise local awareness of the financial value of natural and cultural sites and can stimulate a feeling of pride in local and national heritage and interest in its conservation (UNEP, 2002a). These positive impacts can arise only when tourism is practiced and developed in a sustainable and appropriate way.

2.7 Explaining Social Impacts

Taking into consideration information on the host communities' views of and attitudes to tourism development is the main objective of socio-cultural impact analysis. Using this approach, helpful impacts could be reinforced and perceived harmful impacts could be minimized. Acculturation theory tries to explore the exchange of ideas and products which occurs when two cultures come into contact for a length of time. It should be recognized that the stronger culture would dominate and begin to change the weaker culture. Murphy (1985) says, "The relative strength of a culture is based on its socio-economic conditions, its population size and the type of contact it seeks". However, in fact it is highly likely that local communities, particularly in traditional third world cultures, are the weaker partners, influenced by the tastes of reasonably wealthy tourists.

The stress factor, for instance, at local community level has been taken as a central point of the causation theory that measures the residents–visitors social relationship and seeks an operational level between acceptance and rejection of the industry. Murphy (1985) points out that "There is a saturation level for tourism in a given locality or region, and if that level is exceeded the costs of tourism begin to outweigh the benefits". And he illustrates this with the 'irridex' model Figure 2.3, which identifies the cumulative effects of tourism development on social interrelations. This model has been developed by

Doxey (1983) to show a direct link between community stress or frustration and continual tourism development. It shows that visitors might be satisfied with enthusiasm by local residents in the preliminary stages of development, and residents feel 'euphoria' because tourism brings community benefits and revenue, in addition to the attitude of the early visitors who respect local people's lifestyles. The next step is defined as the 'apathy' stage, which is noticeable when the volume of visitors increases, and the relation becomes more commercial when tourists demand more services with specific standards.

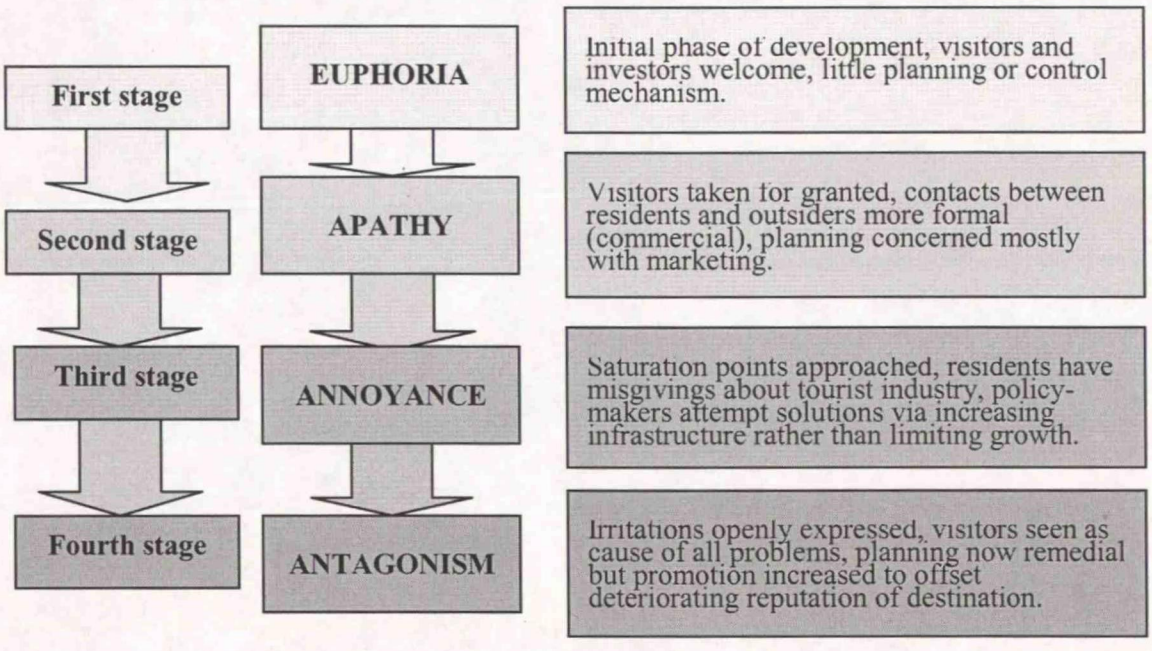


Figure 2.3: Causation theory of visitor-resident irritants
Source: Murphy (1985)

Then apathy can turn to 'annoyance' if development exceeds community acceptance for the reason that development may have a negative effect caused by increased overcrowding, rising prices for goods, plus its threat to local people's traditions as a lot of changes take place around them. Further development may lead to 'antagonism' as local residents recognize tourism development as the reason for all their economic and social problems. Nevertheless some argue that it "tends to be more abstract because one is measuring the intangibles of human stress and attitudes" (Murphy, 1985). Additionally Butler (1997) shows that a community's approach toward tourists is quite complicated and varying degrees of factors such as contact frequencies and tourists' behaviour may affect it.

The other direction taken by the theorists places more emphasis on the type of contact between local people and tourists, and takes into account that stress can be acceptable if tourism development brings economic or other benefit. Figure 2.4 shows the components of the main characteristics which influence the host community within local and regional circumstances. However Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) suggest that local communities go through a cycle of reactions as the impacts of tourism development become more pronounced and their opinions change with more knowledge. Similarly, Glasson (1994) notes that the development action may influence the social and economic environment, characteristically employment opportunities, services, community structure, lifestyle and values.

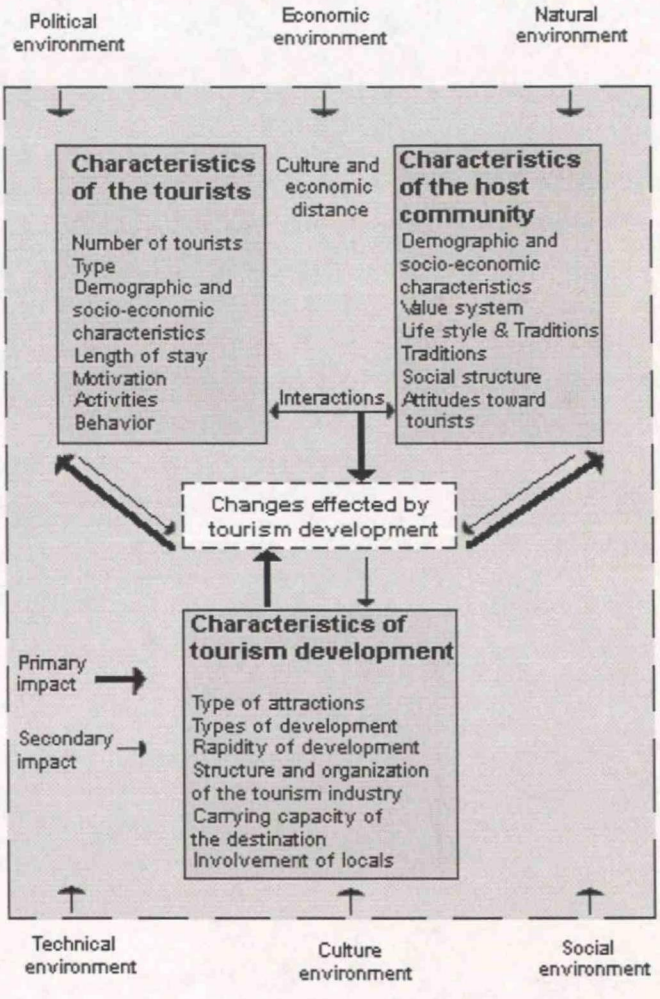


Figure 2.4: The main characteristics influencing the host community
Source: Richards and Hall (2000)

On the other hand, Faulkner (1997) identifies the basic and non-basic dimension elements, which could be used to assess impact on the host community, in terms of destination life cycle and social exchange, which affect the host community and the tourism development mechanism. He points out that the negative impact of tourism will be emphasized in destinations at an established phase of tourism development. The type of tourism, visitor orientation and seasonality are the main factors that influence socio-

cultural impact and influence local communities' ability to be involved in developing the industry in their region. The tourist ratio (i.e. the number of tourists to the number of residents), provides an indication of the intensity of the tourist flow. Differentiation in the attitudes towards, and perceptions of, tourists by resident populations are affected by the type of tourist visiting the area. More specifically, the degree to which the host and visitor populations vary from each other in terms of cultural characteristics and socio-economic status will have a significant bearing on local reactions. Also, where the entry of tourists has a marked seasonal pattern, the impacts on the community are emphasized during peak periods and, therefore, become more noticeable to residents.

2.8 Summary

This chapter has offered an outline of development, sustainability and issues related to sustainable tourism development. It has explored the importance of identifying and conserving the values of natural environment and cultural uniqueness in order to enhance sustainable tourism development. The philosophy and the theoretical structure of sustainable tourism development have been analyzed as well as the goals and policies of tourism planning, the concepts of strategic tourism plan and tourism planning integration. It has also been noted that local community participation in decision-making about tourism activity, which may affect people's lives, is essential for sustaining tourism development. Nevertheless the cultural dimension was not acknowledged in tourism development policies until the late 1980s, i.e. only when significant attention was given to the developmental needs and interests of the tourism product (Robinson, 1999, pp. 379-395). The World Bank (2004) declares that "for the past 50 years, governments and the private sector have focused most of their attention on economic sectors that meet their objectives and have often failed to share the benefits with local communities to improve their capabilities and quality of life". Environmental sustainability is unavoidably bound up with concepts of economic, social, cultural and political sustainability. Sustainable development underlines that the local community is itself a key part of the tourism product and in this sense the more that a local community achieves from tourism, the

more it will be motivated to conserve the natural environment and maintain tourism facilities.

Furthermore key issues have been examined with respect to the positive and negative forces of tourism which concern development and the sustainability principles. Issues influence how to achieve sustainable tourism development using an integrated tourism planning and management approach have been explored. Such an integrated tourism plan considers the local community as a central element; focusing on community involvement in the planning and development process, and developing the types of tourism development which generate benefits for them. This chapter has also given evidence to show that the cornerstone of sustainable tourism development is the participatory approach, which empowers local people so they can grown into an appreciation and positive perception of tourism development. This could be the way that awareness and responsibility becomes an outcome of the planning process. For this reason there is a need to involve the local community as development partners, through a series of actions. Nevertheless there is no general theory of planning that can satisfy local community, economic, environment and development objectives which aim in different destinations. The bottom-up approach as a planning mechanism could be considered to be the ideal solution, in principle, that would allow the local community to be involved. Cooperation between stakeholders is the key point of efficient and successful planning.

A number of studies of the impacts of tourism development have been reviewed and these prove it is possible to identify a set of common impacts encountered in most tourist developments, and organize them into three main groups: physico–ecological impacts, socio-cultural and economico-political impacts. However local particularities require careful consideration because the cultural dimension is difficult to assess. Theories linked to community impact assessment have been investigated and these point out that an optimistic community response might be expected at an initial stage of tourism development. Later as community capacity is exceeded, residents distinguish tourism as the cause of all their problems thus they become disenchanted with the industry. Accordingly, further research is needed to identify what is the current interaction between

tourism development and local communities; how to raise the profile of the tourism industry and tourism strategic planning within local communities; what kind of problems hinder local communities involvement in the tourism development and how these problems can be minimized and opportunities exploited to improve sustainability and finally how can the tourism development planning achieve the overall aim of sustainable development and environmental management for local community benefits.

CHAPTER THREE:

APPROACH TO COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM

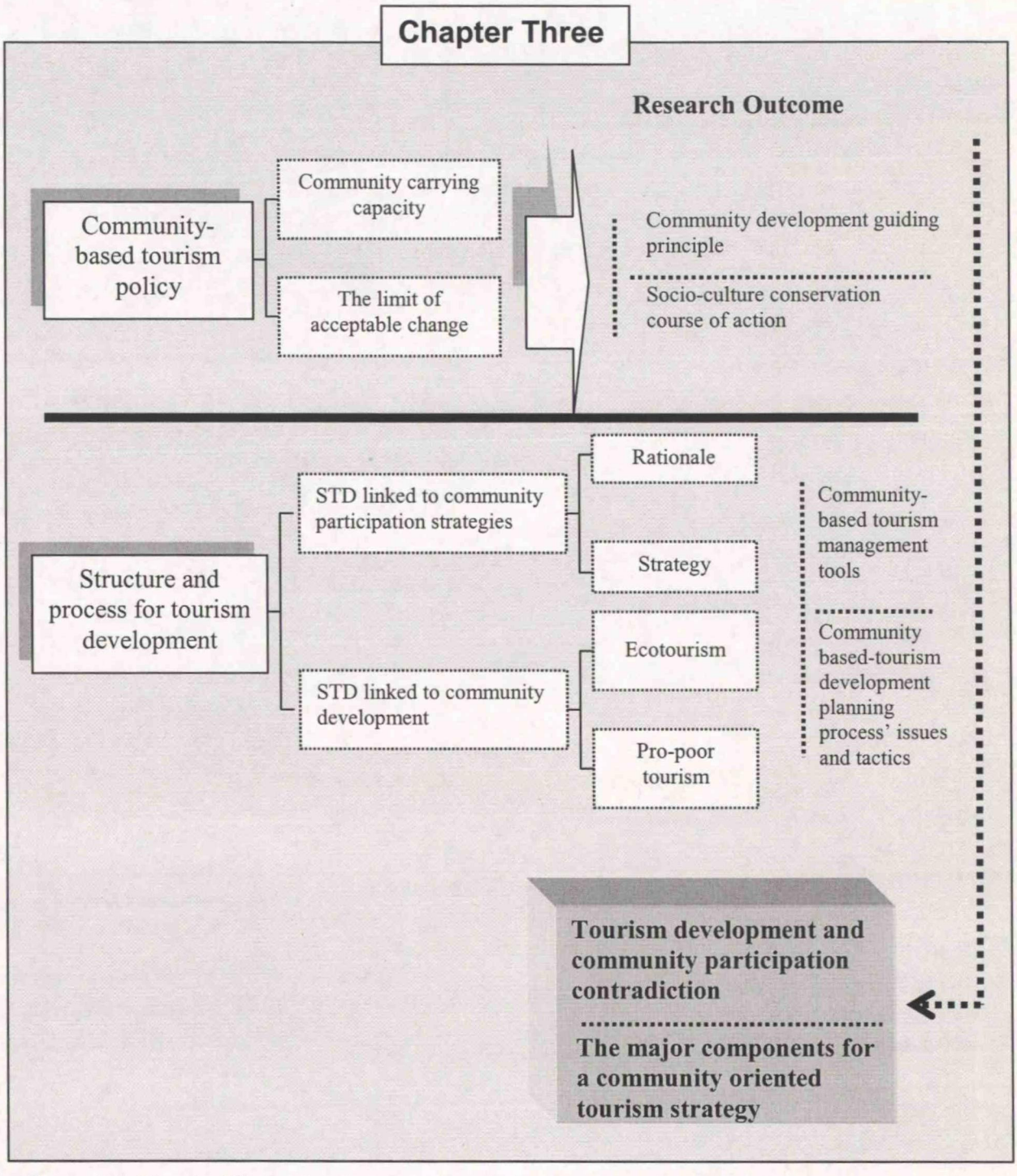


Figure 3.1 Chapter Three structure

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents the second part of the literature review of the study and outlines three major contextual areas: **First**, in section 3.2 and 3.3 it explores guiding principles of sustainable tourism development through different methods to protect and conserve local communities' identity and secure social, political and economic benefits, through control of the tourism characteristics; **Second**, in section 3.4 it discusses the contradiction between tourism and community plus the changing concept of local community involvement. **Third**, in sections 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 it discusses techniques and polices of sustainable community-based tourism development. Various definitions are discussed, linked to community based tourism development; i.e. carrying capacity; limit of acceptable change and community based tourism. Alternative approaches are examined to develop theoretical criteria for the evaluation of tourism development plans to determine their appropriateness for the welfare of local communities.

3.2 Carrying Capacity

In the 1960s carrying capacity assessment was introduced as a practical procedure, to be used (as a technique sometimes involving statistical, computerized calculation) for defining restrictions of activities and managing development in an objective way (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). It has often been used to classify the ability of a system to absorb changes. Murphy (1985, p.27) stresses, "each environment has an ability to maintain activities up to a certain level, but once this level is exceeded some form of deterioration can be expected in the environment or the activity taking place". In the early 70s, when carrying capacity was applied to tourism, stakeholders were looking for an exact number that could be applied to tourism developments in terms of number of tourists, nights or activities. Since then various definitions have been used; Box 3.1 shows some of these. The early classifications of carrying capacity concentrated on environment in terms of a one-dimensional perspective. However, recent interpretations emphasize the need for a multidimensional approach combining quantitative and qualitative aspects (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002).

It is argued that if carrying capacities for entire tourism sites are calculated so that sustainable tourism can be achieved, then it should be implemented through a system of effective planning and management controls (Liu 2003; Hall and Lew, 1998). However Glasson *et al.*, (1995) argue "Tourism carrying capacity (TCC) presents an approach to tourism management where levels of visitor activity or development at a destination are maintained within acceptable limits". The argument goes that it is not a systematic concept or formula for acquiring a number, beyond which development should cease. The eventual limits must be considered as guidance (Saveriades, 2000, p.151). Getz (1987, p.245) points out "TCC has been modified from an objectively assessed threshold to a policy for useful desired conditions providing more advantages to planning and decision making". Thus carrying capacity is not fixed, and it develops with time and the growth of tourism as well as being affected by management techniques and controls; it should be carefully assessed and examined, and matched with other standards.

Box 3.1: Tourism carrying capacity (TCC) definitions

There have been many attempts to define carrying capacity. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) proposes the following definition of the carrying capacity the maximum number of people that may visit a tourist destination at the same time, without causing destruction of the physical, economic and socio-cultural environment and an unacceptable decrease in the quality of visitors' satisfaction. According to the IUCN (2004) Carrying Capacity could be identified as an optimum people-land ratio, which includes physical, physiological and ecological capacity. In another words it is the maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by the visitors. Coccossis and Mexa (2002) identify it as the maximum level of use an area can sustain as set by natural factors of environmental resistance such as food, shelter or water, beyond this natural limit and major increases in the dependent population can occur. Nevertheless Hall and Lew (1998) state that carrying capacity is increasingly being identified as a management system directed towards maintenance or restoration of ecological and social conditions defined as acceptable and appropriate in area management objectives

Source: Adopted from IUCN (2004), UNEP (2003), Coccossis and Mexa (2002)

3.2.1 TCC identification methodology

Environmental planning uses carrying capacity as a guide for decisions about land use activity, allocation and area, development volume and management. It can be considered

as an essential technique that is used typically to classify the ability of an area to accept the highest level of development without destruction of its natural resources. Murphy (1985, pp.147-166) believes that it is used to describe the ability of the physico-biological environment to survive recreation use; it has been used to express the amount of use that is consistent with some measure of quality in the recreation experience. In a similar way, Glasson (1995) points out that carrying capacity has not only different dimensions but also different perspectives. He considers that a number of factors influence TCC and these depend on various management objectives. A considerable number of studies have been attempted to identify those factors. The type of tourist destination, the characteristics of the place and the specific nature of tourism are considered to be the major factors influencing TCC (Walchester, 1993).

On the one hand, it is highly likely that carrying capacity issues are affected by tourism category and destination. Islands, rural areas, mountain resorts, towns and historical settlements differ from coastal areas which are normally associated with mass-tourism; large scale construction and infrastructure, intensive land development and extensive urbanization. Mass-tourism leads to high tourist density, massive use of beaches and overuse for the infrastructure and facilities (Saveriades, 2000; Glasson, 1995; Murphy, 1985). On the other hand Liu (2003) and Walchester (1993) argue that physical, ecological, social and economic factors add further complication to this issue. Glasson (1995, pp.51-53) identifies those factors as the physical environment which involves all flexible and inflexible components of the natural and built-cultural environment as well as infrastructure, along with the social factors (those social aspects which are important to local communities) as they relate to the number, frequency and growth of tourism. Furthermore the economic issue, i.e. the impacts of tourism on the local economic structure, activities, etc., including competition with other sectors. Institutional issues are also included for the way they involve local capacity to manage tourism. Liu (2003) believes that economic carrying capacity has strong connections with the profitability and opportunity costs of tourism development which influences TCC; furthermore TCC is also affected by tourist behaviour, developer performance and the resilience of a destination's socioeconomic and physical environments. Hall and Lew (1998) and

Murphy (1985) point out that the ways in which the visitors assess and react to the environment will be different according to their backgrounds and interests, which attaches difficulty to the issue. Therefore satisfying visitors and meeting their expectations represent successful tourism development. Carrying capacity assessment must take into account the recreation activities and needs of visitors in addition to other dimensions (McCool and Lime, 2001, p.372; Walchester,1993).

In a similar way IUCN (2004) and Butler (1997, pp.11-21) clarify that there are two sets of thought on TCC The first deals with how many tourists are wanted according to characteristics of the tourists; the second recognizes TCC as the level beyond which tourist flows will decline according to characteristics of the destination area and its population (see Box 3.2). The interaction between tourism development and local environment is combined with these factors, including ecological system, physical infrastructure, economic characteristics, tourists' characteristics, residents' acceptance and political capability (Saveriades, 2000; Glasson, 1995; Murphy, 1985).

Box 3.2: The factors influencing tourism carrying capacity

The characteristics of the tourists are;

- *Socio-economic characteristics such as age, sex, income, availability of spending money; their motivations, attitudes and expectation.*
- *Racial and ethnic backgrounds and behaviour patterns.*
- *The level of the use of the facility, the visitor density, length of stay, types of tourist activity and levels of tourist satisfaction.*

The characteristics of the destination area and its population;

- *The natural environmental features.*
- *Economic structure and economic development.*
- *Social structure and organization.*
- *Political organization.*
- *Level of tourism development.*

Source: IUCN (2004)

Furthermore researchers divide the process of defining TCC into two parts descriptive and evaluative, particularly for new destinations starting with *"the identification of the*

desirable condition and preferable type of development. Within this context goals and management objectives need to be defined, alternative fields of actions should be evaluated and a strategy for tourist development should be formulated" (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). The previous three components 'the characteristics of destinations, characteristics of tourism and their interaction' are defined as a descriptive part, which describes how the systems work at the tourist destination. The second part is the evaluative part, which describes how an area should be managed, and the level of acceptable impacts (Williams and Gill, 1991, cited by Glasson *et al.*, 1995)

Figure 3.2 shows the conceptual framework for carrying capacity determination. Clearly in view of the carrying capacity process those components should be considered with different weights depending on destinations. IUCN (2004); Coccossis and Mexa (2002); Glasson (1995) classify the process of defining TCC as a series of flows; the first process consists of analysis of the characteristics of the system and the tourism development category. The second stage is definition of the implications of the tourism development with classification of driving forces; further assessment of the state of each component including identification of impacts, problems, threats, and conflicts should be carried out. In the third stage a definition of TCC is prepared for each component. It must also identify the alternatives to tourism development, with analysis of impacts, variety of preferable opportunity and elaboration of policy. Further explanation of carrying capacity for the system on the basis of the preferable option should be calculated and finally TCC is determined with the selection of a final list of indicators.

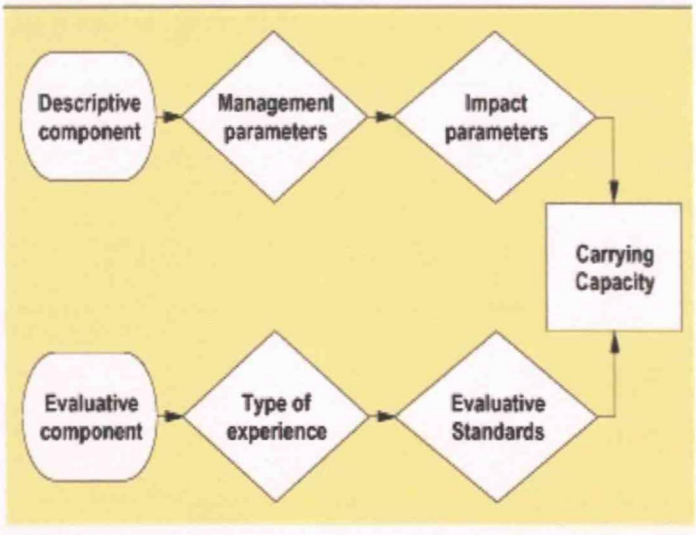


Figure 3.2: Carrying capacity framework
Source: IUCN (2004)

3.2.2 Community Carrying Capacity

Community carrying capacity (CCC) can be described as the social limits of local tolerance and acceptance for tourism, owing to the fact that, when this parameter is exceeded, negative effects will be incurred, since an unfriendly atmosphere will reduce a destination's attractiveness (Walchester, 1993). D'Amore (1983, cited by Murphy, 1985) has defined social carrying capacity for tourism as "the point in the growth of tourism where local residents perceive on balance an unacceptable level of social disbenefits from tourism development". Kennedy (1994, p.175) considers the CCC in terms of social perspective as the criteria, which help to increase people's quality of life while decreasing their impact on the environment. Thus social carrying capacity involves the socio-cultural impacts of tourism that will influence the attitude of the local community towards tourism. However Sindiga (1999) explains that social carrying capacity is used as a generic term to include of the host population's levels of tolerance. Jones (1995) argues that the social carrying capacity as a concept provides a mechanism for tourism planning within the community, and within these mechanisms communities will have the ability to choose the development and planning strategies that match their aspirations. Furthermore, Murphy (1985, p.134) emphasizes that the social carrying capacity concept offers two useful functions to tourism planning.

> *"**First**, it presents the philosophical stance that every destination has a finite supply of resources, including hospitality. This aspect frequently is overlooked in the early stages of development when the residents' early enthusiasm is expected to continue, regardless of the added pressures placed on the host community. **Second**, it provides a framework within which to assess the relative impacts of tourism developments. An exact gauge of tolerance levels is not expected because of its dependency on residents' perceptions of the industry and its impacts, which can vary considerably".*
>
> Murphy (1985, p.134)

Since circumstances and conditions will vary at each destination, there are no specific planning methods which could be applied to assess the community and its social carrying capacity. Murphy (1985) offers a conceptual framework that can reduce visitor resident tension by considering the social consequences of various proposals in terms of a community's social carrying capacity for change and development. D'Amore (1983, pp.19-59) suggests that residents of destination areas should understand the socio-

economic significance of tourism development and states that tourism planning should be based on overall development goals and priorities identified by the residents because if residents can maintain their unique lifestyle and fulfill their own aspirations, then visitors can enjoy distinctive areas. Where that happens tourism development will reflect local community's needs and desires and thus the chances of exceeding local social carrying capacity will be reduced. Furthermore local attraction should be monitored and run by local people with local involvement not only in planning and monitoring the local attraction but also to allow them to invest; such action will permit a greater degree of local control over the direction of tourism development and the use of local resources will increase employment and economic benefits to the community. Moreover, before proceeding with any further increases in tourism activities, local problems of economic growth should be mitigated in short and long term plans.

Similarly, Sindiga (1999) emphasizes that social carrying capacity not only functions as a measure of social sensitivity to tourism development, but also it can offer guidance to minimize local community problems that hinder tourism development. On the other hand Walchester (1993) points out that when measuring the acceptance by the local community of tourism development, it should be seen as a source which can be used up; thus, the attitude of the host community may be a major factor in limiting tourism development. However, Kennedy (1994, p.175) refers to seven main indicators that work together and reflect the important priorities and consequences that a community wishes to attain: social quality, diversity, interconnection, safety, access to functional recreational and open space, maximization of household income and finally inclusion in the decision making process.

However, some disagree that social capacity thresholds are perhaps the most difficult to evaluate as opposed to physico-ecological and economic ones since they depend to a great extent on value judgments (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). The IUCN (2004) identifies the main issues influencing local and social carrying capacity assessment and reduction of development impacts;

- The number of tourists and tourist/recreation activity types which can be absorbed without affecting the sense of identity, life style and social patterns and activities of host communities;
- The level and type of tourism which does not significantly alter local culture in direct or indirect ways in terms of arts, crafts, belief systems, ceremonies, customs and traditions;
- The level of tourism that will not be resented by local population or pre-empt their use of services and amenities;
- The level of tourism in terms of the number of visitors and compatibility of types of activities in an area without unacceptable decline of the experience for visitors.

Nevertheless McCool and Lime (2001, p.381) argue that impacts cannot be avoided. But based on recognized goals and understanding of the local people's circumstances and desires it can be minimized. He believes that limits of acceptable change can provide a more technical method, in terms of defining the important values, particular issues, indicator variables and desired or acceptable conditions.

3.3 The limits of acceptable change

Within the enhanced definition of TCC other concepts have been explored such as visitor impact management, LAC and visitor experience resource protection frameworks (Getz, 1987, p.241). Nevertheless carrying capacity examines numbers as a tourism management tool, while the LAC concept emphasizes the management of recreational use impacts. Stankey (1984, p.455) defines it as a framework for establishing acceptable, appropriate resource use and social conditions in recreation settings. However, Glasson *et al.,* (1994) categorize LAC as a resource and a set of social conditions in a given context and identify management techniques which will maintain this condition over time. In agreement with this vision, Kennedy (1994, p.159) considers the LAC approach as a planning procedure designed to identify appropriate resources and social environmental surroundings in a given area to lead the development techniques to preserve those

resources. Thus it does not focus on the level of visits and activity, but rather on the change to the environment. Glasson (1995, p.150) sums up the LAC concept which;

> *"Seeks to define desirable conditions that are considered in an area and sets up management strategies to achieve specified goals. This approach does not look for use limits or maximum values but uses the concept of land use zones where a set of desired conditions in terms of social, ecological, physical and economic impacts are maintained. Standards are set and indicators employed, to identify when unacceptable impacts emerge, with subsequent actions taken to modify the situation in line with management objectives".*

In fact it is highly likely that the limit of acceptable change process is a part of environmental planning effort. And in order to guarantee success in its implementation, sensitivity, judgment and public participation in decision-making processes need to be involved (Stankey, 1995, p.21). The following section will explore LAC methods and techniques.

3.3.1 LAC identification methodology

The acceptable environmental conditions of an area must be specified having regard to social, economic and environmental values of an area, its tourist potential and other management considerations. A number of researchers attempt to define the basic framework for the LAC (IUCN, 2004, p.71; Jones, 1995, p.55; Stankey and McCool, 1990, p.220) consider four main stages as LAC structure, as follows:

- Measurable indicators should be classified in terms of acceptable environmental and social conditions.
- The relationship between the existing conditions and the desired state should be analyzed.
- Management techniques and procedures should be explored.
- Indicators of conditions should be monitored and evaluated.

It should be recognized that the LAC process involves some steps that will be essential for any approach to understand the relationships between the resources and the users. Objectives should be clearly acknowledged in order to identify public and management issues and concerns associated with an area and the identification of useful indicators that allow the identification of desired resource and social conditions (Jones, 1995, p. 56). In a recreational setting, the LAC management process sets out a series of nine sequential steps (see Box 3.3) which help to identify acceptable social and resources characteristics of the setting, comparing existing conditions with those desired, identifying a series of possible actions which will help to achieve these desired conditions; and establishing systematic and regular measurement techniques to monitor changes and the effectiveness of management actions undertaken (Stankey and McCool, 1990 cited by IUCN 2004, p.71). In addition, a number of principles to secure the benefits of the LAC management process are mentioned by McCool (1991, cited by Kennedy, 1994) including, for instance; proper management procedures, which depend upon objectives, should be identified and the

Box 3.3: Limits of acceptable change

1. **Define issues and concerns**
   - *Economic*
   - *Social*
   - *Environmental*
   - *Political & institutional constraints*
2. **Define and describe opportunity classes**
   - *Resources*
   - *Social*
   - *Managerial*
3. **Selected indicator of resource and social conditions**
   - *Economic*
   - *Social*
   - *Environmental*
   - *Political*
4. **Identify existing resource and social conditions**
   - *Current status of indicators*
   - *Standards database*
5. **Specify opportunity class standards**
   - *Acceptable, observable, measurable limits*
6. **Identify alternative opportunity class allocations**
   - *Type of use*
   - *Location*
   - *Timing*
7. **Identify management action**
   - *Direct*
   - *Indirect*
8. **Evaluate and select alternative management actions**
   - *Costs & benefits*
   - *Consensus building*
   - *Management capability*
9. **Implement and monitor**
   - *Compare against standards*
   - *Adjust management strategies*

Source: Adapted from IUCN (2004)

desired social conditions should be specified. Furthermore any variables affecting utilities or resources in a negative way should be limited. The level of agreement among affected groups about proposed action should be measured to achieve successful implementation of the management plan. Moreover, the decision-making process should separate technical decisions from value judgments. And finally, monitoring is essential to professional management.

3.4 Tourism and Community agreement

> *Tourism has a major impact on local communities in tourist destinations. It can be a significant source of income and employment for local people. It can also pose a threat to an area's social fabric and its natural and cultural heritage, upon which it ultimately depends, but if it is well planned and managed it can be a force for their conservation.*
>
> *Local Agenda 21*

As mentioned above, there is an assumption that differences can be experienced at specific locations, which are associated with specific communities. Thus the realization that the communities themselves have come to be used as part of the tourism experience makes them a major part of the development equation. Although there is a view that tourism development expansion has been associated with many idealistic notions concerning its contribution to society, like many other human activities, it can have positive and negative impacts (Singh and Dallen, 2003; Barton, 2000). The industry has frequently been seen as a force for positive contributions to the social, economic, and natural environments of destination communities. Murphy (1985, p.153) points out that more than any other industry tourism development depends on the goodwill and cooperation of local populations. If planning can be readdressed from being a pure business growth approach to a more open and community-oriented approach which views tourism as a local resource, the industry possesses great potential for social and economic benefits.

An important argument is advanced by Richards and Hall (2000) who claim communities are not simply victims of the tourism industry where of tourism as an indicator of globalization. Communities become the heart of resistance and conflict with the processes of change demonstrated by tourism development. Barton (2000) identified

tourism development as a part of the global system, which has meant that economic, social, political, and cultural networks are becoming international. However, the *"homogenized global economic, social and cultural landscape emphasizes local differences even more strongly, amid calls for devolution and political autonomy which in turn encourage some communities to reproduce themselves specifically for tourists"* (Richards and Hall, 2000). Furthermore, for globalization to be sustainable it should not be consider as a universal process of global integration (Zakaria, 2003).

Hence significant benefits could be seized for local communities and their regions through applying community-oriented tourism strategies, which are to emphasize their differentiation as "community tourism product". Like a traditional tourist product it will be an amalgam of the destination's resources and facilities that adds an important dimension to the tourism destination by providing different and unique products. McGehee (1998, p.8.) emphasizes that this approach could provide a mix of economic and social motivators resulting from different community development contributions. However, it should be recognized that to set in place a community tourism product approach for sustaining tourism activity involves having a vision of local development and making decisions about managing tourism. It should be approved in the context of democratic community strategic planning in which the main stakeholders need to participate in all procedures (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). A complex mixture of connecting parts is required, leading to a general aim that can be identified and measured. Figure 3.3 attempts to outline the major components of a community-oriented tourism management strategy.

Three integrated stages might be used to identify and discuss the main factors, which influence community-based products. The **initial considerations stage** consists of a planning or management scheme, environmental and accessibility considerations, business and economic considerations and social and cultural considerations. In this stage environment and accessibility may be considered as the main tourism asset. Nevertheless the tourism development strategy should be reviewed from an economic perspective owing to the belief that environmental aspects and accessibility are not enough to achieve

successful development. **The objectives and issues stage** reflects the development size, volume and direction in the light of local community capability in order to provide the perfect development range within its capacity, desires and customs which could be categorized as social and cultural considerations. Finally, those components should be supervised and controlled by a management procedure. The next step is **the responses stage** which refers to specific procedures that should be adopted for recognizing development issues such as identifying the environmental carrying capacity in terms of natural limitations and exploring the diversification of growth and its relation with local investment experience and capability. It is necessary to categorize the selected market which matches with the local approach and to put these procedures in the right order that will integrate with the objectives that make it obligatory that development should proceed in harmony with the desires and customs of local people.

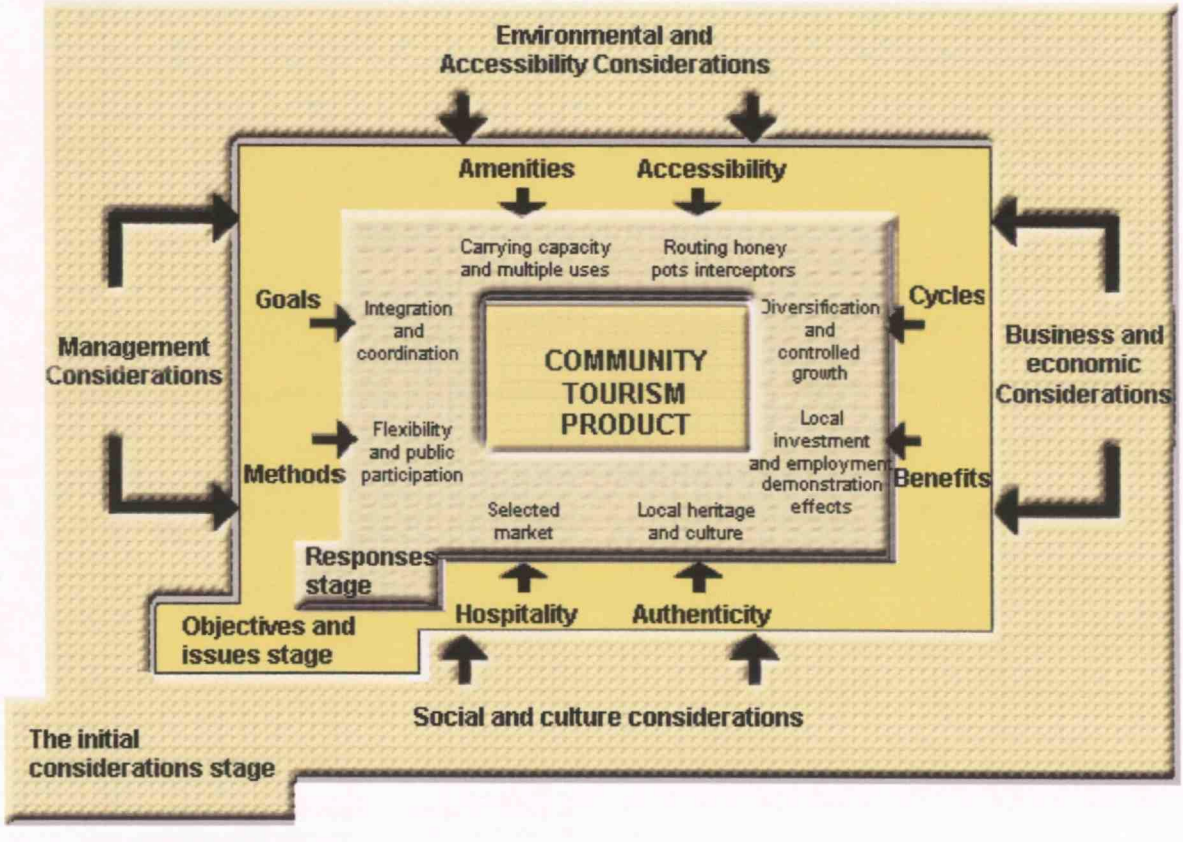


Figure 3.3: The major components for a community oriented tourism strategy
Source: Murphy (1985)

Although not all components are presented within each step, the process should include the important ones. Within this planning process tourists perhaps will come to an area in only small numbers at the early development stage because of lack of information, transportation and tourism facilities; however, the more facilities, access and awareness the more tourists will the destination gain, but this process is not inevitable. There is a view that a community tourism product, like any other new product, could have the same problems in terms of the correlation between a product's optimum size and customers' consumption. Butler (1997) divides these sequences into six stages illustrated in a cumulative model (Figure 3.4). The first stage, the exploration stage, consists of early development with small numbers of tourists and facilities. With further tourism services' development and local community involvement the model moves to the involvement stage; this is distinguished by local people's and tourists' satisfaction. The development stage is the third stage and sees a dramatic increase in the tourism facilities, activities and services.

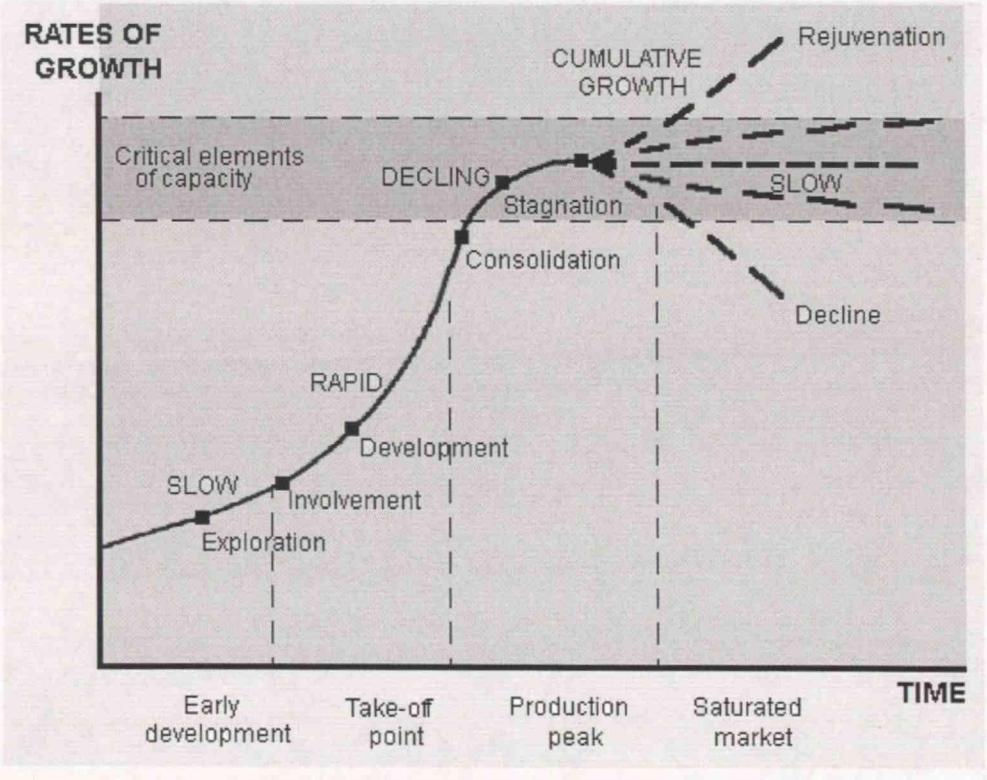


Figure 3.4: Theoretical growth and evolution curve for tourism destination
Source: adopted from Butler (1997); Murphy (1985)

The destination becomes known as an attractive tourism development destination for tourists and outside companies, particularly construction companies building tourist facilities. Local participation decreases. Although there is an increasing number of tourists and investors this leads to a slowdown in growth rates and in the product cycle this is labeled the consolidation stage. The stagnation stage is where the optimum range of facilities and size of destination as well as tourist numbers have been reached, and there is a threat of exceeding the capacity levels that are the threshold to environmental, social, and economic problems. Depending on the exceptionality of the destination and the tourism facilities in addition to the marketing and the management techniques, the final stage could be categorized by the fact that it reflects a variety of options. Outputs at stage six can either decline or thrive. Murphy (1985, p.86) describes this stage as the critical stage because "If the tourist area enters a decline stage the area will not be able to compete with newer attractions, and consequently faces a declining market. Tourist facilities will deteriorate and may be replaced by non-tourist-related structures and activities. In some cases accommodation is converted into condominiums, retirement, or convalescent homes, since the natural attractions still make them pleasant places to live".

3.5 STD linked to community participation strategies

Sustainable tourism development (STD) linked to community participation for its improvement has received increasing attention since the 1992 Earth Summit, as the failure of top-down approaches to preserve nature and eliminate poverty for local community has generated in turn a broader interest in new development strategies such as community-based tourism, community-based ecotourism and pro-poor tourism (The Mountain Institute, 2000). These strategies consider the risk which tourism development poses to communities which place a high value on their local and cultural identity (UNEP, 2003). In fact it is highly likely that although these strategies consider the same objectives, they have a different root. To quote from the IIED report (1999, pp.14-22) which categorizes the differences between pro-poor tourism, sustainable tourism and community-based tourism "the calls for sustainable tourism have tended to focus on environmental concerns. However, the concept is now broadening to include social,

economic and cultural aspects. It is recognized that host communities must benefit if tourism is to be viable in the long term". The report argues that "means to the end of sustainability are usually expressed in a protectionist/defensive way: preserving local culture, minimizing costs. In contrast, pro-poor tourism aims to expand opportunities and places net benefits to the poor as a goal in itself, to which environmental concerns should contribute" (more details are given in sections 3.6 and 3.7).

On the one hand local community involvement in the tourism development planning process and management stage in terms of expanding tourism enterprises run by them is the main objective for community-based tourism schemes (UNEP, 2003). This argument states that *"pro-poor tourism requires maximizing use of local labor, goods and services within the formal sector, particularly in high-density (urban/coastal) environments; expanding informal sector linkages; ensuring that infrastructural development and environmental strategies benefit the poor; and creating a supportive policy framework and planning context that addresses needs of poor producers and residents within tourism"* (IIED, 1999, p.14).

On the other hand, applying such strategies depends on each region's circumstances, which in turn are identified through assessing the destination's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT). This tool should be applied before selecting tourism development policies and techniques. SWOT analysis assesses the destination's potential as well as community potential that help to identify the applicable methods, which capitalize on the community benefits and minimize the negative tourism impact. Furthermore it assesses tourism potential and helps to identify planning and management techniques. Table 3.1 presents the main factors needed to assess destination potential (WTO, 2004 p. 34)

Table 3.1: SWOT analysis factors for assessing destinations potential

Strengths	Destination assets: • *Local, Complementary attractions, natural and cultural assets, infrastructure and support services;* Community support: • *Active participation, common objectives;* Workforce: • *Availability, skill levels;* Management capacity: • *Skill levels, funding available*

Continued

Table 3.1 continued

Opportunities	Economic opportunities: • *For businesses, employment;* Product and market opportunities: • *Unique, authentic products, product market match, niche markets;* Community enhancement: • *Socio-cultural benefits;* Conservation: • *Tourism's contribution to natural and cultural heritage.*
Weaknesses	Lack of tourist appeal: • *Few significant or unique tourism attractions, poor accessibility , lack of infrastructure;* No vision: • *Uncertainties in direction, lack of understanding or cohesion in the destination community;* Preparedness: • *Lack of plans, training needs, funds, alternative priorities.*
Threats and Constraints	Environmental impacts: • *Disturbance of loss of habitat, increased of use of resources, waste;* Cultural degradation: • *Daily lives, customs and practices disrupted;* Poor quality: • *Tourist dissatisfaction, lack of standards;* External threats: • *Regulations, travel security, environmental impacts.*

Source: WTO (2004)

3.5.1 Community-based tourism rationale

In any involvement and planning effort, the critical issue is to be clear about the goals, and to focus activities including monitoring and evaluation around these goals. It should be recognized that natural resource conservation and emphasis on relationships with economic development might not always be oriented towards community-based tourism objectives. Cultural conservation, community and gender empowerment and profits creation are also primary purposes in various. There is a view that natural resources particularly in tourism development are often owned and managed by outsiders leading to a high leakage of revenue away from the rural and isolated area communities cases (The Mountain Institute, 2000, p.6).

"Packaged tours are frequently offered, and the only involvement of local people is through the use of their natural resources at minimum or no cost to the operator, where local communities in remote areas are used as guides for the reason that they are paid minimal salaries, in contrast to the profits made by the investors and owners" (Wearing and McDonald, 2002, p.198). Nevertheless from an environmental and economic perspective, if local people are not involved, it is likely over time that the resources on which tourism depends will be destroyed and the investment lost (The Mountain Institute, 2000 p.8). Furthermore WTO (2004) points out that community-based tourism provides a fundamental requirement for the bottom-up approach, with the local community closely involved in determining a sustainable future for its area.

Box 3.4: Community based tourism objectives

- *Community-based Tourism must contribute to increasing and/or improving conservation of natural and/or cultural resources, including biological diversity, water, forests, cultural landscapes, monuments, etc;*
- *Community-based Tourism must contribute to local economic development through increasing tourism revenues and other benefits to community participants, and ideally to an increasing number of participants;*
- *Community-based Tourism must have a level of participation ideally progressing toward self-mobilization, but not always necessarily;*
- *Community-based Tourism has a duty to the visitor to provide a socially and environmentally responsible product.*

Source: The Mountain Institute (2000)

3.5.2 Community-based Tourism strategy

Community-based tourism enhances nature conservation and community development through its activities. This could possess different features: it may focus on adding value by investing in natural and cultural assets, and existing activities resulting in increased revenues and incomes to local communities and incentives to conserve resources. There may be community-owned and managed lands used for tourism purposes with collective decision-making arrangements over the management and development of tourism. Agreement should be reached with a group of community-based entrepreneurs to use their experience. However, particular techniques have been identified to categorize these

policies. For instance; The Mountain Institute study (2000; pp.9-15) shows that communication within and between the local communities should be improved, and then methods for the local community to directly benefit from tourism revenues should be explored as an essential issue plus development of financial and legal mechanisms to facilitate, not constrain, community-based tourism development and to consider the options in developing and marketing a tourism product as the basis for developing strategies. Wearing and McDonald (2002) argue that pursuit of the community-based tourism scheme market nationally should be continued, while at the same time improving services and the value of facilities. In addition support bodies for training in local communities plus other forms of skills development and capacity building should be developed that will facilitate local people's full participation in the industry. Box 3.5 sums up the main criteria for securing community based tourism development strategy as outlined in UNEP (2003).

Box 3.5: Criteria for securing community based tourism development strategy

- *Ensure that sustainable tourism is integrated within the overall policies and actions towards sustainable development in the area*
- *Ensure that the strategy for sustainable tourism is based on sound analysis SWOT*
- *Encourage initiative from others, not just the local authority*
- *Make sure the strategy is community-owned and community-driven, but also reflects technical expertise*

Source: UNEP (2003)

Thus, it should be recognized that increasing and improving participation by stakeholders is essential. The ability of local people to participate actively in bottom-up, small-scale tourism development can vary considerably depending on economic, social and political relationships as well as ecological factors found in any particular area (The Mountain Institute, 2000). However, there is a view that, *"although community participation is strongly supported by many, there are in fact four prerequisites for such participation; namely, legal rights and opportunities to participate, access to information: provision of enough resources for people or groups to get involved; and genuinely public, that is, broad instead of selective, involvement from the concerned communities"* (Li, 2004, p.179). Empowerment of the destination community is the important aim of community-

based tourism and takes place at four levels. These are, firstly, ensuring lasting economic increase for local people should be secured to give economic empowerment. Secondly, improving the internal motivation of community members should be considered by appreciation of the exceptionality of the culture and natural resources. This is identified as psychological empowerment. Furthermore the social empowerment process seeks to provide channels, tools and mechanisms within local areas in order to cooperate for the benefit of the community. Finally political leaders should consider the community's ambitions and consider the experience of the local community during the planning and management stage (Li, 2004; Peace, 1998; Murphy, 1985).

An important argument here is that proper stakeholders' cooperation is the critical aspect for securing thriving community-based tourism development. Those stakeholders include a wide range of participants from the international institutions, government, local authorities, NGOs, local community and the private sector. UNEP (2003) categorizes the critical factors that influence successful partnership:

- Recognition of a high degree of interdependence in planning and managing the domain/project;
- Recognition of individual and shared benefits to be derived from the collaborative process;
- A perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented;
- The inclusion of key stakeholder groups;
- The appointment of a legitimate organizer to initiate and facilitate community- based collaboration;
- Formulation of aims and objectives.

UNEP (2000); WTTC and WTO (1996) emphasize how complicated and important stakeholder cooperation is, given that it influences the development process. This cooperation looks at stakeholder roles and responsibilities and should ensure that the international institutions support local people to supervise visits to their region in order for them to gain the highest in balance with economic profit and to preserve nature through implementation of and adherence to key conventions and agreements. In addition these institutions enhance international global investment and partnerships and encourage opportunities for planning for sustainable tourism development. On the other hand government and local authorities have different roles, for instance developing national

strategies to ensure that tourism is balanced by economic, social and environmental objectives at national and local level; providing coordination and cooperation between different agencies, authorities and organizations; organizing allocation of land uses, and controlling unsuitable activities by offering training, education and public awareness programmes for stakeholders including the local community. Moreover programmes to encourage people to participate in the industry and enhance stakeholder co-operation should be provided by the government. Furthermore, a comprehensive environmental impact assessment should be prepared that takes into account cumulative effects from multiple developments.

Unlike the non-governmental organizations, local communities have special roles linked to civil society and they need to participate in formulating policies in terms of monitoring, promoting and supporting training; education and public awareness for local communities besides sustaining the participation of all sectors of society. However appropriate technologies should be accessible to local communities, who in turn transfer indigenous knowledge and experience. Contributing to this trades unions should enhance cooperative behaviour and provide protection for the rights of workers. Finally the private sector should ensure long-term commitments and improvements to development and consistent monitoring of tourism activities as well as ensuring agreement with development plans, planning conditions, standards and targets for sustainable tourism by providing incentives. Environmentally sound technologies should be improved in order to minimize resource use and pollution.

3.6 Ecotourism as a sustainable development concept

In the light of the problems associated with mass-tourism, researchers, practitioners and developers have encouraged new forms of and alternatives for tourism development. Appropriate tourism, soft tourism, responsible tourism, low-impact tourism, and ecotourism are considered to be alternatives that take different features for one purpose, which is to realize sustainable development (Liu, 2003, p.466). There is a view that these alternatives are different forms of nature-based tourism, which is defined as the

enjoyment of natural areas. This view is highly debatable due to the fact that ecotourism provides local, environmental, cultural and economic benefits, whereas nature-based tourists for instance may just go bird watching (Sindiga, 1999, p.113). Furthermore ecotourism as a sustainable tourism development approach includes all segments and criteria of the industry that seek to reduce environmental, cultural, social and negative economic impacts. The international ecotourism society emphasizes this idea through its definition of ecotourism that defines this as "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people" (Wood, 2002). The IUCN identifies eco-tourism as "environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature and any accompanying cultural features both past and present that improve conservation, has low negative visitor impact, and provide for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations" (UNEP, 2003). The key ideas in both definitions are responsible travel, natural areas, conservation and welfare of the local people.

However, some argue that close examination shows that ecotourism is still far from satisfying its promise to transform the way in which modern, conventional tourism proceeds. The argument goes that "ecotourism didn't succeed in moving beyond a narrow niche market to a set of principles and practices that diffuses the entire tourism industry" (Liu, 2003, p.469). It should be recognized that all new forms and alternatives of tourism development including nature-based tourism and eco-tourism have been estimated to account for 10% to 15% of all international travel expenditures (WTTC, 1998). Consequently, it is, seen as somehow a myth to believe that ecotourism can be the path to sustainable development. Nevertheless, in fact it is highly likely that ecotourism is one of the most dynamic segments of the international travel industry. According to 1994 statistical data 40% to 60% of tourists, at the international level, had nature as their final destination, accounting for 211 to 317 million, out of which 106 to 211 million are tourists who have as their destination wild nature (Coccossis and Mexa, 2002). Domestic tourists are not included in the above figures, indicating that the actual number of tourists visiting natural areas is even higher. WTO notes "Tourism which has nature as a destination, corresponds to 7% of the international tourism expenditures, while it

estimates that 20% of the 600 million international arrivals during 1997 concerned ecotourism" (WTO, 2000). Furthermore tourist agencies report that the demand for tourism in nature increases every year by 10-25%. However, Sindiga (1999, p.113) argues that decision-makers and stakeholders improved ecotourism as a business approach without understanding its principles, for the reason that ecotourism was originally just an idea, not a discipline. These principles have been identified through the international ecotourism society. Box 3.6 shows the basic principles of ecotourism, which fit with the ideas of sustainable development in the sense that natural resources are utilized for tourism according to local community ambition and knowledge (Wood, 2002).

Box 3.6: Principles of Ecotourism

- *Minimize the negative impacts on nature and culture that can damage the destination.*
- *Strive to maximize economic benefit for the host community, local business and communities.*
- *Seek to ensure that tourism development does not exceed the social and environmental LAC as determined by researchers in cooperation with local communities.*
- *Rely on infrastructure that has been developed in harmony with the environment.*
- *Educate the traveler on the importance of conservation.*
- *Stress the importance of responsible business, which work cooperatively with local authorities and people to meet locales needs and deliver conservation benefits.*
- *Direct revenues to the conservation and management of natural and protected area.*
- *Emphasize the need for regional tourism zoning and for visitor management plans designed for either regions or natural areas that are slated to become eco-destination.*

Source: Wood (2002)

Supporting this view, Wearing and McDonald (2002, p.198) consider that ecotourism seems to have widespread and global appeal in the search for sustainable ways of securing an income for many rural and isolated area communities. Ecotourism emphasizes small scale and locally owned infrastructure in comparison to the expensive infrastructure associated with mass-tourism. On the basis of cost, given the use of local materials and indigenous operation of enterprises, ecotourism is particularly attractive (Sindiga, 1999, p.111). In addition, ecotourism behaviour calls for more attention to destination planning, management of resources and it is responsive to the fragile nature of ecosystems and cultural systems (UNEP, 2003).

3.6.1 Ecotourism as an integrated approach and methods

Clearly ecotourism has become an important economic activity in natural tourism destinations. It generates income for conservation programmes and economic benefits for communities living in rural and remote areas. Wood (2002) points out that ecotourism produces direct and indirect income for local stakeholders, and creates encouragement for conservation in local communities; in addition, it gives economic value to ecosystem services. UNDP (2002) states that ecotourism is seen as a desirable economic activity because it orientates tourists' expenditures to cooperatives or locally owned businesses in host communities. "This promise makes ecotourism an attractive conservation strategy, but it is essential to remember that, in order to achieve these social and environmental benefits, an ecotourism enterprise must operate as a viable business" (UNDP, 2002). For this reason proper ecotourism planning procedures are considered as a fundamental requirement to achieve sustainability aims. Figure 3.5 shows the main management and planning process for ecotourism. However, feasibility studies should be performed early in the planning process and involve the targeted owners, ideally with NGO support.

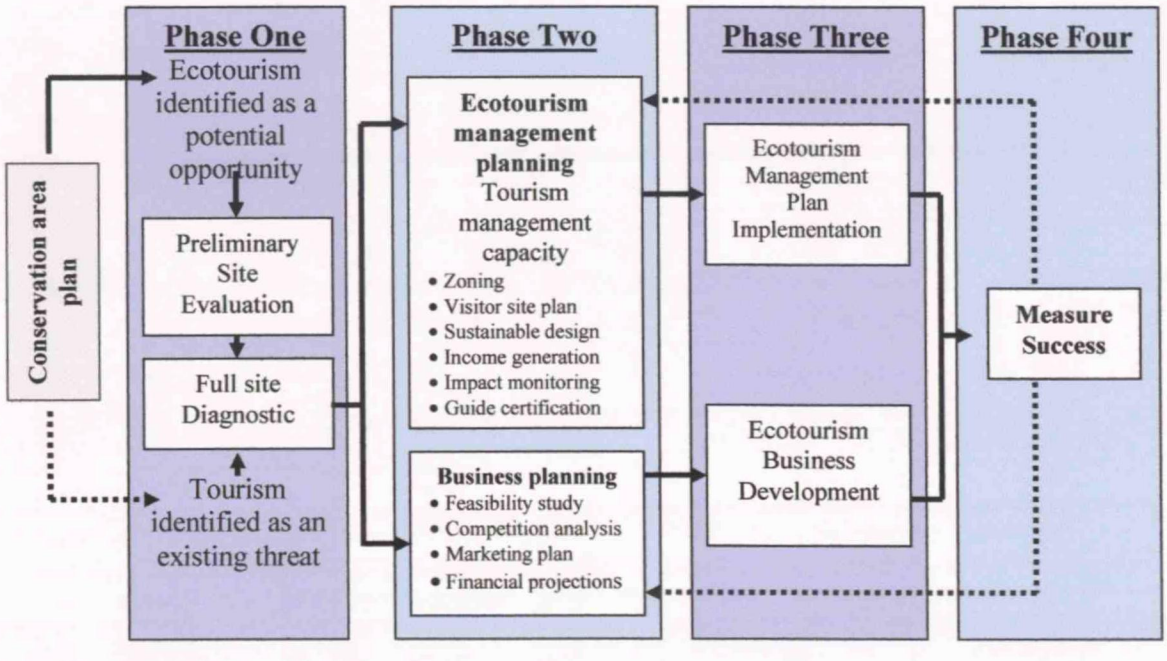


Figure 3.5: Ecotourism management and development planning process

Source: McKercher and Robbins (1998)

Where insufficiencies in the proposed business plan are found, it may be possible to alter the type or location of the ecotourism undertaking, or change the marketing strategies, to create a marketable product (UNDP, 2002). It is essential to involve the local community at the early stage in the feasibility study (Brandon, 1993).

According to McKercher and Robbins (1998, pp.173-185) specific procedures should be taken into consideration once an ecotourism planning has passed the feasibility test; a business plan is required before development proceeds which should contain more detailed reviews of specific activities, attractions and services. In order to identify which structure should be use for a particular ecotourism business, it is helpful to evaluate the options in the context of the environmental objectives, community beliefs and economical viability. It will be vital to ensure local people are completely involved in the planning process if the local community has a strong relation with the area surrounding. However, UNDP (2002, p.68) indicates that "this does not mean that local community should be the only or even the principal actors in the ecotourism business". The UNDP (2002) argues that the enterprise structure should be selected regarding each case's circumstance. Private sector concessions could be awarded as the private sector is given exclusive rights to develop and manage the facilities. On the one hand the contribution of the private sector decreases the risk that a tourism venture will fail, given their experience of product quality standards. On the other hand, this structure generates economic leakages by importing food, supplies, staff, and building materials from outside the community.

3.6.2 Ecotourism and local community development

It should be recognized that ecotourism is identified by sustainable development results: conserving natural areas, educating visitors about sustainability, and benefiting local people. Consequently it should be operated differently to other segments of the tourism industry. Wood (2002) points out that an ecotourism approach should be viewed differently to other forms of sustainable tourism because it must be planned and managed to successfully offer its key social and environmental objectives. The UNDP (2002)

considers that a wide variety of stakeholders must be involved in its implementation including business, government, NGOs and local communities and propose classifying tools to take advantage of this sustainable development option. At the same time local people are required to share development responsibility through the planning, building, maintenance and operational periods (Novelli and Gebharat, 2007; McKercher and Robbins, 1998). Ecotourism is not only a tool to develop and sustain local communities in terms of producing and sustaining jobs, as it can provide lasting employment in regions not reached by other industries, but also it can generate economic benefits to remote communities, if carefully managed and shared practically along with local people (Brandon, 1993).

To secure development sustainability, roles among stakeholders should be clarified particularly local communities who should be encouraged to participate, in order to create a community-based ecotourism (CBE) approach. This approach involves the communities to have considerable control and participation in the ecotourism destinations. It demonstrates one of the successful structures that often take the form of a structured cooperative in which local people hold active roles in the industry (Brandon, 1993). CBE enterprises strive to benefit local people by preserving the natural resources of their surroundings; conservation groups try to preserve the environment by benefiting the local people (UNDP, 2002). It could be a successful structure, which allows benefits to accumulate directly to the community, and the community to control how tourism proceeds. Nevertheless there are often problems in understanding and attaining the level of quality needed to satisfy international visitors. "Without the involvement of private entrepreneurs, there may be a lack of financial resources to construct the necessary infrastructure, or a lack of capacity and skills to properly develop an ecotourism facility or attraction" (Kersten, 1997). Novelli and Gebharat (2007) consider that local communities and private enterprises in tourism can take a number of different forms in terms of types of enterprises, level of involvement and nature of participation. With this background Wood (2002) classifies three main types of CBE enterprises. In the **first**, all local people are employed by the tourism facilities, which he describes as the purest model. Within this type, the community owns and manages the enterprise. The **second**

type of CBE enterprise involves local communities' proposals. The **third** type is a joint venture between community or family and outside business partners (Kersten, 1997). However, NGOs can play active roles to run an ecotourism business for local community benefits through NGO-private sector partnership by their connections with foreign tour operators can be invaluable in delivering sufficient numbers of visitors to benefit the local economy. But in this case the NGO must have access to the capital and training necessary to provide ecotourism services (Wood, 2002). Finally in an NGO-community-private sector partnership structure, each partner can contribute its greatest strengths.

Local entrepreneurs need training, experience and time to get the industry in progress. Local community may also lack the business capability or the marketing skills. The cooperation between communities and the private sector can improve some of these limitations. Furthermore NGOs will be allowed to achieve their conservation goals without assuming the full set of risks linked to operating a business (Brandon, 1993). "This multi-faceted partnership between communities, NGOs and the private sector not only provides a wide range of resources that can facilitate the ecotourism business planning process, but generates complexities associated with the management of a large and diverse group of people, many of whom will have different levels of experience and different expectations" (UNDP, 2002). Sindiga (1999, p.111) emphasizes that stakeholders ought to come together to participate in resource development. But this is not possible until the basic conflicts of compensation payments and profits sharing are sorted out.

Many studies have been conducted to explore the techniques to encourage local community participation and sort out the profits sharing. Novelli and Gebharat (2007); UNDP (2002); Barton (2000); McKercher and Robbins (1998) and Kersten (1997) conclude that **first**, ensuring discussions and consultations in a culturally acceptable form is one of the most important issues to facilitate community participation. The existing local discussion and consultation mechanisms, if available, should be used. The scope of discussions should be secured in ways appropriate to the result being sought and these discussions must take place in the right sequence in the light of local people request.

Second, working with the wide range of community groups and traditional leaders and this work might be carried out where the people are located. **Third**, comprehensible information and enough time should be given to local communities to consider the proposed policies. **Finally**, the numbers of management and consultative bodies with which communities have to communicate should be minimized. In this sense Brandon (1993) argues that the fundamental steps to encourage community participation acknowledge the community role and defining what kind of assistance they will need and empowering communities by having processes to ensure that communities can manage their own growth and resources wisely, as well as understanding the site-specific conditions and monitoring and evaluating progress.

Barton (2000, pp.149-160) puts emphasis on the responsibility of voluntary organizations and paid professionals to provide an essential link between local people and government or private agencies. By building on past traditional and current initiatives, local collaboration can be harnessed towards sustainable regeneration. He stresses that "It takes time, patience and wisdom to combine different views, skills and resources to achieve a shared vision. Mutual understanding and respect are generated. Community management of these, through local cooperatives, will be a vehicle for the development, but it is only through old fashioned virtues of trust, mutuality and tolerance". Denman (2001) summarized the main sequences which should be applied for successful community-based ecotourism; Figure 3.6 shows that, **first**, the relationship between local communities and conservation should be understood and how this might be enhanced through their participation in the industry by considering the potential conservation gain. The suitability of the local area should be checked and the basic requirement met before pursuing community-based ecotourism, which should be applied to achieve integration between development and conservation. **Second**, development should be planned with local people and other stakeholders, and then it will be identified by finding the best way to involve the community. Effective structures are required to enable the community to influence, manage and benefit from ecotourism development and practice. A close discussion with stakeholders including the local community, should lead to an agreed vision and strategy for ecotourism, which has environmental, social and economic aims.

The community's wishes and expectations should be ensured through the tourism development plan; also the level and the type of tourism planned and developed must be suitable for the area's natural resources and cultural heritage. **Third**, market demand and consumer expectations analysis should be considered and how to place the product offer effectively in the market place. Furthermore all community-based ecotourism products should offer a high quality of visitor experience and be subject to a rigorous business plan. **Finally**, specific steps should be taken within the community to minimize the environmental impact and maximize the local benefit of ecotourism. The community will require ongoing access to support in the development, management and marketing of responsible, good quality ecotourism products. The ecotourism approach should raise awareness of community issues among users and include mechanisms for joining their support for long-term viability and success.

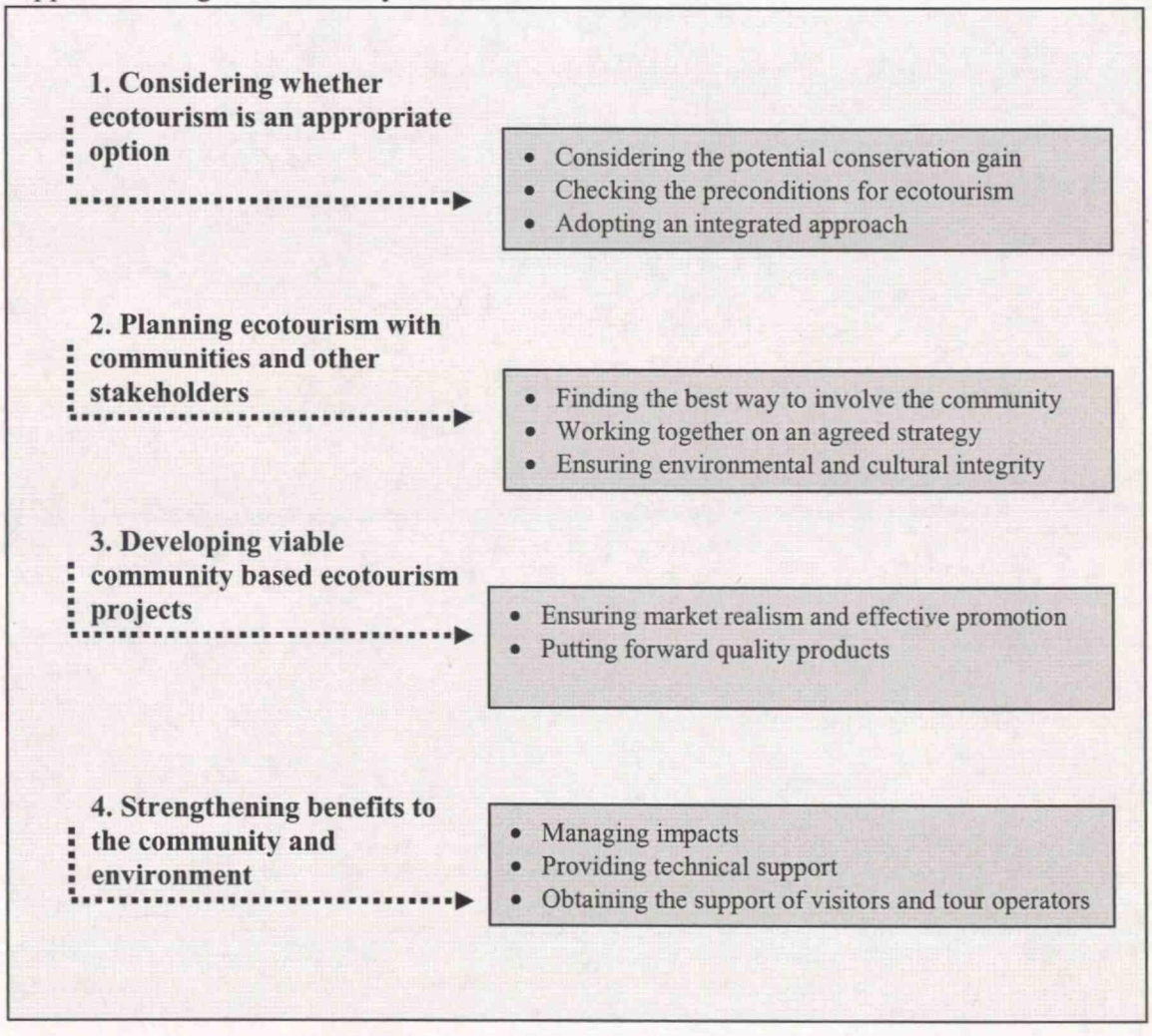


Figure 3.6: Summary of successful community based ecotourism
Source: Denman (2001)

3.7 Pro-poor tourism (PPT)

Poverty alleviation through tourism has been declared as one of the main objectives for the WTO to achieve and in order to increase global support, particular approaches to realize this aim have been identified (WTO, 2002). UNEP (2002a, p.13) and IIED (1999, pp.17-19) classify pro-poor tourism (PPT) as a new and professional approach which has given form to these trends due to the fact that tourism has many special features that make it potentially pro-poor. For instance, it is linked to different sectors, in terms of the wide scope contribution, as the customer comes to the product, consequently important opportunities for direct connection could be established. Furthermore, PPT is highly dependent on natural environmental resources and cultural assets so it is relatively labour-intensive, employing a considerable number of local people. Moreover, in comparison with other industries it has potential in poor countries and areas. Ashley (2006, p.7) points out that this trend is a part of a wider developmental agenda for 'pro-poor growth', "meaning not just faster growth, but growth which benefits and includes poorer segments of the population". The pro-poor growth can be categorized as a movement to decrease the gap between rich and poor, as IIED (1999, p.56) defined it as "growth which decreases inequality", so it could be defined as "tourism that generates net benefits to the poor. Economic benefits are only one (though a very important) component of this, as social, environmental and cultural costs and benefits also need to be taken into account" IIED (1999, p.6).

Some argue that PPT will contribute little to poverty eradication unless it is mainstreamed, thus reducing poverty must be part of tourism development planning objectives. It should empower poor people and actively persuade them in planning, managing and operating participation. This argument suggests that poor producers often lack access to tourism markets, the whole industry and tourists. PPT initiatives must increase market access (Goodwin, 2003). Therefore tourism development's nature should be changed to meet the main objective of this movement; accordingly improvement to poor people's sources of income will take place, in addition to increasing their assets and contribution (Poultney and Spenceley, 2000). Nevertheless Ashley and Haysom (2004)

claim that private sector and other stakeholders are profit-seekers, so their business, is commercial tourism. Commitment from stakeholders to improve pro-poor change is highly debatable. And poverty reduction is making insufficient progress, plus tourism cannot be developed in ways that increase net benefits for the poor because it is widespread. This claim is somewhat weak. Goodwin (2003) considers that this approach means running a business in a different way, whether the business is a large beach resort or a luxury wilderness lodge, and the key assumption is that society and local communities in turn should seek to optimize the positive impact of tourism business. It is not just tourism development that is an issue in poor areas but it is the mechanism which reforms the industry by using small, medium and micro local community enterprise to gain direct benefits for local people.

3.7.1 PPT as an integrated approach and methods

Poultney and Spenceley (2000) refer to a number of professional bodies which have undertaken major studies of PPT to evaluate the level to which tourism has provided benefits to the poorest sectors of society in a range of countries. They list, for instance, the Centre for Responsible Tourism of the University of Greenwich, which undertook a collaborative research venture with the Overseas Development Institute, the Department for International Development and the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). The bodies identified that in order to gain direct benefits for poor local communities policies should focus specifically on unlocking opportunities for the poor within tourism, rather than increasing the overall size of the sector. IIED (1999, p.18) points out that *"this policies can be applied within any segment of tourism and they are distinguished from but usually need to be combined with general tourism development strategies which aim to develop the sector as a whole"*. As tourism may actually increase poverty, unless poor people receive adequate compensation for the loss of their land and access to natural resources, particular actions should take place in order to achieve reasonable compensation. For instance, measures include increasing awareness among local authorities and stakeholders about the potential of tourism to alleviate poverty; and improving human resources through providing capacity building

programmes (Goodwin, 2003). Furthermore policies should be approved via decision-makers to enable poor communities to provide tourism products and services, small and core tourism facilities should be established and local people enable to share, manage and operate them. Moreover, supply contracts and employment offers should be instituted between poor people and large tourism enterprises (Goodwin, 2003). Although this trend is still relatively new and has not been widely applied in practice, a number of tactics should be applied which undertake PPT issues and realize its objectives, which are summarized in Table 3.2. In addition to UNEP (2002a) and UNEP (2002c) recommendations indicate that the PPT approach is a long-term investment, thus opportunities must be sensible and chances for short-term benefits investigated. PPT plans often produce new products, particularly products linked to local communities, which should be integrated with mainstream markets; to ensure profitable viability the following will be needed: an understanding of demand, marketing, product quality and involvement of the private sector, along with enterprises, increasing skills, and the review of relevant policies. External financial support is required to cover the substantial transaction costs of establishing partnerships. Poor local communities' involvement is useful; however, involving other stakeholders is critical and thus it can be integrated into the tourism development strategies of government or business (Ashley and Haysom, 2004; Goodwin, 2003; IIED, 1999).

Table 3.2: PPT issues and tactics

Issues	Strategies
Barriers to participation in the industry for small and micro enterprises.	Credit and training policy reform and planning mechanisms partnerships with the private sector
Apparent potential for linkages with other sectors rarely realized.	Improved quality, reliability and competitiveness of local products change incentives and attitudes in the business sector towards local products facilitate Linkage process, reduce transaction costs
The number of tourism jobs available to the poor is limited by their lack of skills, and the quality of employment in the industry can be low.	Training in hospitality skills, targeted at poor people development and implementation of labor standards initiatives aiming to reverse the growth of sex tourism and child-labor
Tourism can result in lost or reduced access to land and natural resources, or their degradation. Environmental mitigation measures can sometimes conflict with, rather than enhance, livelihoods.	Development/reform of planning frameworks devolve tenure rights over land or wildlife to local people employ appropriate mitigation measures

Continued

Table 3.2: PPT issues and tactics - continued

Tourism can undermine basic services of poor communities by over-burdening water and sewage systems; can result in cultural intrusion and loss of privacy; and has led to a growth of the sex industry.	Combine investment in basic services for tourism with provision for local needs local codes of conduct and local tourism initiatives raise awareness of cultural issues amongst tourists
Institutions and decision-making processes are often structured in such a way that interests of the poor are not taken into account.	Participatory planning processes local institutional capacity-building cross-sectoral coordination incentives and capacity for PPT
Many governments see tourism as a means to generate foreign exchange rather than address poverty. Where commitment does exist, it can be difficult to identify and implement the wide range of policy reforms needed.	Assess and build government commitment to PPT build capacity to implement pro-poor commitments.
The reasons for business to improve the pro-poor agenda are not clear.	Business partnerships improve PPT on the business agenda
PPT is not currently on the international agenda, yet many international activities have the potential to influence PPT.	International voluntary codes consumer education assessment of the impact of EU tourism regulations on poor producers; 'good practice' guidelines in PPT improve PPT on the international agenda

Source: IIED (1999, pp.34)

3.7.2 PPT and local community development

Clearly, sustainable tourism should aim to support directly poverty eradication and sustainable production and consumption in line with the general aims of Agenda 21 (WTO, 2002). In fact it is highly likely that PPT has the potential to meet many of the objectives of sustainable development to regenerate economies, support poor and local communities and even create cost investments and effectiveness achievements for private sector. The cornerstones of this approach are through the development of policy tools, local involvement, capacity building, guidelines for good practice and awareness raising programmes (UNEP, 2002c). IIED (1999, p.21) points out that "PPT is difficult too early or too late in the tourism cycle. There needs to be a viable tourism product on which to build pro-poor elements. But interventions to reshape tourism development are easier at a stage when the sector is growing".

As Goodwin (2003) points out, economic development linkages should be established between tourism and poor local communities, but this needs to be addressed at the planning and design stage. He identifies that moving beyond general talk about "trickledown" is an essential issue and there is a need to focus on multipliers and measurable impacts for improving the livelihoods of poor people; he identifies three main ways in which tourism could improve the livelihoods of poor people.

- Economic gain through employment and micro-enterprise development;
- Infrastructure gains: roads, water, electricity, telecommunications, etc.
- Empowerment through engagement in decision making

Some argue that local benefit, economic benefits, and other livelihood benefits; such as physical, social or cultural improvements are the main benefits that local people can gain from this process, as well as other concrete benefits of participation and involvement (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Types of PPT strategies

Increase economic benefits	Enhance non-financial livelihood Impacts	Enhance participation and partnership
Expand local employment, wages, commitment to local jobs, and training of local people Expand local enterprise opportunities including those that provide services to tourism operations (food suppliers, etc) and those that sell to tourists (craft producers, guides, etc) Develop collective income sources such as fees, revenue shares, equity dividends, donations, etc	Capacity building and training Mitigate detrimental environmental impacts Address competing uses of natural resources Improve social and cultural impacts Increase local access to infrastructure and services provided for tourists (e.g. roads, communications, healthcare, transport)	Create a more supportive policy/planning framework that enables participation by the poor Increase participation of the poor in decision-making by government and the private sector Build pro-poor partnerships with the private sector Increase flow of information and communication between stakeholders to lay the foundation for future dialogue

Source: Goodwin (2003)

As PPT should change the distribution of tourism benefits to support poor people and because poor people's cultural and natural heritage is often a tourism asset, it should involve doing business differently to benefit poor people. Stakeholders need to maximize

local economic development and work with poor people who produce goods and services. In addition to mainstream tourism developers, private sector investors and decision-makers should not try to secure access to these assets under the appearance of PPT if this creates unfair returns (Goodwin, 2003). IIED (1999, pp.16-18) sums up the main issues in supporting and involving local communities with other stakeholders. First, small and micro enterprises should be supported through credit, training and non-financial services. Second, technical assistance and funding of local programmes ought to be applied which is driven by conservation objectives. Third, partnerships between communities and private investors should be acknowledged through joint ventures between communities and private operators particularly in areas where communities have strong tourism assets. Furthermore, tourism development should be improved with clear potential benefits for the poor local communities through community participation to provide PPT development planning.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the dominant factors which influence community tourism products, which could be utilized to generate net benefits to local communities. Within this in mind it first identifies the concept of carrying capacity and the limit of acceptable change and their different methodologies. It clarifies that carrying capacity is not fixed, and it builds up with time and the development of tourism. The two main concepts have been evaluated and assessed; these consider what level of tourism visits is considered to be desirable or estimate the carrying capacity as the level beyond which tourist flows will start to fall. Both concepts reflect on the physical environment, social factors, economic issues and institutional concerns as the main descriptive and evaluative components. The social carrying capacity methodology and concept have been investigated. The chapter has also discussed the limit of acceptable change as a planning procedure that aims to recognize suitable alternatives, which does not focus on the number of visits and activity, but rather on the changes to the environment.

Secondly, the importance of applying a community-oriented tourism strategy to produce a community tourism product has been clarified which views tourism as a local resource

that expands opportunities and provides as much profit as possible to the local community. And for the reason that economic benefits, social, environmental, cultural costs and profits should be taken into consideration, the main features which influence community-based products have been explored. These features consist of planning and management, as well as environmental, physical, economic, social and cultural considerations. The development phases and the local community involvement have been explored. The local community living next to a resource which is considered to have tourism potential is the one best suited to defend the local resources. In principle this could not be achieved unless the local community is involved in the decision making process.

Major considerations supporting flourishing community-based tourism development as a policy have been clarified, and stakeholder roles and responsibilities have been elucidated. Community-based ecotourism and PPT also have been discussed, as they could contribute directly and indirectly to the income of local communities and create support for preserving tourism potential in local communities. Different types of community-based tourism and PPT enterprises have been classified and the fundamental steps to encourage community participation have been demonstrated. The development of a sense of ownership and dependability is a key issue for sustainability but they are not easily achieved unless serious actions for community empowerment are taken, in economic as well as psychological, social and political terms.

CHAPTER FOUR:

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCE REVIEW

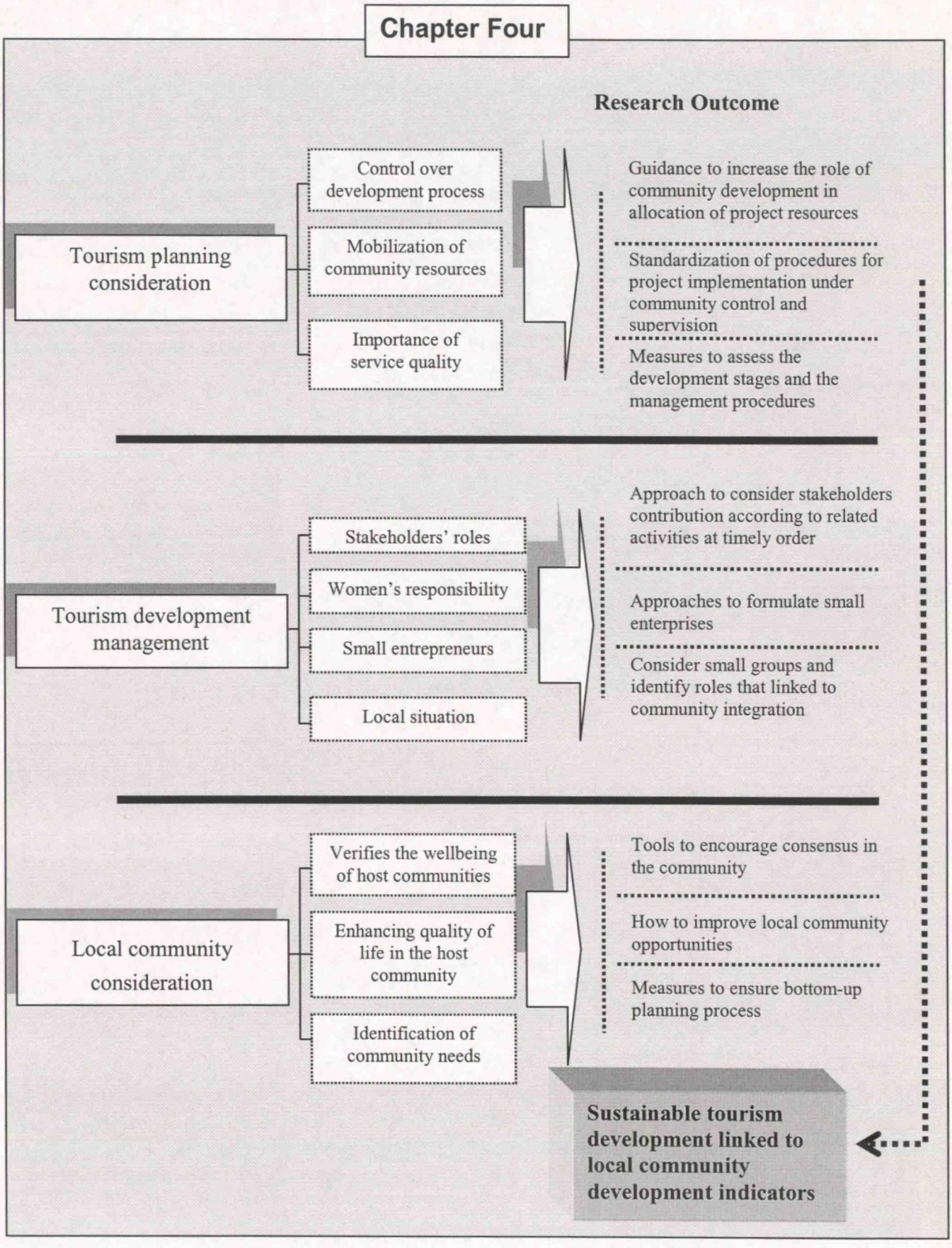


Figure 4.1: Chapter Four structure

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapters presented a theoretical perspective of sustainable tourism development and the interaction between tourism developments and other aspects, particularly the local community. It was concluded that mass-tourism development may generate conflict and negative impacts not only for the local community but also for tourism potential as well. Different approaches to sustainable community-based tourism development in terms of techniques and policies have been discussed, which led to an exploration of theoretical approaches for developing plans that could improve the welfare of local communities. And it should be recognized that, although most of these environmental tourism development alternatives could achieve excellent targets in terms of community development, a stereotype model for community development cannot be provided. Due to the reason that eco-tourism, community-based tourism or environmental-based tourism approaches are considered to be niche and original markets (Liu, 2003; Murphy, 1985). Agreeing with this viewpoint Liu (2003) emphases that "even in the high profile 'ecotourism destinations', like Costa Rica, Kenya and Thailand, ecotourism is negligible in size and is directly dependent upon the existence of well-developed mass-tourism sectors". To take the particular case of Egypt mass-tourism development is considered inevitable. Environmental tourism development alternatives linked to community development may not be feasible or applicable to be used directly and in isolation from the existing type of tourism, therefore it is essential to fill in the gap between theoretical and practical experience. The case of Egypt is considered in later chapters, together with mass-tourism.

This chapter provides discussion for different topics and critical analysis for some positive and negative global tourism development projects, which are analyzed in order to identify practical techniques useful for designing STD indicators linked to the local community (see Figure 4.1). The cases have been chosen as they are similar to those pertaining in Egypt due to the conditions that match with the Egyptian circumstances. Particular issues are discussed and analyzed that serve the research objectives and are shared with the case study area in the Red Sea region (see Chapter Five). These issues are

discussed in the light of tourism development conditions, the level of economic development of local areas within the national economy and the nature of existing tourism within the country.

A number of cases worldwide are examined from Far East (Indonesia, Thailand, Philippines, Nepal, and India) and from Africa (Kenya, Uganda and Namibia) also from the Mediterranean (Greece and Egypt) and from the Caribbean (Belize and Brazil). Guidance available to increase the role of local communities and measures to assess the development stages under local communities control and supervision are discussed. In addition development stakeholders' contribution and roles are explored. Furthermore the methods to assess the wellbeing of local communities and to enhance their quality of life are investigated. In order to explore and elucidate tangible and realistic indicators for sustainable tourism development (see Figure 4.1), examples of community-based tourism development schemes are examined for the presence of certain social issues which are grouped as associated with planning considerations (4.2), management of tourism development (section 4.3) and local community consideration (4.4).

4.2 Planning consideration

The rise of the environmental forms of tourism development in which local communities play an important role reflects not only the attention given to the lifestyles and cultures, but also reflects tourists' desire for more socially responsible styles of tourism. Although these issues are reflected at the local level, the regional perspective, which offers understanding of the local community circumstances and provides for cultural concerns, also plays an important role (Paul, 2002). It should be recognized that at the regional planning level a number of important issues linked to local communities' development may be viable and will play fundamental roles. Planning needs to combine consideration of both regional and local planning for development to be successful.

4.2.1 Control over the development process

The tourism development approach used in Bali in Indonesia emphasized the importance of local and regional relationships (Figure 4.2). Although the country consists of some 13,000 islands, Bali is perhaps the best-known tourism destination international of all these. It is distinguished by its combination of terraced rice fields, mountains, lakes and beaches with the rich Hindu culture and arts and the colourful ceremonies, crafts and lifestyles (IGICB, 1989). According to statistics for 2006, the island receives 40-50 per cent of all international tourist arrivals in Indonesia. The development provides direct employment for about 44,500 people in hotels and other establishments; with an additional 2,000 jobs related to the tourism sector and generated for artists and handicraft workers from amongst local people (MCT, 2006). The literature review for the original planning documents concludes with a wide range of aims which were to enhance local community life. Inskeep and Kallenberger (1992) summarize these aims as follow:

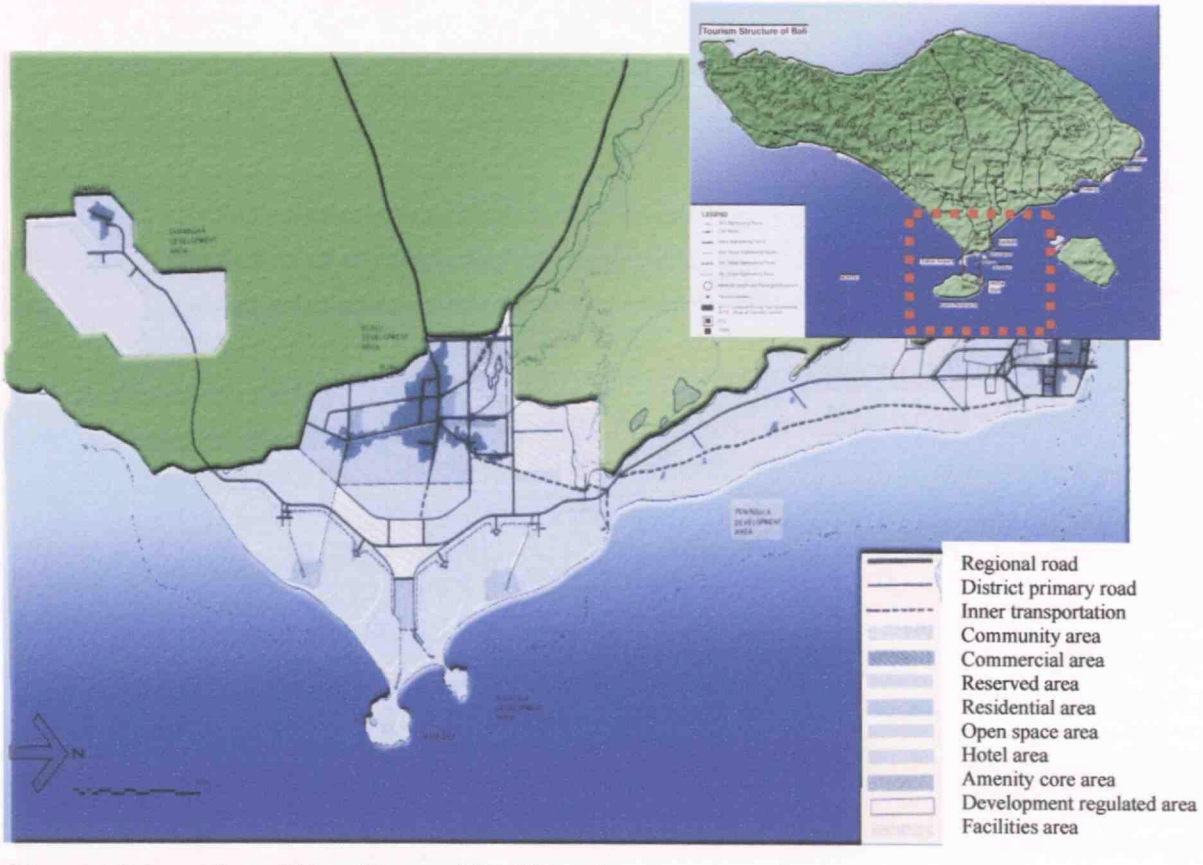


Figure 4.2: Location of Nusa Dua and Bali Tourism structure plan

Source: JCP, Inc (1988)

*"**Firstly**, to support and enhance the traditional religious and community customs of the Balinese society; **secondly,** is to increase the social benefits of tourism through investments in education, manpower training and development programmes; and **finally** is to increase community benefits by targeting employment opportunities for local people and by promoting integrated community health and environmental management programmes".*

The main funding stakeholders are the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) as the financing agency, and the World Bank (International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, and the International Development Association) as the implementing agency responsible for regional plan studies; in 1970 they approved a time-schedule for developing the island of Bali in cooperation with the central government (JCP, Inc.1988). As at this time local communities had low education and skills, they had suffered from exclusion and isolation forlong time. In addition the infrastructure and community services had not been developed (JCP, Inc. 1988; Pacific consultants, K.K.1973). Strong consideration was given to support for local settlements in the planning stage particularly with the respect to regional relationships. The regional tourism plan confirmed land use plan details in tourism areas for the purposes of improving the existing development patterns and guiding sustainable growth. It proposed new tourist roads that would link regional tourism destinations with local tourism activities. The tourism development plans consider the improvement of roads, infrastructure and community services as three of the most important issues (Inskeep and Kallenberger, 1992). Consequently the designated sites for development were selected and planned within the structure of the Bali regional plan which was seen as an integrated significant component of the island's overall tourism development structure. Furthermore excellent regional access between the island's centre, airport, local community settlements and tourism facilities had been developed in addition to other improvements to the existing infrastructure in order to integrate the island with the new scheme (IGICB, 1989; Wood, 1980).

At local level and near the old fishing settlement the original development plan not only indicates a community centre, to include local community handicrafts and a local market

in addition to a developed festival park and the local commercial centre, but also a public access network linking it to the shoreline (Figure 4.3) which adds value for local people who would consequently be able to sell their products to tourists (Pacific Consultants and K.K. 1973). Moreover, Inskeep and Kallenberger (1992) point out that "it was recommended that a local community representative should attend the development process to be consulted by the architectural designer when setting up guidelines based on the use of traditional Balinese architectural motifs and some local building materials such as the distinctive Balinese style brick". Consequently, members from the local community needed to be encouraged to attend capacity building courses. Moreover small-scale enterprises such as handicraft shops and restaurants to serve tourists should be established by providing funds to the local community (Shah and Gupta, 2000). The tourism development plan cited clearly that regional and local relationships should play a substantive role in sustaining the industry and support the local community's way of life. However the way that these relationships are being measured and those plans are being implemented could influence the development positively and contribute to sustaining it.

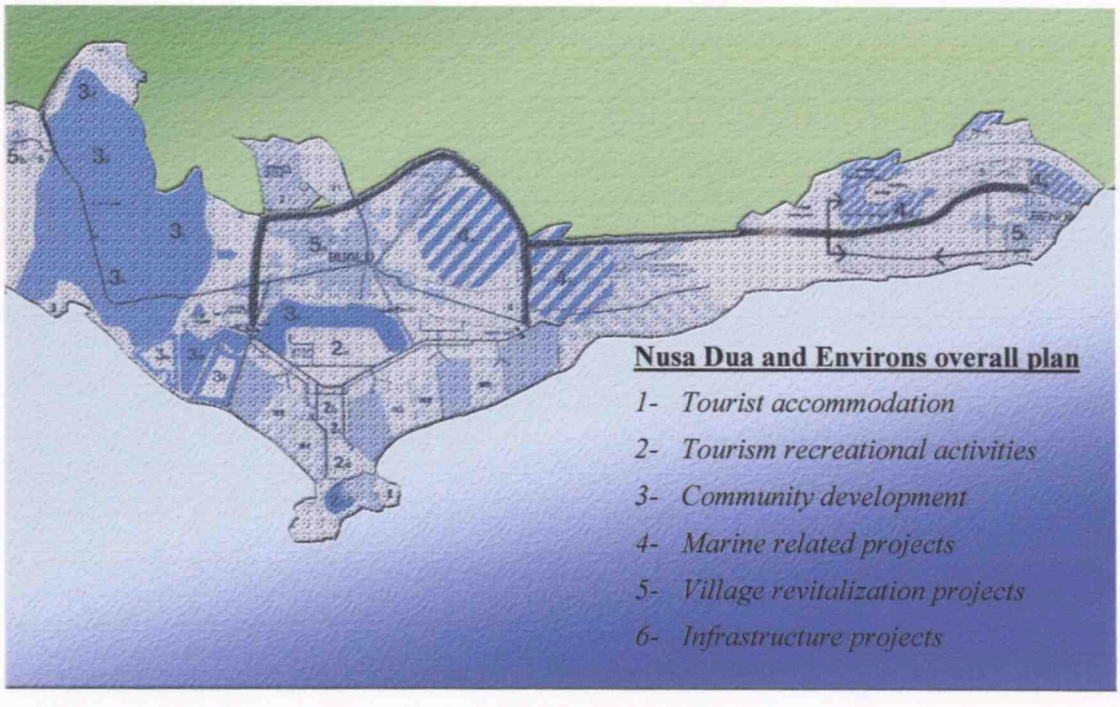


Figure 4.3: Nusa Dua and Environs overall plan
Source: JCP, Inc (1988)

In contrast, recent documents explore problems associated with tourism development progress, Shah and Gupta (2000) suggest that the implementation programme was not highly successful overall for many reasons, for instance the site selected for resettlement of the local community was not suitable for infrastructure supply. Environmentalists see water shortages on the island, because the island development plan included numerous recreational facilities and a terminal for luxury cruises (JCP, Inc.1988). Given the amount of water needed for maintaining a single standard golf course, ultimately the investors agreed to take on the problem and to recycle sewage to maintain the golf course, instead of using freshwater. Shah and Gupta's (2000) indicate problems occurring from tourism development interacting with local community lifestyle and daily life. For example, this includes imported technology, the equipment and training of staff required for very large tourism development projects; which take valuable farmland and use local community resources.

Although analysis of tourism development implementation issues and details of recreational uses could provide support and sustainability for the tourism growth, the examination and monitoring of development stages over time is basic to maintaining this development (Stankey, 1984). As long-term problems arise from obtaining tourism development revenue without seeing the need to make it a more sustainable process, problems related to overcrowding, pollution and so on, may not be immediately apparent to local residents or the other stakeholders. Furthermore, given that a community's future desires and needs are hard to assess in the early stages, these scarcely appear in plans nor are specific procedures followed within the strategic tourism development. Thus it is essential to follow with up-to-date assessment for the development stages and the management procedures for tourism development and outdoor recreation must take place within an integrated framework (UNEP, 2003). The tourist excursion regional road had been identified at the first and the second stages of the tourism implementation plan in 1971. The IGICB (1989) guide for facilitating the investments in the region points out that "the excursion road plans were aimed particularly at open space areas and scenic views adjacent to the roads". Nevertheless since the linear development of arts and crafts shops and tourist resultants was taking place it has caused a significant negative impact

due local economic pattern for the reason that it affected land values, changed urban and land use in the surrounding area which in turn excludes fertile agricultural land from redevelopment for recreational activities (Shah and Gupta, 2000).

At local level, benefits generated by the industry have been rather low for the local community, particularly when compared with losses of their previous resources. This can be a major issue when access to local community settlements and irrigation water is reduced, and the ability to earn a living from a decreasing natural resource base is limited. Socio-cultural programmes, which should take a place for local communities, did not assess local community attitudes toward tourism development. At national level, the environmental forms of tourism development that consider all local community needs will not be feasible in terms of revenue when compared with infrastructure and service costs (Shah and Gupta, 2000). Therefore it is essential to increase the role of community in the development with regards to allocation of project resources by training the community in financial procedures, monitoring courses of action and management measures.

4.2.2 Mobilization of community resources

Phuket is considered as one of the wealthiest tourism destinations in southern Thailand (Alpha, 2002). Rapid tourism development took place in the region by 1980. The international tourist arrivals have increased dramatically since then by an average rate of 18% per year. By 2002 the region received 3.2 million tourists (TAT, 2003). Nevertheless Phuket suffers from problems associated with mass-tourism development such as pollution, crowding, local community expulsion and exclusion from opportunities. It was not known as an eco-tourism destination

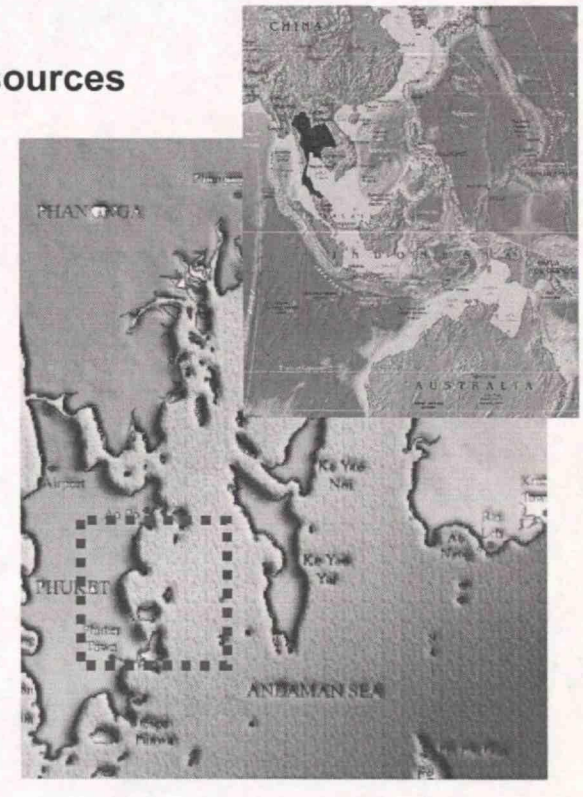


Figure 4.4: The provinces of Phuket in southern Thailand
Source: Kontogeorgopoulos (2005)

(Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005). However, there are demands among tourists in Phuket for recreational activities which are environment or nature-based; furthermore this type of demand would be a fruitful source of jobs for unqualified, unskilled and jobless people if utilized within a proper tourism development, which may provide permanent employment in the area not achieved by other industries. Local inhabitants of the area have been employed as guides and rangers using their experience of life in the area in tourism activities (Paul, 2002). This, in turn, has led to the establishment of companies offering nature-oriented tours.

Kontogeorgopoulos (2005) points out that the first marine ecotourism company in southern Thailand was founded by 1989, and mainly operates sea-kayaking daytrips in the region (Figure 4.4). "Tourists are brought aboard 'escort boats' to a number of small islands and then transported by guides into caves aboard inflatable kayaks". In appreciation its role in supporting the local community, this approach has been recognized by the British Airways Tourism for Tomorrow Award, a Best Tour Programme Award from the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), and a Gold Environment Award from the Pacific Asia Travel Association (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005). Consequently it might be expected that when using local communities' skills properly and aligning them to meet tourism demands there would be political, economic and social benefits side by side with the national and regional benefits which can be attained by healthy mass-tourism infrastructure.

Subsequently seeking community contributions about activities affecting them directly and immediately are critical issues, furthermore, encouraging consensus in the community before the drive to mobilize the schemes is considered as a fundamental objective. In another case, from Pune in India, where local communities' demands had been long neglected by decision-makers and municipal authorities, community mobilization and self-assessment have taken place through local organization's initiatives using local techniques to respond to local people's demands within the surrounding development plan. *The Sustainable development in a dynamic world* report (World Bank, 2003) refers to the important roles that are played by local individuals to mobilize a

community's schemes. They assessed the requirements of local people, supervised the construction with innovative designs to meet the needs of different user groups, and set up effective payment and maintenance arrangements

4.2.3 Quality of products and services

Murphy (1985, p.14) points out that the promotion and the development of the tourist product along with quality of services are essential for sustainable tourism development and should be considered within the planning stage. He argues that service quality goals that lead to the design of particular programmes to deliver high quality services and a monitoring programme are known to be a fundamental challenge for tourism destinations. Nevertheless UNDP (2002, pp.67-72) points out that this issue is recognized as a weakness of community tourism products, because the tourism industry at local community level lacks quality control and supervising schemes. This makes their programmes appear unresponsive and primitive. In fact it is highly likely that two issues need to be taken into consideration when planning for community tourism product quality and product promotion. **First**, product quality and the monitoring programme - Paul (2002) emphasizes that high quality entertainment opportunities and service quality play an important role in increasing demand at community tourism destinations, as tourists want their hosts to make them not only feel welcome and comfortable but also wish to be treated as a part of the communities they visit. Consequently product quality shouldn't be stereotyped but should meet the demand requirements and be linked to the uniqueness of the place. Furthermore monitoring programmes for development control must be implemented if sustainability is to be ensured.

Second, in view of the fact that tourism attractions are immobile and the targeted consumers need to be able to envision an image of the destination before they travel, a kind of intermediary form is required (see section 4.7) which can be adopted by travel agents in order to meet the tourists' desires and the represent what the destination offers. UNEP (2002c) says that a unique experience in developing community tourism products in Brazil supports this approach. In 1994 Conservation International (CI) - an initiative

programme supported by the UNEP at a community based tourism destination - supervised a community capacity building workshop programme for delivering quality community tourism, which conducted courses in regions with particular unique cultural and natural features. The workshops considered different objectives that related to culture and nature conservation, including product quality that would meet consumer standards under three main headings: product development, local community training, and enhancing local community life. Small groups of five to seven participants attended the Product Development workshops. Participants' selections depended on their knowledge, experience of a target region, education, skills, etc. Local community desires were identified and classified under three categories; developing private tourism business, being employed by tourism business or operating and managing tourism facilities using their own experience. The local community training workshop was known as Train the Trainer which was mainly conducted to complement the first workshop and support local community skills. Finally there were also upgrading workshops which provided advanced training for the local community to be able to explore their potential and achieve the goals that would enhance their lifestyles.

CI describes the result of the workshops as remarkable, given that 35 participants from the local community were promoting and facilitating tourism product development in their own regions. Tourism and environmental institutions selected participants with high credibility in their communities, who were good communicators and administratively able to facilitate an ecotourism course. UNEP (2002c) points out that "when CI evaluated their programme in 1996, the 600 survey responses indicated that 75% of workshop attendees applied the concepts they learned in their daily professional activities, 67% used the techniques taught to develop new tourism products (38% were new tour itineraries and 26% were new home-stay and eco-lodge), and 54% of participants have since created new ecotourism learning events in their regions". Overall this was shown to be as one of the experiences since local people were not only satisfied with their jobs but also became aware about how to evaluate their business and reemploy their skills according to the market requirements.

4.3 Tourism development management

Sustainable tourism development linked to sustaining community development might be occurring if a place is carefully managed and its benefits are shared fairly among the local people. A local community normally has good knowledge of the conservation of the surroundings and may therefore be well employed as experts on the conservation of the biodiversity in their regions (UNEP, 2003; ILO, 2001; IIED, 1999). A settled local community has long relations with the nature surrounding it and a deep understanding. A significant contribution may be made by the local community to maintain the most fragile natural resources; where their traditional sustainable resource use practices a culture-based on respect for nature. Therefore, although there should be no inherent conflict between the objectives of natural resources conservation and the community's existence, awareness programmes for local community integration with the surrounding nature may take place (Beltrán, 2000). Similarly, Robinson (1999, p.382) points out that principle 22 of the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development states that: "local communities have a vital role in environmental management and development because of their knowledge and traditional practices". Richard (2000, p.2) states that "local community structures can provide the source of both problems and potential solutions in the sphere of sustainable development". Successful tourism development management may be achieved by identifying development stakeholders' needs and roles even in micro and small groups. For instance; it should be recognized that women share in the responsibility for development and that they accept (and welcome) their changing role; supporting small entrepreneurs. Other factors are: showing respect for and considering those local circumstances that may affect the management of development.

4.3.1 Identifying stakeholders' roles

Sustainable tourism destinations generally involve all stakeholders for the reason that their contribution would be beneficial to the various components of the process, which in turn would be reflected in their loyalty to the development. Paul (2002) argues that

stakeholders will feel "ownership" if the development reflects their values. His argument goes that stakeholder involvement should be designed to meet the needs of the development process at all stages, not as supplementary data to the process, after the fact. Nevertheless it should be recognized that much of the recent discussion on citizen's participation, mostly with reference to developing countries, is limited to low-income groups and their associated problems (UNEP, 2003; IIED, 1999). For example, Srinivas (1994) states that in some places local community participation cannot take place as there are several requirements for local participants to be involved which have to be met before it can be applied in a particular situation.

However, progress to bring a local community into the sphere of citizen's involvement has to be made in order to create a more equitable and livable environment, to improve people's living circumstances. For instance in Greece, a conservation system was launched in 1999 in the forest of Dadia –Leukimi –Soufli so that these sites might be used as nature-based tourism destinations. However, there was serious resistance from the local community as woodcutting was its main source of income and the conservation system proposed banned woodcutting and provided for planned reimbursement for the loss of income which was not acceptable to local people. In this context, it was necessary to develop alternative types of economic activities in accordance to the environmental characteristics of the area. The local community was then asked to choose another alternative for income that would fit with the conservation system using different methods. This consultation convinced the local people that they were considered as respected partners. The local community then played a significant role in terms of identifying places appropriate for tourism activities, using their own knowledge and experiences (Coccossis, 2002).

In fact it is highly likely that participation has to be progressively and gradually developed to reflect the actual needs of a local community. In order to address a local community's widespread interest in securing and improving the living conditions, stakeholders' roles and courses of action have to be explored (Srinivas, 1994). Therefore, developing a participation programme is essential for sustainability. Each participation

programme ought to be designed to meet the specific needs of the situation, "rather than imposing a pre-determined methodology that may have worked well in other conditions" (Paul, 2002). A case in Thailand illustrates this. The community of Phuket considered tourism marketing as the major problem that faced them, since marketing mainly depended on the private sector. Local people were encouraged to work together instead of working separately. Meetings began to be held and organized by the local community to discuss issues linked to the industry with government representatives, the private sector and NGOs under the umbrella of each stakeholders' roles. Sitikan (2004) identifies these as:

NGOs' role:

- *To facilitate the ecotourism as conservation and community development tool through programmes of required training in ecotourism*
- *Provide opportunities for villagers consultation on ecotourism initiatives*
- *Marketing the ecotourism products*

Villagers' role:

- *Tourism planning and activities operation*
- *Visitor management*
- *Resources management (maintenance of the tourist destination)*
- *Employees for tourism services such as guides and trekking porters*
- *Home-stay providers*

(Sitikan, 2004, amended)

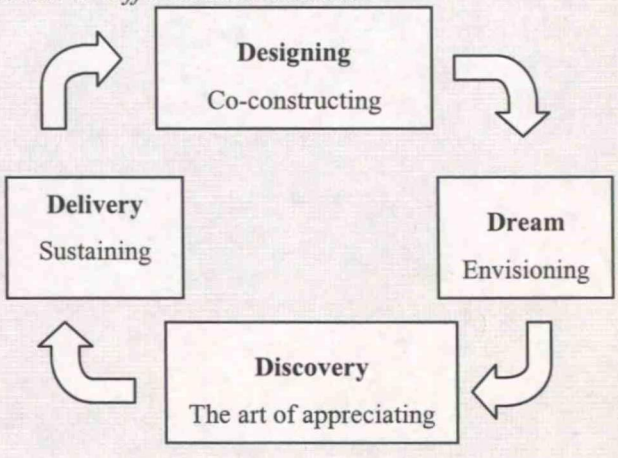
It is suggested that involving the range of stakeholders could affect tourism development positively, as this might explore unobserved issues (Rocharungsat, 2004). For example, the cases studies in Thailand, Indonesia, and Malaysia have been investigated by research focused on the perspectives of participants on community-based tourism (CBT), which are based on stakeholder theory. Decision-makers, operators, and visitors have been seen as research stakeholders. This research identifies particular areas for explaining the overall views of stakeholders towards CBT. This might mean, for instance, investigating their expectations for CBT development in the future, the way that the industry could be supported and the factors, which influence stakeholders' perspectives. Although different visions have been gathered and participants' opinions were varied, the research came up with new ideas in terms of promotion, carrying capacity, tourism destinations

management and the way that local culture and tradition should be maintained. It draws planning, operating and management principles from different perspectives (Sitikan, 2004). Nevertheless styles of participation that identify each group's' role, objectives, authority and circle of participation could be considered as an essential route to securing sustainability. Box 4.1 illustrates this with an Indian experience.

Box 4.1: Applications of participation and role of participants:

Role in participatory planning technique applied in small mountain community in ***India****. A community based tourism plan was developed for each of four villages Kyari, Choti, Haldwani and Bhakrakot using Appreciative Participatory Planning and Action Methodology. The methodology consists of four steps: firstly, discovering what is successful, what is working, what people are proud of and would like to share with tourists; followed by dreaming, envisioning the future; designing through visibility studies and development of action plans and finally delivering the plans. Those steps have been applied in a particular order that considers different contributions due to different stakeholders.*

Community based tourism plans were used to develop a variety of products that were ultimately available to tourists. According to each village opportunities, locals constructed huts, interpretation centre and toilets, night's treks for wildlife, heritage trail along with interpretative signs have been developed to narrate the story of the village association with local people charging fees for guiding, photos and sale of local products. Local people became aware of their unique heritage.



Source: WTO (2004)

In a similar way, Srinivas (1994) argues that communication networks between stakeholders may not be sustained unless appropriate procedures for stakeholders involvement are applied. This might take place within a strong community organization supported by a local community, to avoid criticism of bias or mis-representation of the wishes of the local community (UNEP, 2003). Settlement planning, decision-making, implementation, financing and construction could be considered as different areas where participation must take place. Different categories of involvement may apply for different stakeholders according to the differentiation of the development process and phases.

Nevertheless "participation can take different levels, from the citizen's having no voice at all in the proceedings to that of advisory roles and full representation in all stages for citizen's participation to be truly effective, it is necessary for the people to be involved in all stages of planning, design, implementation and evaluation *(sic)*" (Srinivas, 1994, p.6). The achievements of a project depend on the degree of participation provided to stakeholders.

4.3.2 Women also have a right to participate

A wide range of research demonstrates that women are less likely to benefit from development initiatives than men, particularly in developing countries, unless exceptional courses of action are taken into consideration to involve and support them (ILO, 2001). However Paul (2002) argues that a revolution in the role of women has occurred in many countries; progressively men and women are supporting each other's characteristic roles in the workplace and in the household. This argument states that an important role is being realized by women in terms of raising their numbers in the paid workforce, even to the extent of becoming the larger group. Furthermore in some cases they rapidly gain more income than men do and they make better use of tourism facilities, recreation and opportunities (Singh and Dallen, 2003). It should be recognized that women are often enthusiastic to increase their workloads considerably through the sale of handicrafts, in order to gain benefits and financial independence. This is increasingly associated with programmes that involve and support women's role in tourism development (UN, 2000).

An interesting experience discussed by Wood (2002) from Nepal identifies such programmes. Nepal as a developing country model demonstrates how women suffer from being marginalized and exploited. Basically their literacy rates, educational chances, access to resources and opportunities, control of assets and decision-making powers are all lower than those of men. Also, tourism development in surrounding areas adds, on a daily basis, a significant amount of duties in addition to their household responsibilities, especially when partners are away working as trekking porters and guides, "whenever they have time they spend it knitting woolen caps, mittens and socks, weaving bags, or

making handicrafts for sale" (Wood, 2002). Gender issues are ranked to be one of the important problems to be addressed by tourism development; nevertheless real improvement has been rarely achieved at regional level. However, in 1996 in the Langtang area of Nepal an environment friendly tourism development programme was launched. Its main objective was to build local capacity for tourism management and support the local community, particularly women, at local level. The local community participated via a particular planning approach drawing up a desired community-based tourism project, taking into account details such as project capacity, facilities, management and operational issues (UN, 2000). For instance, women in Langtang have played a fundamental role in the changeover from meeting tourism demand to proactively developing sustainable managed tourist services. UN 2000 points out that such a programme was quite successful due to the fact that women who participated in the programme were really creative. They chose to use kerosene instead of wood for cooking, thus the community built a kerosene depot at the settlement and the earnings were subsequently allocated to conservation initiatives, such as the planting of 17,500 tree seedlings, they also adopted programmes to revive their cultural traditions. Furthermore handcrafts and traditional festivals displaying their local dancing and singing have become sources of income for them and other communities are encouraged to participate (UN, 2000).

4.3.3 Support for small entrepreneurs

It should be recognized that a local community's jobless people are absorbed by the tourism sector when it is well developed. On the one hand, Holden (1999) argues that these issues are not always considered as an opportunity for local communities as it might not match with a local community's desires and requirements, and it does not support local community development. In agreement with this view Richards and Hall (2000) point out that local community employment opportunities provided by tourism in some cases may not contribute to local community development but increases relative dependency on foreign markets - this is in line with the theoretical approach of dependency theory. This argument suggests that "small entrepreneurs are not supposed to

be appropriate forces in community development either, as they are regarded as exponents of capitalist thinking, according to the classical economic definition" (Richards and Hall, 2000 p.156). On the other hand, it is highly likely that entrepreneurs can be a mechanism for changing the local community economy positively. They can be considered as stakeholders pursuing progressive change, together with the other partners in a free market economy (Kieran and Lewis, 2006).

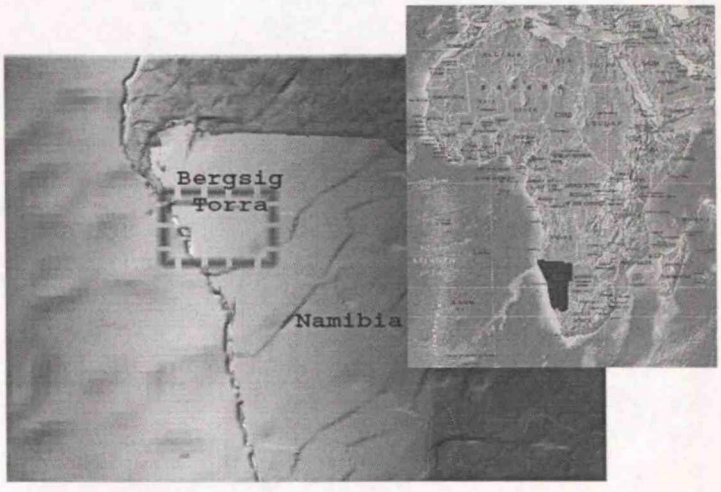


Figure 4.5: Bergsig, Namibia
Source: Google Earth (2007)

According to Richards and Hall (2000, pp.206- 214) entrepreneurs' approaches can be identified basically as three basic schools; **Firstly**, the 'environmental school' which believes that the attractiveness of the investment conditions such as the economic circumstances, industrial issues and logistical aspects may be the main factors that influence the exploration of the 'latent supply of entrepreneurs' which is supposed to exist in every community and in every time period. Thus if a new promising enterprise attracts market encouragement such as government support, low taxes, growing demand and access to dealers, it will then automatically be expanded. **Secondly**, the socio-cultural and personal differentiation between and within local communities may be considered as the main factors influencing the 'people school'. For instance, small entrepreneurs' start-ups in local communities ought to be influenced by a set of socio-cultural factors: educational level, standards of skills, historical background, together with local circumstances. Furthermore entrepreneurs' personal motivation and aspiration for independence are personal factors which may have the same effect. **Thirdly**, the 'integrative school' merges different factors including the environmental circumstances, the socio-cultural and the personal factors. This school describes the challenges facing new small enterprises as a complex and dynamic process. Therefore it seems more logical that "the differences in levels of community tourism entrepreneurs are more likely to be a function of two interactive factors: the differences in supply of tourism entrepreneurs and the perceived attractive-

ness of the investment climate for launching tourism enterprises" (Richards and Hall, 2000, pp. 207-210).

An experience from Namibia demonstrates the importance of considering special arrangements among a local community's small tourism enterprises. Customary tourism assets 'such as wildlife, desert, wilderness environments, safaris and the heritage of Namibia's colonial past' were provided by the private sector which controlled, monitored and owned the industry (UN, 2000). New polices have been provided by the government since independence in 1990 which encourage local communities to participate and share tourism benefits under the law that gives them conditional use rights over wildlife. By 1995 a number of local communities participated in a particular tourism development programme, which witnessed rapid growth of a community-based tourism approach. The government made local community needs priority for support by the private sector who desired to invest there (Jones, 2002; UN, 2000).

Local community member enterprises are doing business in camp-sites, rest camps, traditional villages, craft centres, museums and indigenous tour guides. Ashley (2000) points out "The current regional tourism planning procedures include considerable community consultation. In addition, community tourism enterprises in Namibia have joined forces to form the Namibian Community Based Tourism Association, which is recognized by government and consulted on many matters". The Economic and Social Development report (UN, 2000) identifies the importance of involving local community in owning, managing and operating tourism enterprises at their areas, as follows:

- *"Community-based tourism is a viable option for generating economic opportunities, fostering environmental conservation and keeping alive traditional cultures and customs in rural or isolated areas of African countries.*
- *The direct involvement and participation of local indigenous communities in the development and management of small tourism enterprises is a decisive factor in their success and their contribution to the sustainable development of such communities.*
- *Co-operative arrangements among small tourism companies are a key element in aspects such as the training of human resources, the marketing and promotion of tourism services, access to financial resources, and negotiation with large tour operator".*

(UN, 2000)

There are two important issues here. **Firstly**, differentiation across the range of entrepreneurs should be determined; this depends mainly on the direct and the indirect relationship with resources. According to Boissevain (1974) cited by Richards and Hall (2000) "the first-order resources 'patrons' include those with resources such as land, equipment, jobs, funds and specialized knowledge which the entrepreneur controls directly, second-order resources 'brokers' are strategic contacts with other people who control such resources directly or who have access to people who do". Thus an integrated series of actions between different parties take place as brokers bridge gaps between patrons and consumers, while patrons control private resources. However, small-scale enterprises can respond more effectively to changes in the marketplace and fill the missing gaps between their businesses and clients as this is cumulative process. Box 4.2 shows a practical experience from Belize, which illustrates this concern.

Box 4.2: Local community cumulative experience influences their business

In May 1996, the members of the Local Native Community of Infierno (CNI) and a private Peruvian tour operator, Rain Forest Expeditions (RFE), signed a legally binding contract to build and co-manage a lodge called Posadas Amazons. The partner agreed to split the profits 60% to the community, and 40% to the company, and to divide the management responsibilities in half. A critical tenet of agreement was that community members should be actively involved in the enterprise, not only as staff, but also as owners, planners and administrators, and that they should join RFE in making decisions about the company's future. The partners also agreed that after 20 years, the lodge would belong to CNI. In return, the CNI members were obligated to maintain an exclusive contract with RFE on communal territory for 20 years.

In the project's first year, the community's participation was relatively passive. One of the obstacles to equal management participation was the community members' sheer lake of experience, and their uncertainty what full participation entailed. Only one year later, the community partners became more active decision makers. In general, the community members were more aware of their status and privilege as partners. For the most in the community, this sense of ownership came only after the project was up and running and after they had invested their own time in creating it. Members of the community now comment, they have theories, but we have experience. Learning has gone both ways. The staff of Rain Forest Expedition changed considerably, learning to listen and leave more of the decisions to the community. They became more appreciative of local skills and traditional forms of organization and more attentive to voices that before remained unheard. At the same time, the members of CNI learned how to better forecast into the future, weighing advantages and disadvantages of various development options before proceeding with their next step.

Source: Strasdas (2000)

The second issue, that local communities should be able to participate in enterprises, has been investigated by Denman (2001) who points out that different options would be provided for a local community to participate in enterprises, for instance, by direct employment via private tourism businesses. However, this approach may not provide local community enhancement as it does not offer rights to wages. To be successful it should be associated with training and capacity building programmes including management. The other option for local people's participation is simply by advertising local products and selling handicrafts to tourists directly, which could be considered as a good way of spreading benefits within a community. Another approach is for concessions to be managed by the local community and financed by the private sector for a particular fee and a share of revenue. Moreover, a local community consortium may elect individuals from amongst themselves to run small enterprises which depend on local community support and are coupled with the legal rights of the local community over land, resources and development. These approaches usually suffer from lack of organization and incentive; however, this problem can be overcome with positive cooperation between stakeholders.

4.3.4 Considering the local circumstances

Unlike any other industry, tourism demand is dramatically affected by safety and security issues in terms of threats to personal protection. Murphy (1985) argues that it is quite complicated to rebuild tourists' confidence whenever a negative reputation arises for a particular destination that is linked to security measures. Aggressive attacks on tourists themselves, such as took place in Luxor - Egypt on 17 November 1997, when terrorists killing 58 tourists, noticeably set back tourism for many years (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004, p.377). Agreeing with this view Khalifa (1995, p.159) points out that such problems may be aggravated when local people not only recognize tourism development as the reason for all their economic and social problems but reach an antagonistic stage when they are also being exploited and excluded. Paul (2002) points out that as regional wars, rebellions and terrorism affect tourists' demand, and there is a considerable difference in safety measures between countries and their ability to provide acceptable

levels of security. An experience from Egypt provided by ICG (2007) shows the importance of involving local communities as development partners in providing local protection by the local community.

Sinai situated at the northern part of Egypt, is a well-known tourist destination. The population of Sinai is approximately 360.000, which can be divided into 300.000 in the north, and 60.000 in the south. The local communities known as 'Bedouin' are Sinai's original inhabitants who are distinguished by different character and lifestyle from the rest of the country (Braham and Izam, 2000). Although a marginal local community still keeps the traditional lifestyle as tent-dwelling nomads, possessing a distinctive identity all local communities are categorized as Sinai's Bedouin particularly by the government site. On the one hand, changing the demographic composition was one of the major objectives of the government's development plan (ICG, 2007). The main government investment was in tourism development, as it failed to establish other alternative economic foundations (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004). This development plan focuses on using the natural tourism attractions which, one way or another, excluded the local community from their sources of income. Although some rights have been given to the local community by supporting them at particular enterprises (TDA, 2002), the booming tourism development not only occupied and so, put an obstacle in the way of the natural access for fishermen and the green valley's which were previously the main food source for their animals but also the fishermen are housed badly in slums areas. That in turn has been aggravated by socio-economic development improved by the authorities since 1982. ICG (2007) points out that the government has not considered integrating the local community into the nation through a far-sighted scheme which pays attention to their needs; this in turn has led to discrimination against the local populations.

An aggressive reaction against the local community arose after the successive attacks against tourists at Taba (north of Sinai) in Egypt in 2004. Fundamentally the government's response has been restricted to security matters: tracking down and eliminating the terrorists. As Braham and Izam (2000) had pointed out previously, human rights violations have been common in police procedures, and treat the local community

as suspects. There is a view that members of the local community are being employed by terrorists to facilitate the attack. The government ignored local community's problems such as socio-economic, cultural and political problems which are at the heart of Sinai's conflict. Accordingly more security measures have been taken and more violence against the local community has been experienced after the terrorist attack at Sharm El Sheikh (south of Sinai) in 2006 (ICG, 2007). This in turn led to a complicated conflict between local community and the government, ended by local community revolution at the Egyptian-Israel border (ICG, 2007). Consequently, in view of the fact that "the terrorism problem is a more serious and enduring one which the political class has yet to concentrate on" (ICG, 2007), the government tried to modify the development strategy that is generally unsuccessful to meet the local community needs. A complete integration policy is required including participation of Sinai's populations in national political life. Accordingly security management plans could be provided by the local community themselves as a result of their integration into the industry. Key persons in the local community and tour-operators should be aware of safety expectations of visitors, explain the local situation to potential visitors, and respond to visitors' safety demands.

4.4 Local community considerations

The argument of the previous section shows that tourism development stakeholders ought to take into consideration not only how to build and maintain the infrastructure needed to open up access to the regions for tourism and local community benefits as well, but also to consider the economic benefits which may arise in remote communities and share development responsibilities with them. However Robinson (1999) points out that "inequalities relating to access to resources and political power are inherent in tourism. Such inequalities manifest themselves most visibly in instances of cultural extremes: between developing and developed economies, urban and rural settings, indigenous and non-indigenous peoples, and between haves and have-nots". Nevertheless it is highly likely that nature-based tourism destinations should be repositioned in the context of community development and the local economy. As IUCN (2002) argues, natural resources ought to be protected and sustained by tourism revenue which in turn, should

not only provide jobs and raise incomes for local communities but should also be used to maintain the infrastructure needed by local communities. For instance, these would include: upgrading roads for tourism access gives local communities better communications and capacity building for local communities that are linked to the tourism sector, enhancing their skills, language, literacy and social training. Furthermore local communities ought to be able to share medical services which are provided for hotels and tourism facilities staff and visitors as well (UNEP, 2003; IIED, 1999). Thus tourism development should be designed to protect host communities and address issues that need to be improved. By developing facilities and services for tourists and staff, local communities could also use them and this would improve the living conditions of local residents (Beltrán, 2000).

4.4.1 Improving the wellbeing of host communities

Robinson (1999, pp.381-393) does not believe that there are conflicts between the mass-tourism development approach and local community protection. He argues that "the authority of culture, and the clear recognition of human rights, provides the spirit of sustainable development" which does not conflict with any particular development approach. In a similar way WCED (1987, p.116) makes the point that

> *"Recognition of traditional rights must go hand and hand with measures to protect the local institutions that enforce responsibility in resource use ... this recognition must also give local communities a decisive voice in the decisions about resource use in their area".*

Along with this sequence and as a practical demonstration of the causation theory (see section 2.6), Borocay Island in the Philippines demonstrates how local community profits from tourism can be eroded by the uncontrolled expansion of the industry. Between 1986 and 1996 the island's population increased three times, as a direct consequence of regional immigration. This in turn displaced local communities from their traditional livelihoods of farming and fishing. Within the same period the number of tourist arrivals increased from 27.000 to 150.000 each year. The island's department of tourism development indicated that the number of local operators to the total number of

accommodation owners was 1:28 (Shah and Gupta, 2000). Furthermore a large section of the island was bought by outside corporations. This in turn excluded local communities from possession of tourism benefits, not only the largest units with the best facilities were owned by outsiders but also assets such as restaurants, boats, karaokes and boutiques.

Obviously tourism development brought negative impacts for the local community; as Murphy (1985) indicates and the local economic mechanism had been altered as Richter (1982, pp.302-304) points out. Along with this view Shah and Gupta (2000) point out that

> *"as new tourism demand is concentrated in larger hotels which demand higher educational standards than smaller resorts, skilled staff continue to be recruited from outside the island. A tourist skills training scheme, part of the earlier development plan for Borocay, has not been implemented. The spin-off benefits of tourism in terms of infrastructure and environment have been minimal. The utility needs of large new projects are enormous and have brought to a head the island's chronic problems of sanitation and water supply".*

Such erosion of local benefits maybe takes place where uncontrolled mass-tourism occurs. Beltrán (2000) argues that many benefits could accrue from encouraging local communities to sustain and revive their events, local lifestyle and tradition. They will enrich the tourism experience product within tourism destinations. Tourist behaviour will be modified when exposure to cultural diversity takes place and changes the use patterns of the tourist community, which in turn may lead the private sector to support it. Moreover local communities may benefit when local traditions and values are maintained, and when they are encouraged to take greater pride in their communities or regions.

In agreement with this interpretation, Coccossis (2002) refers to an important experience in Greece where Pilio, Metsovo, Kerkini and Papigo mountains areas are a unique environmental rural destination where sustainable tourism development has contributed to the revival of several rural and mountain areas within a sustainable tourism development programme (Figure 4.6). It has had considerable positive impacts on the socio-economic development but the environmental impacts may be limited. For

instance, Papigo, in the northern part of Greece, the development of tourism supported a number of key values such as appreciation of the environment and cultural heritage. Furthermore Metsovo and Kerkini's economic improvement did not prevent the local community from continuing their traditional activities such as the cultivation of apples, sweet chestnuts, cattle breeding, cheese making, woodcraft and viniculture. Moreover in Pilio tourism dealers encourage local people to sell their local products in the area surrounding the tourism facilities to provide local ambience for visitors. It was the local community who prefer to develop small enterprises that stimulated local community lifestyle and tradition, refusing to go along with major infrastructure projects which could have imposed significant problems for their natural environment and hinder their control upon tourism development.

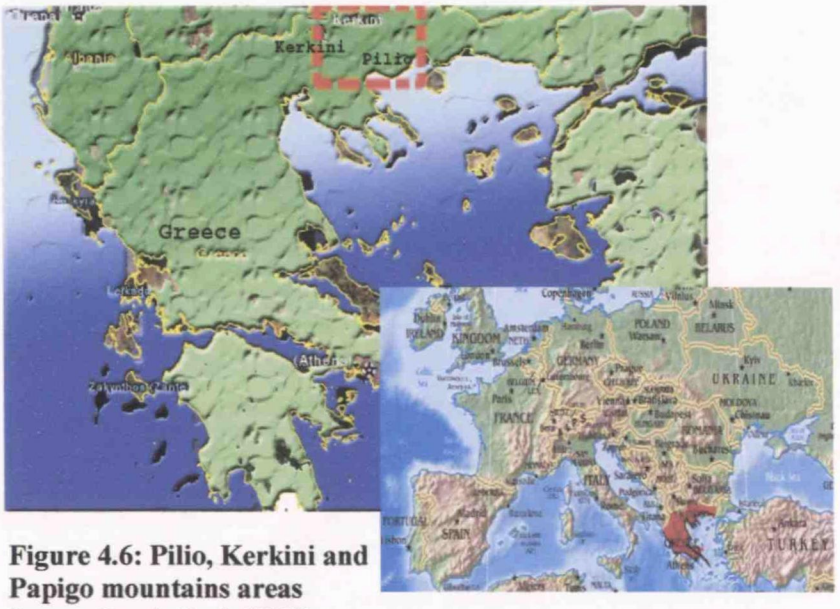


Figure 4.6: Pilio, Kerkini and Papigo mountains areas
Source: Google Earth (2007)

4.4.2 Enhancing quality of life in the host community

At a natural tourism destination in Kenya called Masai, the local community was expelled from their lands and excluded from their sources of income in 1984 to make way for conservation and safari tourism, due to the belief that hunting and killing wild animals would stop tourists coming; subsequently the Masai community would get their lands back. For this reason it was proposed to the Masai community that they should receive a rent for the lease of their land, plus an entry fee for each tourist visitor via direct negotiation with NGOs and the private sector, in association with a British tour operator. In addition it would provide capacity building adaptation programmes for members of the

Masai who had experience, ability and enthusiasm in tracking and hunting wild animals. A considerable number of jobs have subsequently been created for the local Masai community, as guides, tracking, transportation, building, hotel and catering staff in the many safari lodges in the area. Local facilities, infrastructure and services are maintained by using the profit revenue of this system. Tourism can thus be seen to work for the local community, both in terms of providing job opportunities and in raising education and training levels (Wheat, 2000).

Nevertheless, Murphy (1985) states "when tourism becomes the dominant activity as in a resort the local community goal becomes one of reducing the dependency on tourism, with its seasonality and low-wage limitations". Furthermore a local community should protect its resource base as it is the source that brings tourists, and local people should realize the unreliability of these resources. Agreeing with this argument, McIntosh (1977) points out that in order to sustain the tourism industry development policies should, **first**, present a framework for enhancing the living standards of local people through economic benefits. **Second** an infrastructure and recreation facilities should be provided for both visitors and residents. **Third** appropriate types of development should be selected which match with the economic, cultural, political and environmental potentials of the area. **Finally** a development programme that is consistent with the cultural, social and economic philosophy of the government and people of the host area should be adopted (cited by Murphy, 1985).

Tourism should enable local communities to reflect on their lifestyle, traditions and local art. As indicated previously, Balinese art has been developed and revived as an output for cultural identification (UNEP, 2002c). The presence of visitors who continually praise Balinese art and culture has "made local people to be proud and self confident, and considered in reality that their culture is magnificent and consequently worthy of this praise and therefore justly admired. This realization removed any possibility in the people's minds that their art was in any way inferior to the art of advanced nations, and plays an important role in conserving and developing the art in general" (UNEP, 2002c). Beltrán (2000) summarizes this as local peoples should be able to share fully and

equitably in the benefits associated with tourism destinations, with due recognition for the rights of other legitimate stakeholders. Thus tourism development should be viewed as a tool to help local communities to maintain or improve their living standards and quality of life as identified through the increase of in the proportion of educated people; the reduction of infant mortality and proper and sufficient access to recreation sites or subsistence resources.

4.4.3 Identification of community needs

In a semitropical rainforest the northwest region of Thailand, Huai Hee consists of three small villages with an average 200 persons per village (Figure 4.7). Agriculture was considered as the main source of income for the local community which has for the most part been self-sufficient. In the first phase the government provided infrastructure and services in order to allow tourism improvement at the area (Sitikan, 2004). This growth in turn threatened the local community. Planners and developers claimed that local people were responsible for highland watershed deterioration, and they would be expatriated if they did not change their way of living; this caused serious disagreement between local government, investors and the local community (Sitikan, 2004).

The Project for Recovery of Life and Culture (PRLC) is an NGO that has been operating a scheme linked to watershed network and community organizations in northwest Thailand. It was founded in 1988, to manage a demonstration project in four villages in the area of alternative agriculture that would reduce the amount of water used for irrigation. By 1994 it developed its goals and expanded its interests to cover most of the environmental and issues that enhance local community life. Sitikan (2004) points out:

> *"The first project was a youth environmental camp project that aimed to educate young people in the community about the environmental problems. The later project was focused on the natural resource management and sustainable agriculture project that aimed to achieve the sustainable development in the area. The PRLC's main objectives could be summarized as follows:*

- *Enhancing environmental sustainability,*
- *Improve quality of life of local people,*
- *Strengthening local community organizations and networks,*
- *Encouraging self-reliance and the participation of the villagers in management of natural resources".*

Since there was trust between local communities and PRLC, the organization was asked to play as a negotiator between different parties to find a proper solution for land use rights in Haui Hee. Technical assistance and training have been provided for the local community, while the supervision of the projects remains in the hands of villagers, for the reason that it supports local community qualifications and contributes to forest resources management and local ecology. A co-operative model has been launched under an ecotourism and community development collaboration scheme between the local community and the PRLC. The model operated was one in which the highland people were supported in land use management in line with their traditional subsistence techniques. These techniques included a local land categorization system in terms of land value, infrastructure expenditure and environmental aspects. The classification identified a particular purpose for each area, which can be seen as an indicative plan. This approach conserves local community lifestyles and has found a way to ensure that the community's sources of income are sustained. Local communities came not only to control their future by managing tourism development using a community resource management approach, but also were involved in tourism development as accommodation providers in the form of home stay accommodation. Furthermore local people act as local tour guides. An "ecotourism club" has been

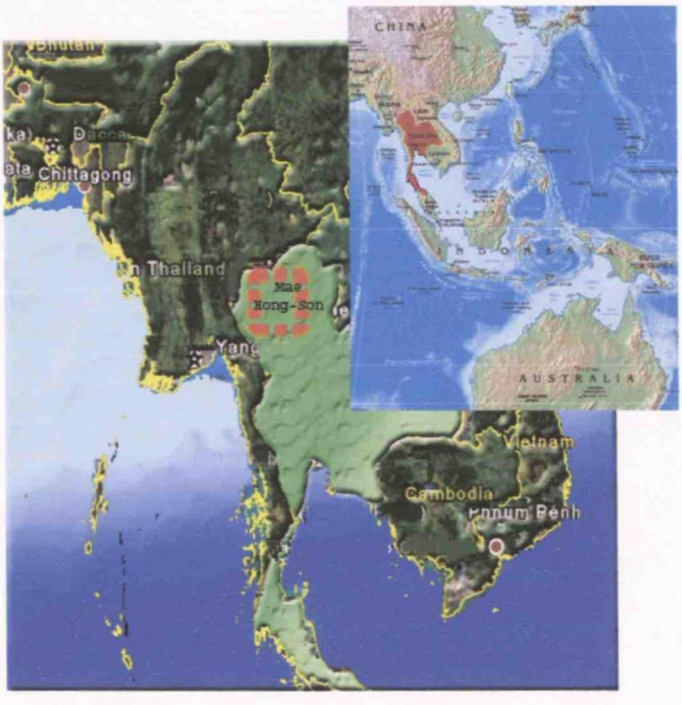


Figure 4.7: Huai Hee location
Source: Google Earth (2007)

established by local people to supervise and operate tourism; the club committee was chosen by and from amongst villagers (Sitikan, 2004, pp.184-295). Thus, when using existing formal and informal organizations to identify community needs, it is very important to open regular dialogue between government and local communities. Furthermore understanding local communities' potentials might affect the view of the development, which might be enhanced by provision of adequate training to local community and work concerning implementation of project activities.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the second part of the literature review. This part focuses on investigating case study experiences in order to explore both positive and negative features of each experience. Practical techniques may be developed from analyzing particular case studies that could be decoded to specific indicators and courses of actions for sustaining local communities within tourism development. Regional and local relationships have been examined to identify that an excellent solution could be obtained by understanding regional and the local circumstances and their inter-relationships. Mechanisms designed within an integrated framework that includes the regional perspective ought to be taken into consideration, which monitoring the development stage and evaluating the data observed. The deep analysis of practical experience shows that controlled mass-tourism may provide a solid foundation to develop tourism that is community-based. Specific key values that are linked to community development have been examined and these reflect conclusions about community development measures for raising the living standards of local people through the economic benefits of tourism. This points to the need to develop infrastructure and address economic issues such as tourism seasonality and local employment opportunities that actually employ the local community in the tourism sector in terms of number and quality of jobs provided and the tourism revenue.

The wellbeing of the host community may be considered in terms of its willingness to accept tourism and by exploring the community's attitude to tourism, measuring the level

of community satisfaction as an indicator. Furthermore the effects of tourism on the community and the general impact on community life need to be assessed, for instance the social profits associated with tourism. It underlines that with the local community's broad knowledge about and deep understanding of the natural surroundings considerable contributions may be obtained to help maintain fragile ecosystems. Furthermore in the light of the importance of stakeholders' involvement, roles of different stakeholders have been identified. As Robinson (1999) sums up "collaboration and partnership are important elements of sustainable tourism, both as a mechanism for achieving sustainable outcomes and as symbolic of new ways of working. They represent a way of bridging cultural disparities and different paradigms". Different ways of supporting local community's small enterprises have been reviewed. Three basic schools (environmental school, people school and integrative school) can help classify the entrepreneurs' approaches as 'brokers' or 'patrons'. Moreover diverse topics linked to community development have been discussed such as the changing roles of women, the importance of service quality and the issue of personal security and safety for both tourists and the local community.

PART TWO:
INTRODUCTION TO CASE STUDIES AND RESEARCH METHODS

CHAPTER FIVE:
EGYPT'S TOURISM DEVELOPMENT POSITION AND THE SELECTION OF THE CASE STUDIES.

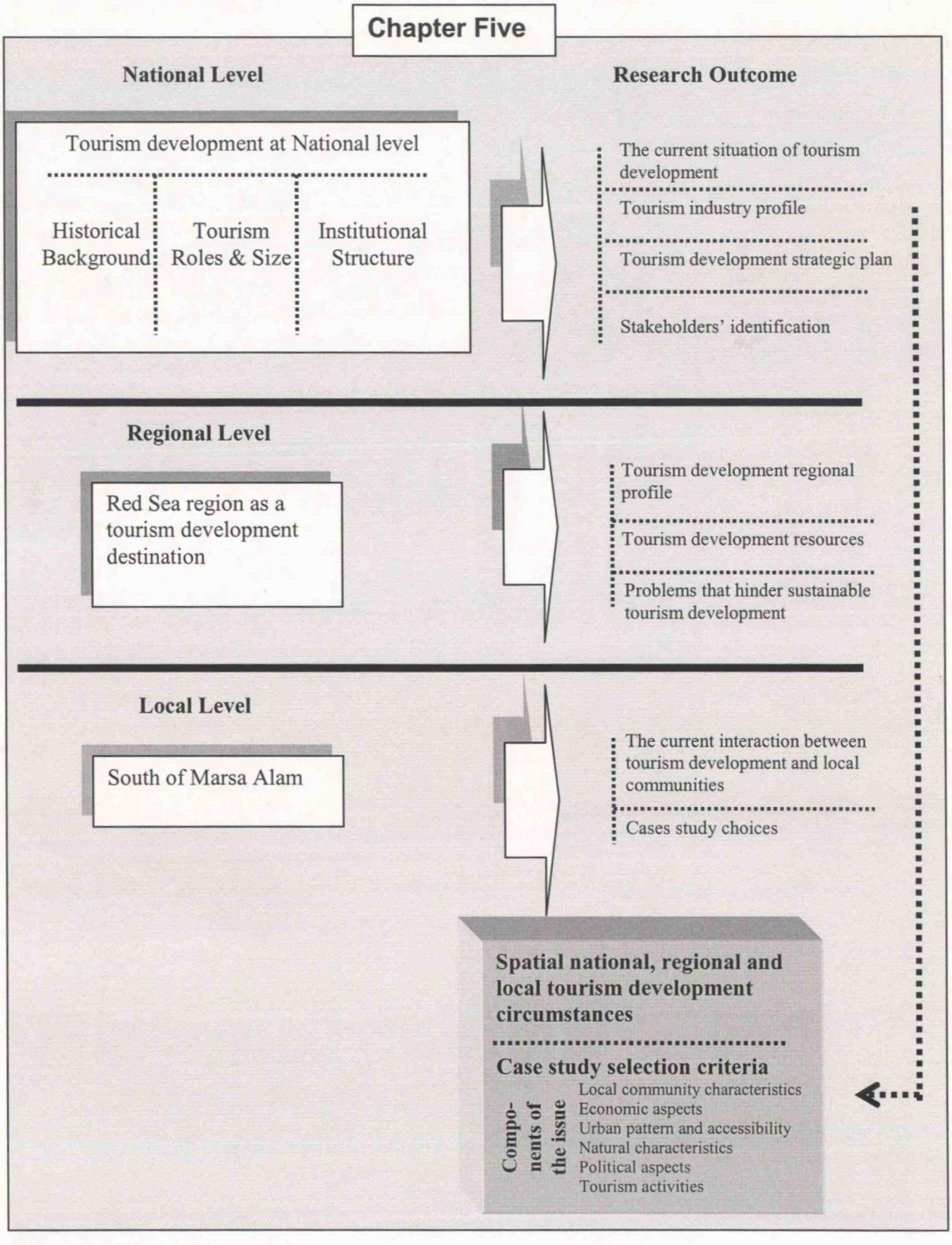


Figure 5.1 Chapter Five structure

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the necessary background on Egyptian tourism development policies focusing on the Red Sea region from three major viewpoints perspectives: the national, regional and local levels (see Figure 5.1). **First,** the Egyptian national perspective is discussed with the historical background of Egypt's development policies linked to tourism development and the role of tourism development at the national and regional levels (section 5.4 and 5.5). Furthermore the institutional framework that supports tourism development is explored and the vertical relationships between decision-makers are investigated in section 5.6. The administrative mechanism is investigated by highlighting central, regional and local levels for the purpose of identifying both major and minor stakeholders in tourism development. Civil society and community participation policies are explored. **Second**, the regional perspective considers the regional tourism development plan which focuses on the Red Sea region as a tourism development destination. The administrative subdivisions of the region as used by different stakeholders are investigated, highlighting the overlap and lack of communication between them. The Red Sea population is explored from a regional perspective, comparing the conditions of rural communities and those of city dwellers (section 5.8). Furthermore environmental aspects, a source of the tension between local community and tourism development, are discussed. Moreover the regional tourism development plan and the tourism sectors are discussed at regional level, in order to provide an understanding for the regional circumstances as a common area between decision levels and implementation levels. **Finally**, the local level discusses the environmental, economic, social and cultural perspectives for the Marsa Alam sub region as the context for determining case study selection. In this section the historical background is detailed in order to demonstrate the importance of the sub-region not only as a holiday beach destination but also as a cultural heritage destination (section 5.9). Environmental features are investigated in detail at this level, together with the details of demographic characteristics and tourism development aspects, aiming to illuminate the local circumstances that affect both local community and sustainable tourism development.

5.2 Historical background

Egypt is considered to have had one of the most spectacular civilizations in history. The part isolation of the Nile valley, the reliability of the yearly Nile River flood, in addition to its location, allowed for a united kingdom, which arose around 3200 B.C. Egypt was controlled for the next three thousand years by a series of dynasties: Persians destroyed the last native one in 341 B.C. This in turn was replaced by the Greeks, Romans, and Byzantines successively (Lane, 1996, pp. 565-571). Islam and the Arabic language were brought in by Arabs in the 7th century, who took control for the next six centuries. The Ottoman Turk occupation of Egypt in 1517 supported the existing regime, the 'Mamluks' and gave them authority to continue to run the country, from 1250 (Ibrahim, 1985). A nominal loyalty to the Ottoman Empire continued despite the French offensive and occupation 1798-1801, which was followed by the Britain invasion in 1882. Egypt became a central part in the global transportation system with the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 (Lane, 1996, pp. 577-583).

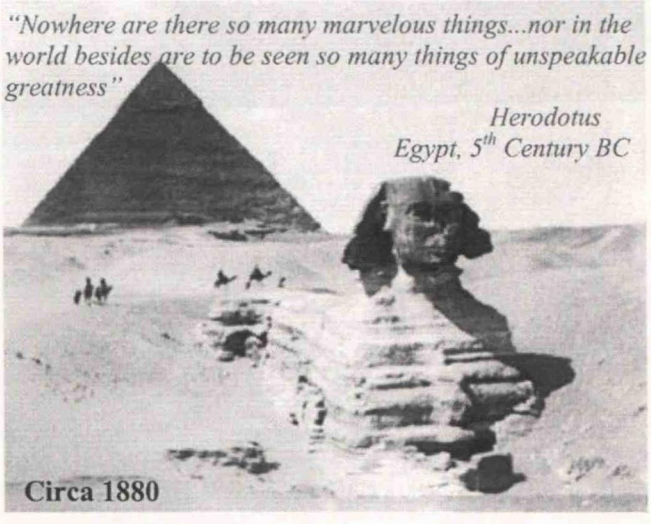


Figure 5.2: The Pyramids and Sphinx around 18th century
Source: MOT (1997)

Although full independence was achieved after World War II, pressures on environmental matters affecting society continued due to the dramatic rise in the population whilst arable land was limited and dependence on the Nile all continued (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004, pp.365–374). Egyptians struggled and fought to reform the economy to achieve their objectives. Ibrahim (1985) points out that during this period half of Egypt's GDP was created in the public sector, and most industrial plants were owned by the government. Heinnebusch (1993, pp.157-165) emphasizes that the

economy grew dramatically after war of 6 October 1973 with Israel. It grew at an average rate of 9.5 percent a year. This resulted, not from the contribution of manufacturing or agriculture, but from oil exports, remittances which created a large influx of foreign exchange, and grants. In view of the fact that the financing system took place mainly through expensive short-term credit and at very high commercial interest rates, imports rose and exports fell (Keyder and Oncu, 1994, pp.24-27). As a result, by the end of 1981, Egypt's foreign debt amounted to more than 100 percent of its gross national product. Since the fall in world oil prices in 1986; the Egyptian economy has suffered from an increasing and heavy pressure of debt servicing which led the country to begin negotiations with different international parties for financial support.

5.3 History of tourism development polices in Egypt

1800-1970

The early flourishing transformation of Egypt into a secure and attractive country after Napoleon Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt in 1798 and, later, under the rule of Muhammad 'Ali (1805–48) made it the first tourism destination country in the Middle-East. The country attracted wealthy Europeans tourists as early as the 19th century along with the launching of the Suez Canal in 1869 (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004, p. 365). Apart from the interruption of World War II the country has had stable tourism development in terms of the tourists' arrival under the British occupation and throughout the first half of the 20th century. Nevertheless, Waterbury (1983) points out that "the July 1952 'Free Officer' Revolution affected Egypt's tourism industry, as it also affected the country's other economic sectors". It should be recognized that between year 1952 and 1970 and during Gamal Abd al-Nasser's regime a different approach was applied. A policy of a ban on foreign investment was in place and foreign assets were nationalized. Encouraging the industrial and agricultural sectors was the regime's major objective, and this restricted tourism development projects in Cairo and at the Upper Egypt antiquities, that one way or another negatively affected the tourism industry (Gray, 1998, pp98–110; Waterbury, 1983; Abdel Fadil, 1980). An import-substitution industrialization policy supported by public sector investments was adopted after 1952 and socialist planning was introduced to expand public services. Egypt's goal was to double its national income

every ten years (Ibrahim, 1985). During this period the distant relationship between Egypt and the West, in addition to the Cold War, hindered Egypt's tourism industry.

Although Waterbury (1983) notes that during the 1960s the number of tourists in Egypt increased slightly (particularly from the wealthy Arabian Gulf oil states), the closing of the Suez Canal and the emigration from the surrounding area as a result of the 1967 war with Israel negatively affected the tourism industry. This war put more pressure on the country's economy that in turn led to overcrowding in the major urban cities such as Cairo and Alexandria. Expansion into the desert to absorb excess population was adopted as an essential development policy (Keyder and Oncu, 1994, pp. 5-17). Mansfeld and Winckler (2004) point out that the total number of visitors to the country had reached 571.000 in 1966, in comparison to an annual average of 365.000 during 1956–60. However, the June 1967 War and the War of Attrition that followed (1969–70) led to a sharp reduction in the number of tourists in the country.

1970-1980

A market-oriented economy was been adopted after the 1973 war that substituted public investment policy by encouraging private sector and foreign investment (Ibrahim, 1985). This not only raised growth in production of consumer goods as the majority of the development production and created a significant boom in consumption, but also expanded public services such as education and health and it was considered as the foundation stone of a new tourism development strategy. The new policy was much more supportive of the tourism industry as the majority of the investments in tourism sites, particularly in new hotels, depended on the private sector. Since then tourism has been the most attractive sector for foreign, particularly Arab, investments (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004; Keyder and Oncu, 1994, pp.24-27; Abdel Fadil, 1980).

1989-2000

UNEP and the World Bank (2000, p.18) state that "tourism has been the fastest-growing sector of the Egyptian economy, reaching its peak during the first half of 1992. Between 1985 and 1996, the number of international arrivals grew on an average by 13.2 % annually, from 1.3 million in 1985 to 3.4 million in 1996. Over the same period, tourism growth throughout the world increased to an average annual rate of 5.9 %". At this time the tourism industry represented the fourth source of revenue after the Suez Canal, oil

and foreign remittances. The Egyptian Tourism Development Authority (TDA) (see section 5.6.2) stated in the mid-1990s (1995, p12) the tourism had been and would continue to be a key contributor to national income growth, foreign exchange earnings, employment generation, regional development and population redistribution. The government not only encouraged private investments in the tourism sector but also it privatized many of the hotels that were publicly owned. This in turn led tourism development to reorient the industry toward antiquities, concentrated in Cairo, Luxor or Upper Egypt in addition to developing new tourism destinations such as Hurghada and Sharm El- Sheikh, along the Red Sea coast (see Figures 5.7and 5.11) and South Sinai in the Gulf of Aqaba (TDA, 1996). Table 5.1 summarizes the history of the Egyptian economy and tourism development between 1950 and 2000.

Table 5.1: Egyptian economic strategies and its impact on the tourism 1950-2008

Duration	General economic Strategy	Economic policies	Tourism development impact
1952-1970	Ban on foreign investment nationalization of foreign assets	Encouraging the public investment in industrial and agricultural sectors	Tourism development projects centralized at Cairo and Upper Egypt's antiquities
1973-1980	Market-oriented economy	Encouraging private sector and foreign investment	Support the tourism industry and investments in coastal tourism sites
1981-2008	Privatized public sector	Encouraging private investments and privatized many of the hotels that were publicly owned	Develop new tourism destinations

Source: The author

In view of the fact that Red Sea coast and Sinai possessed a special place in the tourism development plan and the Ministry of Tourism (MOT) (see section 5.6.1) considered both destinations as high priority areas for coastal tourism development, the Red Sea Governorate (RSG) adopted a master plan for Hurghada which greatly extended the areas proposed for tourism, especially tourist villages along the coast (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004). Gaballah (1996) emphasizes that the development of the tourist industry in Egypt has been actively encouraged by the Government of Egypt in recent decades. Coastal tourism first developed on the Mediterranean coast for the domestic market. Subsequently the Red Sea coast began to attract international attention among scuba divers due to the quality of coral reefs and underwater life.

The all-year round pleasant climate, the rich marine environment and the proximity to tourism markets of Europe have provided an encouragement to develop the Red Sea coast for mass-tourism. Figure 5.3 shows the international tourism arrivals by generating regions in 2003, which indicates that European tourists account for more than 70 % if the Eastern Europe tourists are included. The Strategic Action Programme for the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden supervised by the UNEP and the Word Bank (2000) point out that "the Egyptian tourism sector has been reformed to improve its efficiency and ability to provide guidance and assistance to investors to make their participation successful and profitable". Consequently, a national strategy for Egypt's tourism development programme has been formulated, and priority areas and projects identified. Among these, MOT (1997) states that several areas on the coast of the Red Sea and south Sinai had been chosen for development as main tourism centres (see Figure 5.6)while the government was preparing planning and feasibility analyses for them (cited by UNEP and the World Bank, 2000).

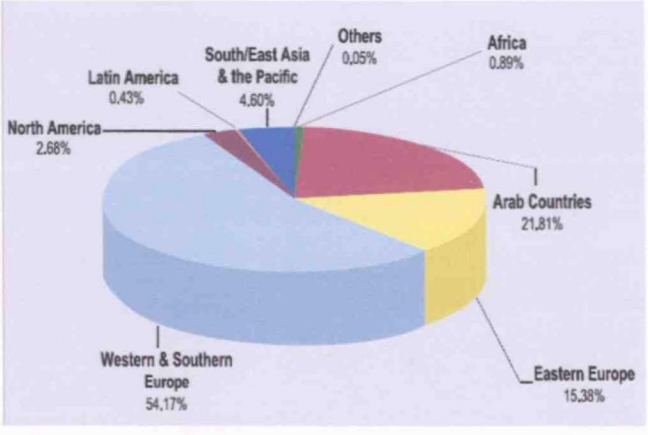


Figure 5.3: The international tourism arrivals by generating regions (2003)
Source: MOT (2003)

5.4 Egyptian tourism development in Middle East regional perspective

Regionally the American Chamber of Commerce in Egypt (ACCE) (2005) argues that the country has a market share of approximately 25 % in the Middle East region and around 1 % of the global tourism market. Table 5.2 shows a comparison of Egypt's tourism sector with regional competitors. Furthermore "in 2004 the tourism sector generated $12.8 billion in economic activity, both directly and indirectly. This ranks Egyptian tourism market 45th globally. Egypt jumps to 28th place if tourism performance is measured by the value of export earnings instead" (ACCE, 2005). This shows that in

2004 Egypt had the second highest real growth in demand regionally as it ranked 14th in the world after Tunisia which ranked 6th globally. Accordingly the country performance globally is good, with most indicators ranking Egypt among the top 50 countries (WTTC, 2004, pp.3-7). Associated with this vision the MOT (2003, p.10) points out that a rapid tourism development growth has been witnessed during the last decade and the country experienced a growth rate 15 % - compared with the world average of 7 %. The international tourist arrivals jumped from 5.5 million to 8.1 million arrivals between 2000 and 2004 respectively, with a growth rate of 14.8 % from 1999 (ACCE, 2005).

Table 5.2 Comparison of Egypt's tourism sector with regional competitors

	EGYPT		LEBANON		TUNISIA		TURKEY		U. A. EMIRATES	
	Value	Global Rank	Value	Global Rank	Value	Global Rank	Value	Global Rank	Value	Global Rank
Total Demand ($billion)	12.8	45th	4.1	73rd	5.9	59th	32	26th	17.2	39th
Real Growth in Demand	13.3	14th	7.8	98th	14.8	6th	12.2	21st	6.1	128th
Share in GDP (%)	15.3	45th	12.4	61st	19.5	35th	10	83rd	10	86th
Capital Investment ($billion)	2.7	41st	0.4	89th	1.1	59th	2.9	40th	5.4	24th
Total Employment (million)	3.1	11th	0.2	84th	0.6	47th	1.3	26th	0.15	93rd

Source: WTTC (2004)

5.5 Tourism in Egypt's national economy

The tourism industry in Egypt has grown extremely fast in the past decade as the government and people continue to share the historical, cultural and new environmental wealth of this tourism destination with millions of visitors every year. Tourism is a vital industry for the Egyptians: it is the country's number one foreign currency earner (WTTC, 2004; UNEP and the World Bank, 2000). WTTC (2004) indicates that industry revenue reached $5.260 billion in value in 2004, which represent 22 % of Egypt's total exports of goods and services and 17 % of total capital investment in Egypt. The role of tourism is quite important not only for the national economy of the country which includes the large amount of revenue derived from tourism-related businesses and

benefits from foreign exchange, but also for employment for the Egyptian people, income generation, and improvement of Egyptians' quality of life as a result of public investment in community services. The information derived from both the WTTC (2004) and MOT (2005) provides a particular view of the tourism industry in Egypt that concludes with the dramatic growth in the numbers of tourists and in hotel capacity between the years 1994 and 2004. Figures 5.4 and 5.5 show a considerable increase in the numbers of arrivals and hotel capacity, which has a cumulative effect and is growing at a rate of an average 8000 hotel rooms annually. This development has taken place all over the country; however coastal areas are considered as the main tourist attractions and play a major role in Egypt's economic activities (TDA, 1995, pp35-37). Tourism hotspots like Sharm El Sheikh and Hurghada now offer millions of international visitors a variety of coastal destinations that combine uniquely rich biodiversity with world-class tourist facilities. Although it has been claimed that terrorist attacks in July 2006 caused a significant negative impact on Egypt's tourism industry (at the country's first class resorts and at Sharm al-Sheikh, in which 67 people died, see section 4.11), the Economist Intelligence Unit Limited (EIUL) (2006, pp. 34-35) points out that "after the attack the arrivals fell from 840.000 in July to 743.000 in August and 631.000 in September, but recovered somewhat to 714.000 in October. Arrivals in the third quarter of 2005 stood at 2.3 million up from 2.1 milllion in

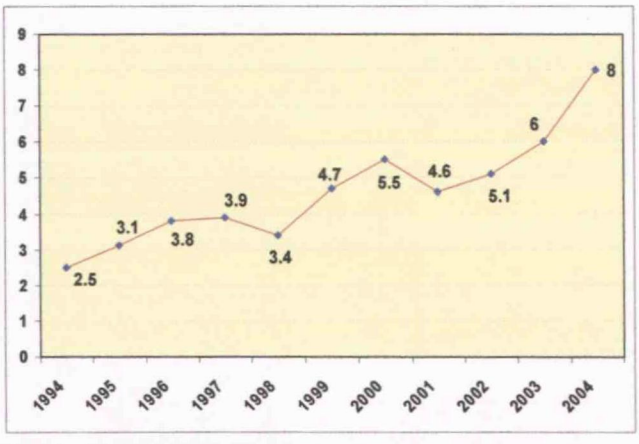


Figure 5.4: The number of tourists from 1994 to 2004 in Millions
Source: MOT (2005)

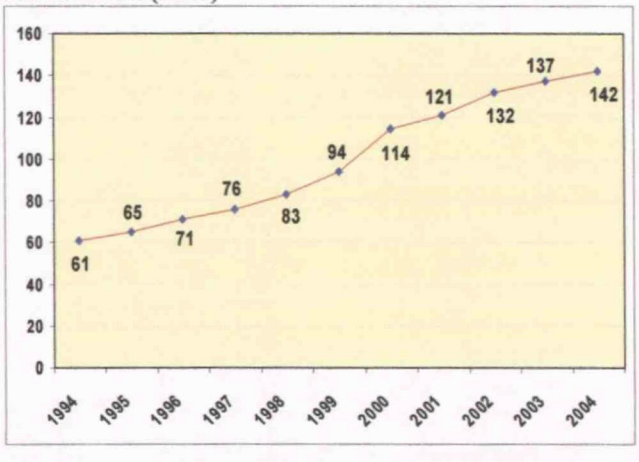


Figure 5.5: The hotel rooms from 1994 to 2004 (in thousands)
Source: MOT (2005)

the same period of 2004". The MOT official statistics records 8.6 millions arrivals in 2005. In comparison with 8.1 million in 2004 and the 6.04 million in 2003 this means that arrivals in November and December reached around 710.000, which exceed the numbers in late 2004. EIUL (2006) emphasizes "the tourists spent 85.2 million nights in Egypt in 2005, up from 82 million in 2004 and 53 million in 2003. Revenue totalled US$7 billion up from US$6.1 billion in 2004 and US$4.6 billion in 2003. This implies receipts of about US$1.8 billion for the fourth quarter, a considerable rise on the same period of 2004".

Nevertheless developing tourism to become Egypt's principal and most extensive industry is an economic growth priority. Therefore the Egyptian strategic tourism plans try to play an increasingly important role in supporting the hoped-for transformation of Egypt's undeveloped areas into world-class destinations for the tourism and travel trade (EIUL, 2006; ACCE, 2005) tapping into the potential offered by the 96.5 % of Egypt's land area which as yet remains uncultivated and uninhabited. This involves the utilization and management of vast land and sea based resources including the 1800 kilometers of undeveloped Red Sea and Mediterranean coastline (TDA, 2002a). The strategic tourism development plan considers four scenarios (see Table 5.3), which depend on the global circumstances, tourism demand structure and volume, tourists' character; development rate...etc.

Table 5.3: The strategic tourism development alternatives 2017

Predictions	Strategic Alternatives			
Year 2017	Quite Optimistic Alternative	Optimistic Alternative	Equilibrium Alternative	Cautious Alternative
Number of tourists (in millions)	32.7	21.9	16.5	9.4
Development rate	11%	8.75%	7.25%	4.25%
Hotel capacity (in thousands)	747	544	388	163

Source: TDA (1998)

A combination of different strategic alternatives has been used over time for instance the equilibrium alternative was used between the years 1998 and 2000 and then the "optimistic alternative" has been used as the government official strategy for the rest of the plan (TDA, 1998). However, global circumstances enforced the government to

restructure the development strategy. If successful, these plans should help facilitate $15 billion in new investments and generate up to 800,000 new jobs. The number of hotel rooms is also expected to grow from its current level of 142,000 to an estimated 388,000 to serve about 20 million tourists by the year 2017 (TDA, 2005a). In helping to meet this target, the development plan is directed to bring on line more than 10,000 hotel rooms every year and utilize approximately 5% of the country's undeveloped land area for tourism purposes. To accommodate this growth in tourist numbers, the Government of Egypt has adopted an aggressive tourism development plan for Sinai and the Red Sea region aiming to build hotels and resorts along 1200 kilometers of shoreline under a strategic plan that outlines the largest coastal development in the world (MOT, 1997).

There are two important issues here; **first**, it might be considered that this mass-tourism development does not meet the actual national market share and the government should intervene in tourism development and not depend totally on market forces in order to mitigate potential negative impacts in case markets fail to address long-term distribution and environmental issues. However there is a view that government intervention may exacerbate problems rather than avoid them (WTTC, 2004). What seems to be important is the kind of role that the government plays in achieving broader development objectives under the right mix of state intervention and market (TDA, 2001). The **second** issue concerns the geographical dispersal of the industry in view of the fact that tourism development is supported by free enterprise and a free market and the government aims to develop more than 1200 km along the coastal areas. This geographical dispersal in turn may lead to rise in conflicts between development and localities and may put a great strain on the natural and human resources of destination areas (EIUL, 2006). As the volume of tourism expands and as development increases, conflicts may become more frequent (Ibrahim, 1985). The first solution is for a "hands off" policy under which the government may pay no attention to problems that may a-rise from geographic dispersal, and the private sector will adapt itself to achieve local satisfaction, as the industry strengthens and enterprises need to be supported by the nearby local communities. A second solution is to restrain private encouragement of tourism investment through government support measures that enhance local communities' quality of life. However

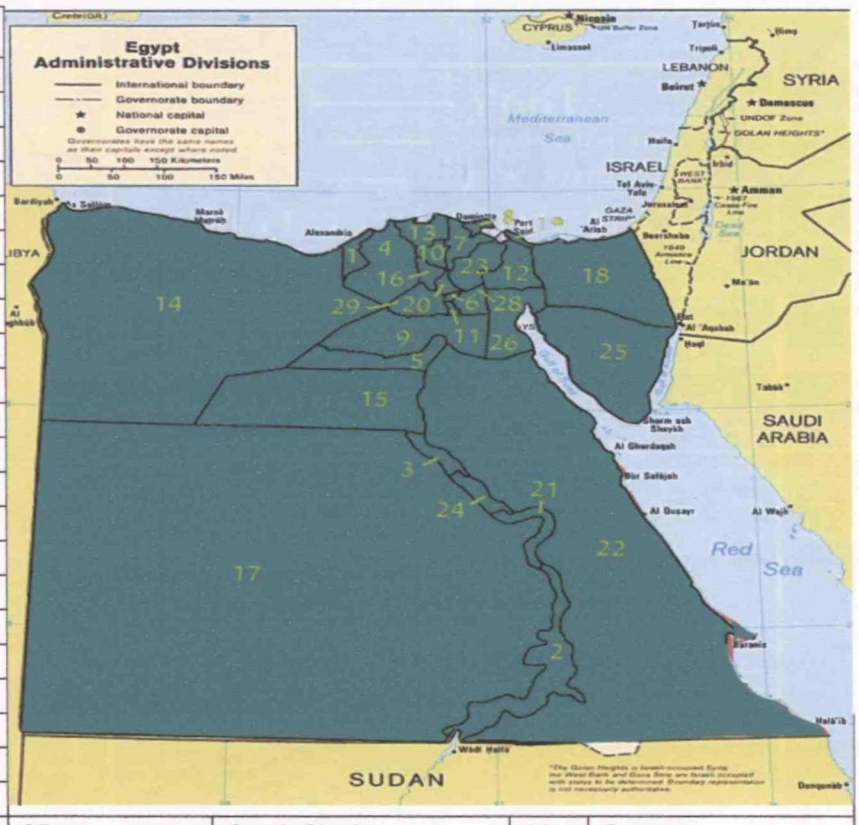
this approach may place the government above private sector investment, which in turn undermines the development strategy. The **third** option is to monitor the industry to provide the reasons for its accomplishment and integration. This may involve particular courses of action, which include, monitoring, assessment, evaluation and restructuring the development strategy considering long-term goals (Murphy, 1985, pp. 33-37).

Mass-tourism development may, however have brought some short-term economic benefits. Over the longer term, however, it has resulted in environmental and social problems and poor quality tourist destinations (see section 2.5.4). The experience of many tourism areas in the world has demonstrated that, on a long-term basis, the planned approach to developing tourism can bring benefits without significant problems, and maintain satisfied tourist markets (UNEP, 2002a; Ashley *et al.*, 2001; WTTC 1998; Roe *et al.*, 1997). Places that have allowed tourism to develop without the benefit of planning are often suffering from environmental and social problems. These are detrimental to residents and unpleasant for many tourists, resulting in marketing difficulties and decreasing economic benefits.

5.6 Institutional structure and stakeholders

Egypt is divided into 29 administrative divisions or 'governorates' addition to central government based in the capital: Cairo (see Figure 5.6). Different ministries such as housing, industry or tourism are preparing national and regional subdivision plans. Those ministries consist of a number of central departments, which have executive councils in each governorate, which work closely with the ministerial central offices in Cairo. It should be recognized that the Egyptian administrative system is a centralized structure and all the organization has been established from top down (Sobhi, 1992, p.11). However, in 1975 the government declared law no.52, which gives attention and authorization to the governorates and so has decentralized the system. Local needs and objectives are being formulated through local development plans, which are recognized, by local councils elected locally, and executive councils on behalf of the ministries (Majlis al-Cha'b, 1995).

1	Alexandria
2	Aswan
3	Asyut
4	Beheira
5	Beni Suef
6	Cairo
7	Dakahlia
8	Damietta
9	Faiyum
10	Gharbia
11	Giza
12	Ismailia
13	Kafr el-Sheikh
14	Matruh
15	Minya
16	Monufia
17	New Valley
18	North Sinai
19	Port Said
20	Qalyubia
21	Qena
22	Red Sea
23	Sharqia
24	Sohag
27	Luxor



25	South Sinai	26	Suez		
28	Helwan	29	6th of October		

Figure 5.6: Egypt's administrative divisions
Source: Source: UPA (2000)

In view of the fact that the executive councils receive directions from the Ministry engaged with and towards each locality's needs, decision-making at local levels is being kept at a minimum level. Sobhi (1992) points out that in the light of the budget priorities and the strategic plan, decisions are made at the ministerial levels which in turn are implemented at local level. For instance, the Red Sea strategic regional development plan that mainly concerns development of major cities, was prepared by the Urban Planning Authority (UPA) which is one of the Ministry of Housing and Infrastructure's bodies based in Cairo. More understanding will be gained by focusing on the ministerial level and local level when considering tourism development stakeholders.

5.6.1 Ministry of Tourism (MOT)

The Ministry of Tourism (MOT) has controlled and supervised tourism activities since 1967. MOT is structured into four parts dealing with planning and development for the reconstruction and exploitation of designated tourism areas; regulation of use of the designated tourism areas and services administration according to MOT standards, and financial and legal affairs (Sultan, 1992, p.11). Laws no.1 and no.2 (1973) identify the MOT role for managing and running tourism projects over new areas, which are designated for tourism development purposes within and outside of the main cities. MOT manages tourism development facilities inside cities' borders through executive councils like Urban Planning Authority (UPA). It sets development priorities and development timeframes in addition to providing the basic utilities and services for the private sector and tourism development investors directly within the designated areas for tourism development which are outside the city territory. Accordingly "MOT is being streamlined to strengthen its technical expertise in support of a private sector-led tourism development strategy, to be competitive with neighbouring countries and to protect the unique cultural and natural resources in Egypt from environmental degradation. The first step has been the creation of the TDA in September 1991 (UNEP and the World Bank, 2000, p.18)".

5.6.2 Tourism Development Authority (TDA)

The Tourism Development Authority (TDA) was established by the Egyptian government in 1991 for the purpose of encouraging private tourism investment that is environmentally sound. The TDA is responsible for developing more than 1800km of coastal areas along the Mediterranean and Red Sea and other parts (see Figure 5.7) (Sultan, 1992). Given that the tourism development experience at the early tourism destinations had a variety of negative environmental and economic impacts (see section 5.8.3) it was in recognition of the need to conserve both environmental quality and economic resources of the Red Sea region (MOT, 2003; Pearson, 1999), that the TDA

was established for the purpose of better facilitating, promoting, and controlling the tourism development process.

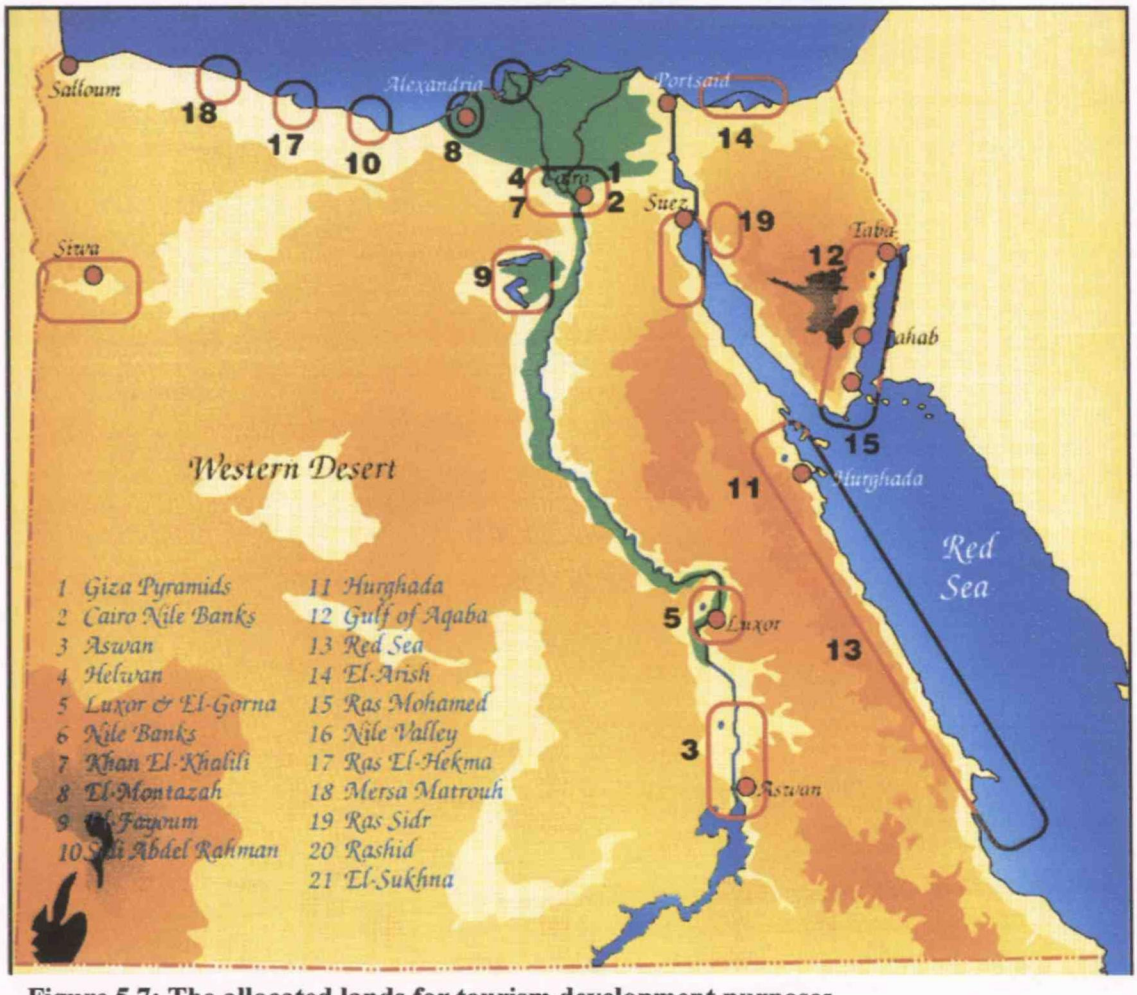


Figure 5.7: The allocated lands for tourism development purposes
Source: TDA (1995)

The TDA was authorized to monitor the environmental impacts of tourism development beyond municipal boundaries. The geographical limits of this authority were established by presidential decree to include an area five km wide that extends 680 km along the Red Sea coast from 25 km north of Hurghada to 20 km south of Halaib (TDA, 2005b). UNEP and the World Bank (2000, p.19) state that the TDA Board of Directors (chaired by MOT and 16 other members representing the public and private sectors) and the Managing Director of TDA are considered to be the core of tourism development decision-making in Egypt. "The Board of Directors is the supreme authority for setting policies concerning

TDA's activities, for approval of TDA's work programme and annual operating and capital budgets, for making decisions on allocating land and giving development rights to private sector developers in areas designated as tourism zones, for approving cost recovery policies for tourism related services, and for contracting loans for TDA". TDA (1995) stated that its goals will require:

- Effectively promoting the conservation and restoration of wildlife habitats and ecosystems;
- Planning, management, and marketing in order to meet the stringent environmental and recreation demands of the sophisticated and increasingly competitive tourism market; and
- Demonstrating economic feasibility to attract financing and sustain business operations.

Thus in view of the fact that its main role is to encourage private tourism investment that will support both economic development and responsible environmental management, TDA not only establishes tourism development zones within indicative plans and oversees the implementation of development plans for these zones, but also plans the infrastructure for the zones and performs fiduciary responsibilities to ensure acceptable returns on investments (MOT, 1997). Furthermore it is responsible for monitoring the environmental conditions of tourism land in order to safeguard their environmental quality in cooperation with the Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency (EEAA). The corals reefs, which are located along the Red Sea coast, are designated as a protected Marine Park.

5.6.3 Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency (EEAA)

All development projects, particularly tourism projects in coastal areas, are requested to provide an environmental impact assessment in order to guarantee that projects match the environmental standards and to minimize environmental impact during construction and operational phases. The main role is to oversee the protection of natural resources and to improve measures for pollution control. The general policies linked to the environment (mainly in protected areas) are being prepared by the Environmental Affairs Agency. The

agency also provides the necessary plans for the protection and promotion of the environment and monitoring the implementation of such plans in coordination with the competent administrative authorities (EEAA, 2001). The strategic action programme for the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden report (UNEP and the World Bank, 2000) points out that EEAA has been organized to avoid by-passing traditional bureaucratic channels. The report emphasizes that since the EEAA was established within the Prime Minister's cabinet, it has replaced the agency established by the Presidential Decree no. 631/1982 in all rights and obligations. However since coral reef at the coastal areas, mangroves and the coastal strip itself are considered to be natural treasures, any development at the coastal areas need to be approved by the EEAA. "The Environmental Affairs Agency has a public juridical personality and affiliated with the competent Minister for Environmental Affairs (UNEP and the World Bank, 2000)". Furthermore EEAA joins regional and international conventions on the environment in order to strengthen environmental relations between Egypt and other countries, and the regional and international organizations (EEAA, 2001; UNEP and the World Bank, 2000).

5.6.4 Red Sea Governorate (RSG)

Although the Red Sea region is considered as the third biggest governorate, accounting for 12.4% of Egypt's area (see Figure 5.6) it has only 0.19% of the total population (UPA, 2000). The Egyptian coast of the Red Sea is under the supervision of the Red Sea Governorate (RSG), which supervises and controls the local administrations in the municipalities of the major cities. The governor has presidential authority within the region, and is accountable for organizing the activities of different ministries under the central government in Cairo. The RSG has a budget for administration to develop projects that support social and economic development (UPA, 2000, p.7). The administrative territory for main cities - which occupy 35% of the region's total area - take the majority of the budget, particularly Hurghada as this city is the regional capital. It receives about 79% of the total arrivals at the Red Sea region, i.e. 17% of the tourist arrivals to the country (UPA, 2000, p.56; TDA, 1998). The Red Sea region has been

given second priority after Sinai in terms of tourism development although it possesses the leading tourism destination in terms of hotel capacity (UPA, 2000, pp.33-45).

Nevertheless UNEP and the World Bank (2000) argue "The Governorate lacks technical staff and is therefore weak on implementation and particularly enforcing regulations. It is necessary to strengthen the capacity of the Governorate in the management and planning of development of areas along the coast". In contrast TDA and EEAA have a qualified and professional staff, which provide technical support for the RSG within regional units, which work at local level of tourism facilities and environmental monitoring (MOT, 2005). Nevertheless, each government body has specific roles according to the areas of influence. Figure 5.8 shows the responsibilities and divisions of different governmental bodies.

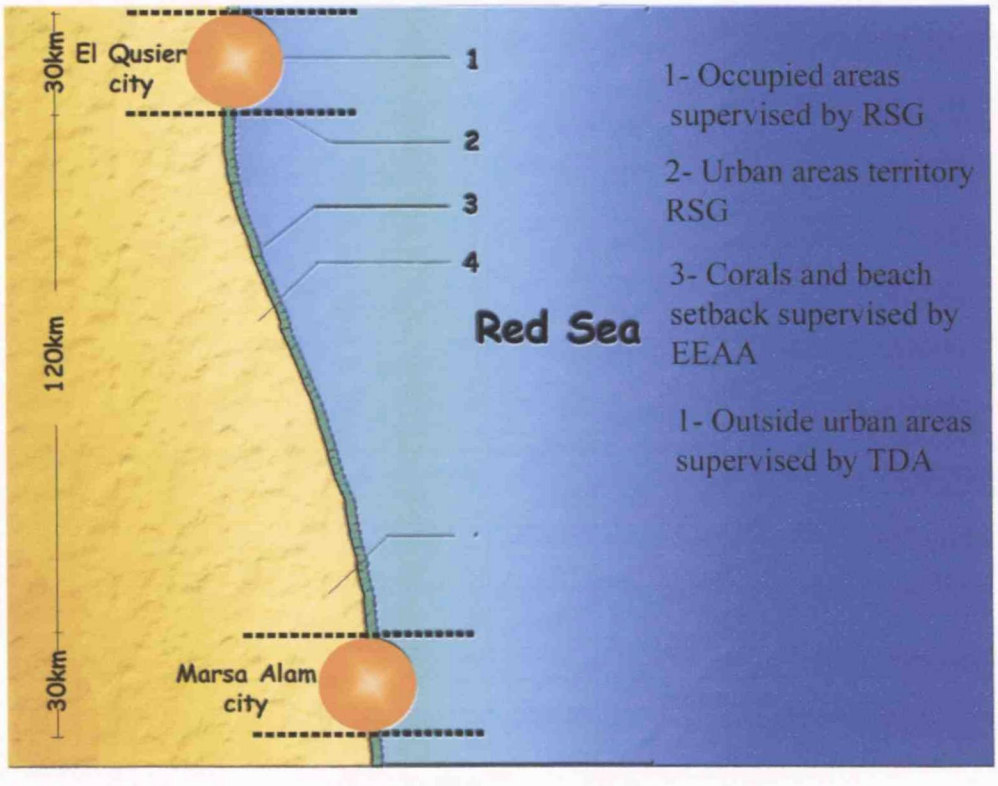


Figure 5.8: Sketch shows division of responsibilities

5.6.5 Civil society

Within the sequence of Egypt's development polices (section 5.3) civil society emerged and took a tangible form as the country modernized after 1952. However, AI-Sayyid

(1996, p.238) points out that a number of civil organizations go back to the 1920s when professional associations for lawyers, engineers, doctors and so on were formed. These associations increased in terms of numbers and influence between the 1950s and 1960s. Significant roles have been achieved by the professional associations not only for human and employees' rights but also for political life. Yet since the mid 1980s a considerable number of these organizations have been seen increasingly as politically risky. Since then and under government pressure civil society organizations do not take on political and activist roles; they provide social services and programmes for their members such as assistance for child care, social and culture activities. Khalifa (1995, p. 161) states that "a major reason for the slow and uneven pace of democratization in the country is the relative weakness of civil society, where less-than-vibrant civil societies have often proven incapable of consolidating democratic gains, finding themselves easily outmaneuvered and rendered ineffectual by resurgent despotisms".

In agreement with this analysis UNDP (1992, p.16) confirms that public participation in outlining and structuring development plans and programmes of vital importance is very limited in Egypt. Other organizations such as the Lottery, Scouts and the Red Crescent support social services, whilst the non-government organizations (NGOs) as well as voluntary organizations, such as organizations linked to mosques and churches, support local communities with respect to public awareness, medical and educational services Behbehanian (2000). UNDP (1992, p16) argues that "the government often invites participation, but citizens are not informed early enough or do not take up the opportunity to find out about the problems, resolutions or new laws". That there is an obligation upon citizens to participate and develop their community according to their vision, but this is possible only when the procedures of development establish a link between the decision-makers and the citizens. It is argued here that individuals need to be involved with government efforts to improve their quality of life through education, poverty eradication, better housing conditions, health services and employment. The next section describes the small number of NGOs linked to conserving the natural environment and supporting local communities.

5.6.6 Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

A number of environmental NGOs have been developed to help protect Egypt's environment. For instance Hurghada Environmental Protection and Conservation Association (HEPCA) which has been formed by the local diving centres with the primary aim of combating further damage to coral reefs in the area. HEPCA was established in 1988 and achieved NGO status in 1995; it is primarily concerned with the protection and conservation of coral reefs and other marine ecosystems in the Red Sea area. A board of directors composed of Egyptian and expatriate members was appointed. HEPCA works closely with the EEAA Natural Protectorates Department to ensure that laws covering the protection of all offshore islands and coral reefs are enforced, and to assist the department in developing management and monitoring strategies (EEAA, 2001).

Safaga Oceanic Society (SOS) has as it main objective making Safaga a prototype of environmentally sound development along the Red Sea Coast. SOS is linked with the International Wallenberg Foundation. New efforts to improve development have been focused on areas south of Safaga such as Quseir. Moreover the Red Sea Association for the Protection of Natural and Environmental resources has recently been formed in Quseir to combat environmental degradation and to increase public awareness further south along the coast continuing down to Ras Banase and the Sudanese border where mangroves and gazelles are found. Another NGO is in the process of formation for the Marsa Alam area. This organization comprises individuals or groups that have an interest in marine conservation (TDA, 2005 b). Most of the NGOs have environmental interests which attract funding through international environmental conservation bodies or which run businesses; For instance HEPCA runs more than 60 diving centres at the Red Sea. Support of local communities comes as a second priority for most of the NGOs. Nevertheless there is small number of NGOs, which take into consideration local community improvement such as the Egyptian Desert Pioneer Society which aims to support local communities and nature conservation as well. On the other hand there is small number of associations which were established by local communities with the

objective of developing and maintaining the community. Amongst these, for instance, is the Community Development Association (CDA) set up in the southern part of the Red Sea in Abou Ghosun settlement. It is financed by the Ministry of Social Affairs to develop the local community (see section 7.3.2).

5.6.7 Private sector

It should be recognized that the tourism development policy is targeting the private sector and there is a considerable number of investors who invest in the area. TDA (2005b) points out that more than 300 tourism development projects were approved at the southern part of the Red Sea. Those projects are divided between small, medium and large resorts of which 35% are constructed or under construction (see table 5.5). MOT (2003) states that more than 55% of the tourism projects at the region are categorized as 4 star facilities; however, 5 and 3 star resorts and facilities account for less than 45% of the projects. In fact it is highly likely that since beach tourism business is quite new for Egyptian investors most of the tourism development projects in the area are operated by international tour operators such as Starwood, Sun, Accor and Steigenberger.

The American Chamber of Commerce in Egypt (ACCE) (2005) points out that internal factors hinder tourism development and affect private sector growth. These factors include the institutions accountable for tourism development such as administrative complexity, fees and taxes. Furthermore negative impact on tourism investors' growth is occurred due to the exchange rate policy, tourism regulations, environmental policies, pricing policies, and marketing policies (ACCE, 2005). Moreover the human resources, particularly education and training, and tourism-related services, including public tourist establishments, transportation, and infrastructure, are other important factors. Nevertheless the tourism private sector in Egypt is experiencing growth in both supply and demand, creating potential investment opportunities

5.7 Tourism development and local community

During the last century, the tourism industry in Egypt diversified in terms of attractions, products, and geographic distribution. The original foundation of Egyptian tourism was the presence of antiquities in the Nile Valley that earned worldwide acclaim. These ancient sites and their monuments continue to enjoy large numbers of visitors and varieties of tourism products have been created to accommodate these visitors. The designated tourism development plan's objectives consider the transformation of Egypt's undeveloped areas into tourism destinations as an essential objective (see section 5.5.2). The nature of these destinations is quite isolated from political and social life (EIUL, 2006; ACCE, 2005) where the rural life led by its scattered population means that civil society is "immature" (Al-Sayyid, 1996). Furthermore, until the mid 1990s, the lack of accessibility and communications for the local communities living in coastal areas such as the Red Sea, Sinai and Mediterranean caused great isolation from the political spheres of the modern world (Behbehanian, 2000). Moreover local communities suffer from lack of education and opportunities; in such circumstances, the ability of local communities to form civil organizations in a modern sense is rare.

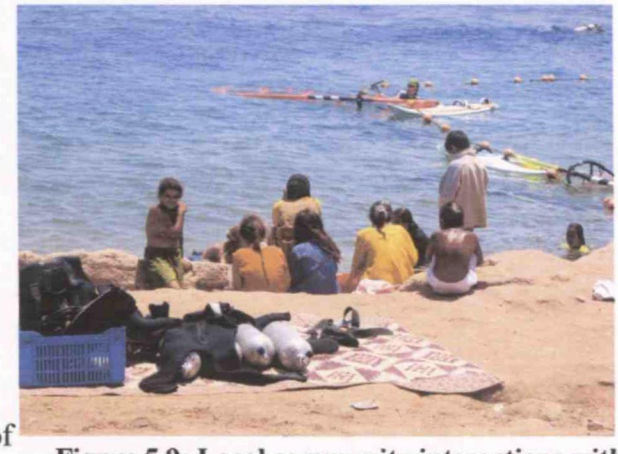


Figure 5.9: Local community interactions with tourists at Dahab

Khalifa (1995) and ICG (2007) point out that there are no active civil society groups in the Egyptian remote areas to adopt local community issues and improve their development because they lack the capacity to make the system work on their behalf. Similarly, Behbehanian (2000, p. 33) argues that "national tourism initiatives during the last period have resulted in both the increasing marginalization of the local community from the economic opportunities associated with the industry, as well as their removal

from the valuable seaside properties which now serve as the center of tourism activities". Box 5.1 gives an example that clarifies the negative impact that occurs to local communities at one of the Egyptian tourism destinations.

Box 5.1: Adverse impact of tourism upon local community at Dahab

Dahab is located 50 Km north of Sharm El Sheik at the Red Sea coast in Sinai. The pressure over local community goes back to 1960 when Israeli troops starting coming to it for lazing on the beach, drugged, and introduced the Bedouin to another way of life. On the other hand the after the war the Egyptian government ignored their existence, which in turn possesses negative impact. In Dahab most men juggle and subsidize their formal employment with a range of informal endeavors, and for many, informal methods of entering into transactions with tourists represent the only avenue for subsistence during long searches for formal employment. Individuals from the local community who are involved in sex tourism in Dahab are men. These men not only come to represent sexual promiscuity to the state, but they also serve as bearers of a range of social ills perceived to be infiltrating the nation as a result of the tourism industry, including dishonesty, theft, drug use, imitations of "Western" behaviour and general moral decay.

Men simply walking in the street with foreign women can be picked up by police for questioning or detention. The range of state initiatives touted as the maintenance of security almost exclusively means the protection of foreign tourists and are ultimately intended to police sexual behaviour. The state and the larger industry in Egypt generally frown upon Dahab because it dramatically retransforms national visions of successful tourism, modeled mostly on the large multinational enterprises in other locations. The small struggling establishments and the "informality" of many transactions in Dahab make it a far less attractive example of tourism development.

Figure 5.10: One of the local community wooden houses

Nowadays, the real Bedouin village of tin shacks and scrawny goats hides behind scores of restaurants and campgrounds, while local children wander beneath the palm trees selling culottes and camel rides. Visitors either stay longer than they expected (sometimes until their money or brain cells are gone) or find the whole scene so repellent that they leave immediately.

Source: Adopted from Behbehanian (2000, pp 32-34)

Accordingly the local communities find themselves living and operating within different contexts, they feel their land rights are being challenged by outsiders (see section 4.11) and fear being cut off from traditional opportunities to fish, hunt, develop economic

activities, upgrade their houses or gather local products. Tourism also generates income for emigrant employees from other parts of Egypt (ICG, 2007; Behbehanian, 2000, pp.34-36). In fact there are extremely high levels of informal interaction between tourists and local tourism providers in some of the tourism destination which threaten local community identity and bring about transformation in value systems (see 2.6.3.2). As Faulkner and Tideswell (1997) point out the host communities are the weaker party in interactions with tourists.

5.8 Red Sea region as a tourism development destination

UNEP and the World Bank (2000) describe the Red Sea as a "small ocean created by the pulling apart of Africa and Arabia seventy million years ago". It expands southeast-northwest between 12^0N, 43^0E and 30^0N and 32^0E by latitude 28^0N the Red Sea is divided to form two gulfs, the shallow Gulf of Suez and the deep Gulf of Aqaba. The Egyptian territory is located between 29^0 10′ souths and 22^0 north latitude (see section 5.6.4). The Red Sea sailing route is difficult due to the stormy winds, currents and rarity of water and food supplies along its shores; it is nevertheless considered as one of the world's most important sea routes since prehistoric times because of its geographical position (Salah El-Din, 1994).

5.8.1 Administrative subdivision

The Red Sea Governorate is discussed above (section 5.6.4). According to the Urban Planning Authority (UPA) (2000) the Red Sea region is divided into seven subdivisions according to the major cities and regional aspects. The RSG pattern of subdivision does not match with TDA subdivisions, which mainly depend on geographical features (see section 5.7.5):

- *Ras Ghareb division* starts from the northern part of the region and expands southeast 210 Km. it contains Ras Ghareb city with some scattered settlements such as El Zafranaa and El Aderaa. The area possesses about 18% of the region's population.

- *Hurghada division* contains the regional capital Hurghada city. The division extends about 95 km and has 39% of the region's population.
- *Safaga division* contains Safaga city with other small settlements. The division extends100 km along the coast and has about 17% of the region's population.
- *El Qusier division* contains El Qusier city and a few settlements around the tourism and mining facilities. It extends 235 km to the southeast and has about 16.5% of the region's population.
- *Sudan border division* contains three sections which are Marsa Alam, Shalateen and Halayeb section which in turn have the main cities at the south of the region besides a considerable number of small settlements in the coastal and deep mountains area. The subdivision extends to 460Km and has about 9.5% of the region's population.

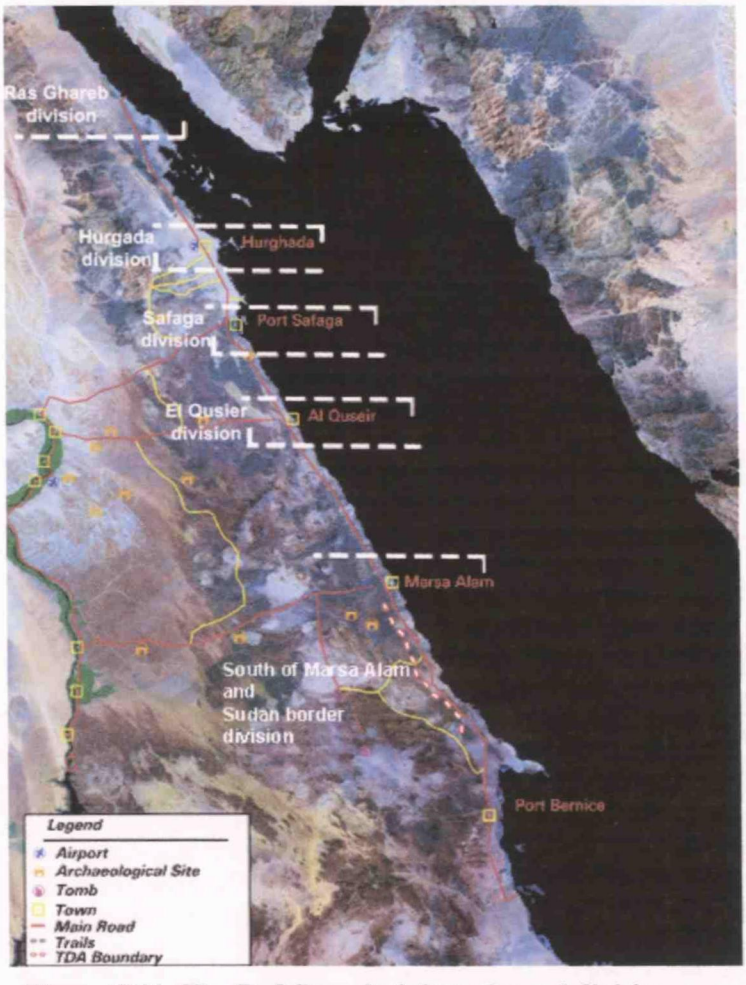


Figure 5.11: The Red Sea administration subdivision
Source: UPA (2000)

The subdivisions indicated above are being supervised by the RSG; nevertheless the TDA, EEAA and the Ministry of Petroleum have defined areas that are managed and operated within these subdivisions for particular purposes: for instance, national parks, protected areas, mangroves and costal areas including corals reefs are managed, operated and monitored by EEAA (EEAA, 2001). In fact it is highly likely that the majority of

undeveloped areas belong to TDA for the purpose of developing them as tourism destinations according to the MOT strategic development plan with RSG cooperation (UPA, 2000; TDA, 1998).

5.8.2 Population

The majority of the Red Sea region's population is concentrated in the main cities along the coastline. These cities have witnessed a dramatic rise of immigrants, particularly Hurghada city. However, according to UPA (2000, p.10) most of the inhabitants of the Red Sea coast in the past initially belonged to two tribes known as the Ababda and the Bisharia who were considered as a tribe of African Arabs which wandered through the Nubian desert and the Nile valley (see section 5.9.4). These tribes still live in small fishing settlements that are quite isolated and scattered along the Red Sea region at particular places where safe access to the sea is provided or near their source of resources in the deep-range (see section 5.8.3) (TDA, 2005b; Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). The local community settlements exist in harsh circumstances that have led to a severe separation from all aspects of civilization and they suffer form the lack of services such as education, health, social and cultural facilities (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). Meanwhile, a large number of emigrants from Upper Egypt moved to the Red Sea coast and settled at the major cities which enjoy sufficient services and facilities provided by the government (UNEP and the World Bank 2000, p.9). Table 5.4* shows the prediction of the RSG for increasing rate of population at the Red Sea divided according to urban, semi-urban and rural areas.

Urban inhabitants consist of local communities and immigrants at the Red Sea major cities (large settlements) such as Hurghada, El Qusier and Marsa Alam. Semi-urban areas' inhabitants refer to medium settlements between 1000 and 5000 inhabitants with formal existence but limited services (RSG, 2005). They normally consist of mixed group of local communities and immigrants. 'Rural areas' inhabitants in table 5.4 refers to

* Predicted by RSG (2005)

residents of small settlements with less than 1000 inhabitants. There are local fishing settlements at the coastal site or around water resources at the deep-range (UPA, 2000).

Table 5.4 the increasing rate of population at the Red Sea urban and rural areas

Year	No. of inhabitants at urban areas	Growth rate	No. of inhabitants at semi-urban areas	Growth rate	No. of inhabitants at rural areas	Growth rate
1966	22.100	--	5.800	--	10.500	--
1976	38.400	5.44	7.700	2.94	13.700	0.44
1986	67.300	5.76	10.300	3.33	11.600	0.90
1996	124.700	6.37	18.100	5.15	17.100	3.93
***2005**	210.000	5.9	29.420	4.8	26.000	3.10

Source: Adopted from UPA (2000) and RSG (2005)

5.8.3 Environmental aspects

Coral reefs are considered to be one of the most crucial ecosystems for human survival due to their role in the marine life cycle (IUCN, 2004). UNEP and the World Bank (2000) argue that "coral reef's high productivity stems from the efficient biological recycling, high retention of nutrients and structure complexity provides habitat for vast number of organisms". Furthermore reefs play an essential role as tourism attractions. The extraordinary abundance of marine life found in the coral reef systems of the Red Sea has proved to be a powerful attraction to tourists throughout the world (EEAA, 2001; MOT, 1998). This then determine the pattern of the tourism development plan as marine-based resorts (see section 5.8.4). The Red Sea is acknowledged to be one of the important diving spots worldwide, as it possesses the youngest and healthiest marine life habitats in the world for the following reasons:

- Firstly; in comparison to other places in the same tropical region, the Red Sea has relatively low current. This play a significant role for coral feeding mechanisms. Corals may catch plankton using stinging cells on their tentacles; these animals obtain most of their nutrients from symbiotic unicellular algae. Consequently, most corals grow in clear and shallow water that additionally provide sunlight, typically at depths shallower than 200ft. (EEAA, 2001; DHI, 2001; Salah El-Din, 1994).

- Secondly: since the Red Sea is a fairly as a shallow sea (around 2km in depth) compared with the Indian Ocean and the area around Australia, and as its bed is actively volcanic, the Red Sea is quite warm. Its temperature 0.5 to 1.5 degrees higher than other places at the same tropical region (DHI, 2001).

- Thirdly: given its limited exchange of water with the Indian Ocean as it is a semi closed sea and as the surrounding mountain rocks are eroded by rainwater that is carried over flooded areas to the sea, it has high salinity (DHI, 2001; Salah El-Din, 1994). These circumstances provide an ideal environment for corals to grow.

Nevertheless, the fragile coastal reef ecosystem, mostly at Hurghada , is easily damaged by intensive development of tourist facilities and the impact of tourist numbers (DHI, 2001; Pearson, 1999). Landfilling of coastal zones (Figure 5.12) to provide sandy beaches destroys reefs and increases seawater turbidity damaging flora and fauna and resulting in the contamination of coastal sites (Imam and Bashandy, 2003; Dewidar, 2002). Salah El-Din (1994) points out that the fringing reef, which extends from the shore to a depth of 500-600 m, is hard to access without an artificial path such as floating jetties; most of the sea-based activities cannot take place. Figure 5.13 shows the fringing reef structure, which extends along the Egyptian Red Sea coast and occupies 85% of the coastal areas (EEAA, 2001; DHI, 2001). These areas of coastal shelf can not be used for sea-based activities, tourism development facilities or by the local fishermen. TDA and PMG (1998) state that this is an obstacle, which in one way or another, hinders tourism development. UNEP and the World Bank (2000, p.8) note that, "The Egyptian Red Sea coastline frequently protrudes

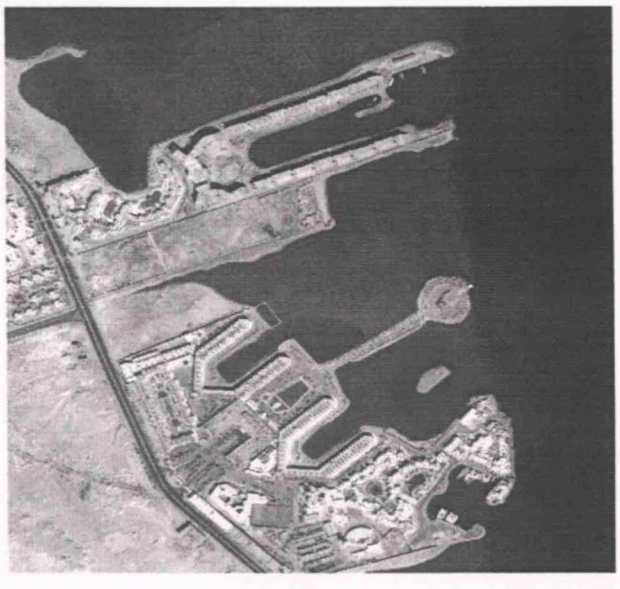


Figure 5.12: Landfill of corals reef by tourism development projects at Hurghada
Source: Google Earth (2007)

in the form of rocky headlands occurring along the whole region as at Ras for example Ras Banase, Ras Gemsha, etc.

The coastline and the outlying fringing reefs are incised at irregular intervals by creeks of drowned stream valleys known as Sharms for example Sharm El-Seikh or Sharm El-Lollyah". These particular shapes (see Figure 5.14) provide safe access with sandy bottoms that are ideal for sea-based activities, which make them unique and sought after - by both tourism development and by local communities (EEAA, 2001; MOT, 1998). For these reasons a number of studies have been prepared that mainly seek to identify techniques for developing the Red Sea coastal area. All efforts and studies made within national supervision and financed by international agencies are principally focused on preserving natural resources. Annex A shows the proposed plan for Egyptian Red Sea coastal area and priority actions needed for the Red Sea region.

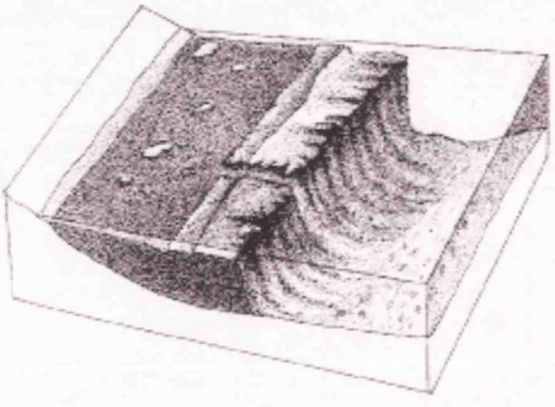


Figure 5.13: The fringing reef structures
Source: TDA (1998)

Figure 5.14: The flat fringing reef (left) and 'Sharm' (bay) found at irregular intervals in the southern part of the Red Sea (right).

5.8.4 Tourism development action plan

The Red Sea's sandy beaches, sunny climate, and peaceful sea have provided the natural conditions necessary to improve tourism. The result has been a remarkable growth in both tourism development and visits. In response to the market opportunities created by the area's attractive natural resources, new destinations such as El Gouna and Hurghada in the Red Sea region and Sharm El Sheik in the Sinai Peninsula were established. ACCE (2005) points out that this achievement in turn encourages the TDA to move forward within the equilibrium scenario of the Strategic Tourism Development Alternatives 2017 (see section 5.5.2). These destination resort communities have provided shore and marine-based resort facilities and amenities, which have witnessed strong tourism growth (TDA, 2001). In 1993, the Tourism Development Authority prepared regional and sector development plans for the Red Sea coast (it has not been updated) in order to realize the development potential of this region. These plans aimed to create new growth centres and new investment opportunities. The primary types of tourism development encouraged for these five sectors were beachfront resorts and tourist villages. The regional development plan of the Red Sea coast defined five primary sectors (see Table 5.5 and Figure 5.15).

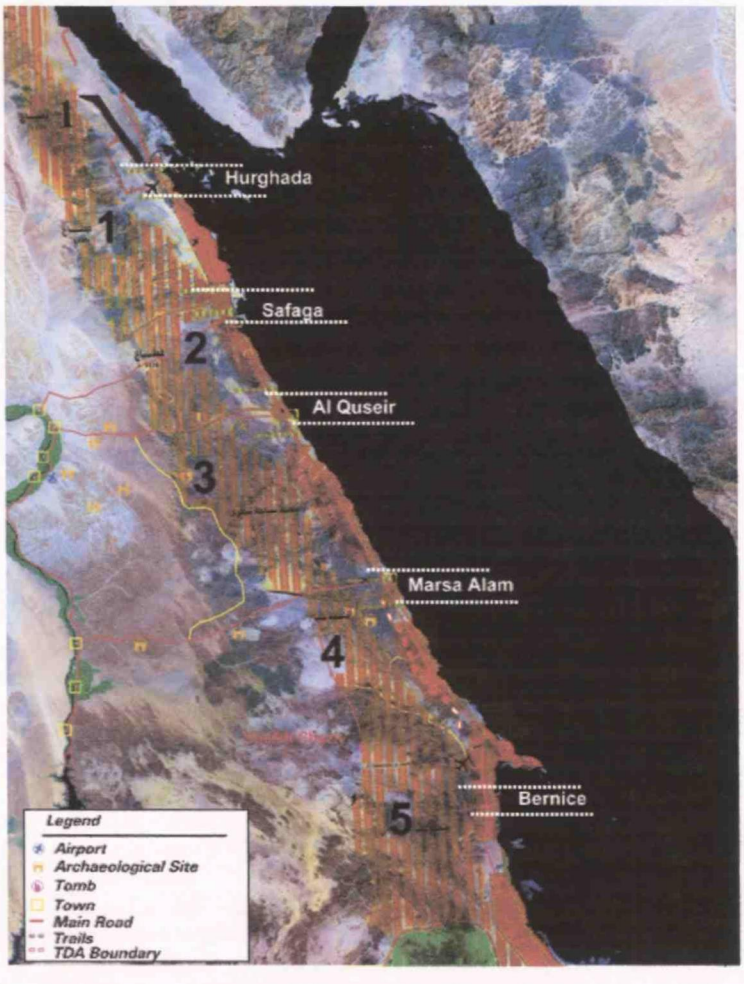


Figure 5.15: The Red Sea regional tourism development sectors
Source: TDA (2001)

Table 5.5: The main Red Sea tourism development sectors hotel capacity

	Number of hotel room capacity		
	Open	Under construction	Planed
Hurghada to Safaga	39.700	9.914	93.100
Safaga to Quseir	3.250	432	6.000
Quseir to Marsa Alam	5.856	6.221	53.700
Marsa Alam to Ras Banase	1.060	900	26.200
South of Ras Banase	--	--	80.000

Source: TDA (2005a)

The destination resort facilities in these regions not only diversified Egypt's tourism product, but also distributed tourists to more remote parts of the country (TDA, 2005a; MOT, 2003). The Red Sea governorate encouraged the first phase of tourism development in the northern part of the Red Sea region. A considerable effort was made to improve investment in the region by means of tourism development. Pioneer investors successfully established the northern part of the Red Sea coast as an international tourist destination, which in turn increased the region's share of international arrivals (see Figure 5.16) (MOT, 1997). Nevertheless Imam and Bashandy (2003) claim that the rapid growth of tourism development and natural resource utilization in the northern part of the Red Sea region has had a variety of negative environmental impacts.

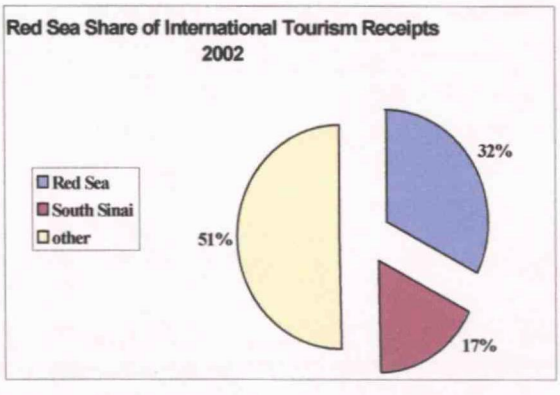


Figure 5.16: The Red Sea Share of 2002 International Tourism Arrivals
Source: TDA (2005a)

Similarly Salah El-Din (1994) argues that the tourism development pattern in Hurghada altered the coastline, damaged several coral communities and reduced the terrestrial habitats of many bird species. Figure 5.17 shows a large amount of man made construction inland at one of the integrated tourism development centres north of the Red Sea region. Dewidar (2002) claims that the environmental deterioration caused by this type of tourism development demonstrated a pattern of adverse resource use affecting both environmental quality and economic investment. Furthermore UNEP and the World

Bank (2000, p.8) spell out that "this growth in tourism activities will increase job opportunities and stimulate the economy; however, without proper planning there are also many negative effects. These include increased disposal and discharge of wastewaters, which degrade the amenities that attract tourism in the first place such as clean beaches and spectacular underwater reefs". Thus it became apparent that this type of development was not sustainable (TDA, 2005b; Pearson, 1999).

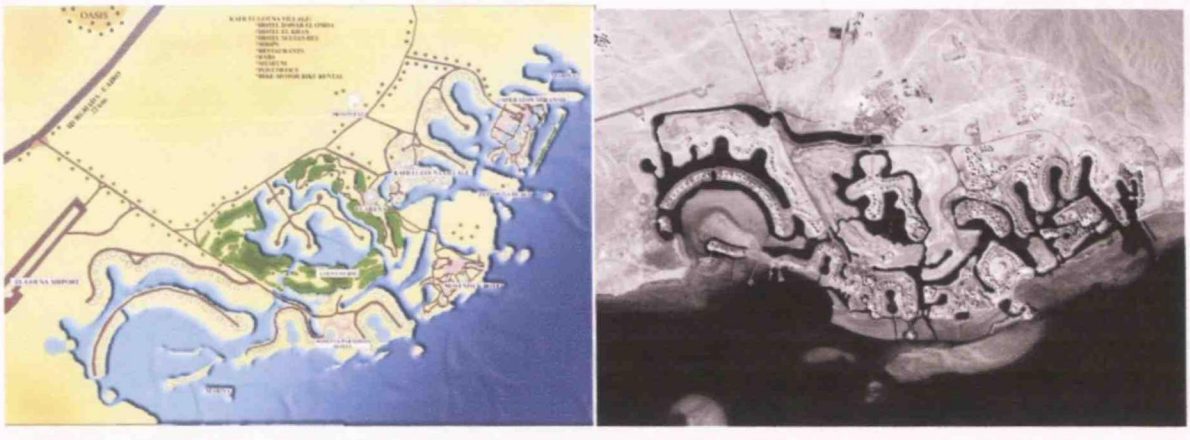


Figure 5.17: An integrated tourism development center north of the Red Sea
Source: MOT (2003)

In the late 1992, the TDA with RSG and EEAA prepared guidelines for identifying stakeholders' roles and guidance for tourism development investors. These guidelines are not meant as prescribed steps and procedures, but as guiding tools assisting in the application of sound planning, design, construction and operation measures, and in managing environmental assets (TDA and PMG, 1998) (see Annex B). These guidelines were mainly prepared to solve the environmental and economic problems of development occurring at the northern part of the Red Sea region and to avoid such problems for the proposed future tourism development in the southern part, where more than 100,000 hotel rooms are planned south of Marsa Alam and Ras Banase (see Table 5.5). In fact neither tourism development stakeholders' concerns nor the development guidelines reflect a specific role for developing local communities, particularly fishing villages, which are situated at promising tourism development destinations. Throwing more light on the local level will clarify this issue.

5.9 Study area south of Marsa Alam

The study area has been selected as it is a promising future tourism destination (see sections 5.9.1 and 5.9.2) and this area includes the majority of the rural population (see section 5.8.3). The study area extends from south of Marsa Alam (Latitude 33.5^0) to the Sudan border: a distance of around 400 km, specific settlements were chosen for the fieldwork survey (see section 6.4).

Figure 5.18: The study area

5.9.1 Historical background

The antiquities and rich cultural resources of the Red Sea region south of Mars Alam have the potential to enrich the educational and recreational value of the tourist experience. For thousands of years, this area was the vital center of trade routes linking Asia, Africa, and the Mediterranean Sea. Krzywinski and Piece (2001) argue that its extraordinary mineral wealth enriched numerous ancient empires. An integral part of this remarkable history is the culture of the indigenous tribal groups that have inhabited the region for millennia. There are at least four major caravan routes which served for conveying goods and communicating information between Red Sea ports and ancient cities along the Nile River, Sea trade was basen at the southern Red Sea ports of Berenice (and later) Naqari 35 km south of Marsa Alam for shipment across the Eastern Desert caravan routes to cities in the Nile Valley. Once cargo reached the Nile River, it could be floated downstream to the Mediterranean Sea. EEAA (2001) points out that these routes for the most part followed the course of the *wadis* and had watering points at regular intervals. After the coming of Islam, they were also used by Egyptian pilgrims traveling to Mecca. TDA (2005b) emphasizes that perhaps the most important caravan route was

the legendary Elephant Route of the Ptolemies. The Elephant Route crossed the Red Sea Mountains by way of Wadi El Gemal (65km south of Marsa Alam) and then continued to the largest fortified trading centre located along the route. This fortress city was named Apollonius by Alexander the Great and then later re-named Appollonia by the Romans (TDA, 2005b). The means of transport along these routes was originally donkeys. Camels, which became the primary mode of transport, were introduced to Egypt from Saudi Arabia. During the era of the Ptolemies, elephants were also transported along this route (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001, pp.51-55).

The natural resources of the area included great mineral wealth, which played a vital role in the economic strength of ancient empires. Mineral deposits, especially gold, copper, and gemstones, were known and exploited by Egyptians from pre-dynastic times (EEAA, 2001). It should be recognized that the ancient Egyptians were able to smelt gold and copper and to produce bronze in about 2500 BC. Artists used the green of malachite, the blue of turquoise, and the purple of amethyst to produce striking colours (TDA, 2005b). Between 2500 and 2000 BC, geological exploration for these valuable supplies resulted in the discovery of great quantities of mineral resources in Wadi El Gemal and Wadi Shokkett (75 km south of Marsa Alam). These areas were mined extensively for approximately two thousand years by the ancient Egyptians and then later by the Romans. Thus the precious metals and gemstones mined from this area

Figure 5.19: One of the fortresses at Wadi Shokkett

Figure 5.20: The mining houses at Wadi Shokkett

supported the development of ancient Upper and Middle Egyptian, Ptolemaic, Roman, Nubian and Coptic civilizations (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001).

Figure 5.21: One of the wall drawings at the area.

An important argument here is that mining operations resulted in the establishment of large towns where several hundred people in each town and surrounding settlements worked to construct and operate mines, extracted, and process great quantities of metals. Because the various empires and nomadic tribes frequently fought each other for control of the mineral wealth and trade routes located in this region, many fortifications were established to defend them (see Figures 5.19 and 5.20). The structural remains of numerous sentry posts and fortresses provide vivid evidence that the mining wealth of the region was secured by a significant military population located in the *wadis* (see section 5.8.4). The considerable abundance of pottery, stone sculptures, and techniques also provide ample evidence of the size of the human settlements that once thrived in this region (see Figure 5.21).

5.9.2 Environmental and geographical context

The area south of Marasa Alam is characterized by the close distance between the mountain and the sea in many places and by the presence of more than one series of hills and mountains parallel to the coastline and in many cases to each other. The vegetation in this part of the Eastern Desert is restricted mainly to depressions and *wadis*, where water is concentrated. During the rainy season the *wadis* are much more vegetated on the west side of the road, as the road acts as a barrier that prevents much of the received water from continuing further down stream. This combined with a backdrop of hills to the west provides a dramatic and attractive setting for the development of the area. However the natural irregular intervals of

bays, headlands or lagoons which are the main access points for sea-based activities for local communities as well as tourism development, are limited (see section 5.8.3). TDA (2005a) believes that only 27 natural access points are available south of Marsa Alam. These access points are highlighted in the tourism development plan as the integrated tourism development centres have been allocated around those access points. Not all these access points are adequate for local communities. They have settled around nine access points permanently, for instance Quala'an and Abou Ghason and also other places in line with their suitability (e.g. resources and climatic conditions). More information on local communities' settlements will be given in section 5.10.

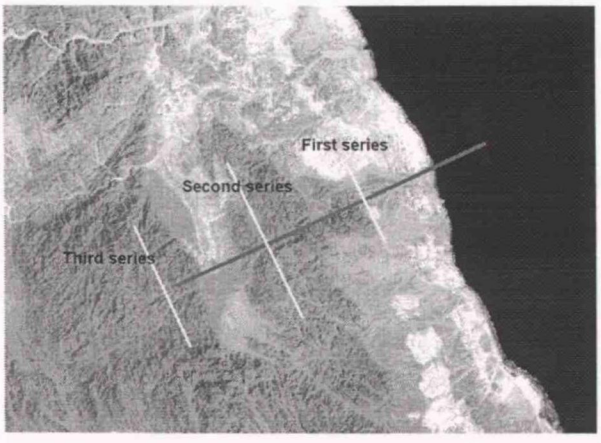


Figure 5.22: The geological sitting of the area
Source: Google Earth (2007)

- **Climatic condition and natural resources**

South of Marsa Alam area lies an area that represents one of the greatest global extremes of hot and arid conditions with scarce rainfall. Generally, the year is divided into cooler and hotter seasons: the cooler season extends from mid-October to mid-April with the rest of the year being hot. Table 5.6 sets out the meteorological information based on data compiled over a ten year period at the Ras Banase meteorological station (at the center of the study area) which shows that the region is nearly completely without rain, receiving only odd showers, sometimes at intervals of several years (RSG, 2005). These showers can sometimes amount to only a millimetre or two of rainfall. Occasionally; however, heavy rains fall over a short period and such rains can cause flash floods. Average rainfall totals 17.4 millimetres per year, with November receiving the greatest amount (13 millimetres) (Ras Banase Station, 2000).

The study area possesses a considerable variety of natural resources: EEAA (2001) emphasizes that several species recorded at the area are listed on the IUCN red list for threatened species. A total of 28 reptile species and around 102 bird species besides 59

Table 5.6: Meteorological Parameters in Ras Banase Station

Parameters	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Mean
Maximum temperature	24.8	26.1	28.6	32	35	38.4	38.3	38.8	37.2	34.1	26.1	26.1	32.4
Minimum temperature	12.4	12.5	15	18.1	21.1	24.2	24.3	25.1	24.2	20.7	14.1	14.1	19.1
Daily mean temperature	18.3	19.3	19.3	28.4	28.4	31.6	31.8	32.1	30.9	27	19.7	19.7	25.5
Relative humidity	54	51	45	39	32	28	34	36	34	49	59	57	43
Evaporation (mm)	9.3	10.4	13.1	16.6	21.7	28	23.3	22.5	22.7	15.3	10.1	8.7	16.8
Rainfall (mm)	-	0.1	0.6	1.4	1.8	-	-	-	-	0.3	13	0.2	1.45

Source: Ras Banase Station (2000)

flowering plant species can be found in addition to salt marshes and mangrove swamps with more than 65 species of fish, surrounded by great diversity of corals reefs with 35 species of hard and soft corals.

5.9.3 Tourism Context

In 1997, the TDA designated a number of areas south of Marsa Alam as integrated tourism development centres (IDCs) (including south of Ras Banase) and prepared development plans for these centres (see Figure 5.23). According to the TDA (2005a) 235 projects (tourism facilities, hotels and resorts) have been approved to investors in five IDCs south of Marsa Alam; however officially less than 30% of these are operating or under construction (see section 8.2.4). The TDA is dedicated to most of these projects allocated between 1998 and 2000. The area specializes in beach holidays and in diving holidays, and has generated a volume that now far surpasses cultural tourism and business tourism and so it has becomes Egypt's primary tourism destination. A number of tourism facilities have been established that are linked to this approach to tourism such as safaris, lodges, and sites for camel riding and bird watching (MOT, 2003). In view of the fact that the challenge for TDA is how to introduce a development plan that respects and protect the natural assets of the Red Sea region and satisfies the development requirements of Egypt, a considerable number of studies have been produced (see section 5.8.4 and Annex B). For instance, in 1998, the TDA, in cooperation with the EEAA and

the RSG, prepared a study of Red Sea coastal and marine resources and a management plan funded by the World Bank's Global Environmental Facility (GEF). This study aimed to develop the full tourist potential of this area with new tourism activities based on environmentally sound management practices (MOT, 1998). Furthermore between 1999 and 2006 further studies were made by local and international consultants supervised by MOT, which aimed to develop best practices for sustainable tourism; introduce and implement environmental management systems; enhance environmental impact assessment and monitoring processes; support and build environmental management information systems; develop a strategy for environmentally sensitive land use zoning and increase awareness of sustainable tourism concepts (Imam and Bashandy, 2003).

Figure 5.23: Major tourism development centres at the study area.
Source: TDA (1998)

5.9.4 Demographic characteristics

The area south of Marsa Alam area is considered as the homeland of indigenous populations with ethnic and cultural roots. These are composed of the following groups:

- Ababda
- Bisharin

- Rashaayda
- Egyptians of the Nile Valley

The Beja (made up of the Ababda and Bisharin, speaking a dialect of Beja language) are the descendants of the Medja who have been living in the Red Sea region for more then 4000 years (Dar el Mareef, 1982). Bejas were originally pastoral nomads that depend economically on animal husbandry. TDA (2005a) argues that about 63.000 Beja living in Egypt nowadays are native Africans and see the Sudanese as their closest relatives. Krzywinski and Piece (2001) point out two main subgroups of the Beja live in Egypt. The Rashayda make up a group of pastoral Arabs who migrated during the 19th century: they are not linked to the Beja (Issa, 1999). They settled in Sudan, but are also found in the southern part of the Egyptian Eastern Desert particularly along the Red Sea coast. At least a fifth of the population of the area were originally farmers and traders and have only come to the area during the last 50 years (TDA, 2005a; RSG, 2005). The interaction between different groups has formed the existing community in the area and they live together in peace and harmony.

- **Ababda**

The Ababda live north of the Sudanese-Egyptian border that extends from Upper Egypt to the Red Sea. They have common ethnic, cultural and linguistic roots with the Bisharin and share many traditions, customs and ways of life. The Ababda most probably are the descendants of native people who were settled in the area before the Islamic conquest of the Sudan around 850 AD (Dar el Mareef, 1982). According to Issa (1999, p.85) the Ababda, unlike the true Arabs do not live in tents, but build huts with hurdles or mats they simply leave behind when they move on, building new ones at the next place. They are great traders and visit far away districts. Krzywinski and Piece (2001) state that they settle in two or three family enclosures near a source of water. The Ababda have an expert technical knowledge of the

Figure 5.24: Hage Mansour one of Ababda leaders.

needs and the care of animals. Their chief means of transportation is the camel and their chief foods are milk and corn (RSG, 2005; EEAA, 2001; Issa, 1999). "As a result of their life in the desert the Ababda have developed certain culture features which are common to all nomad people: indifference toward material things, hospitality, and respect for nature, self-sufficiency and tribal solidarity" (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). After the evacuation of Nubia and construction of the High Dam a considerable number of people from Upper Egypt moved in and settled the area (TDA, 2005a). The central camel market of the area at Shalateen makes it the key source of income for the local population, thus many Ababdas started to settle in the area surrounding and started to focus their economic life on trading.

- **Bisharin**

The Bisharin living in the study area have expended from in Jebel Elba, 350 km south of Marsa Alam. According to EEAA (2001) the Bisharin are divided into two principal divisions, the Um Ali and the Um Nagi. Like the Ababda, the Bisharin social and economic life centres on livestock. Camel, sheep and goats form the basis of their subsistence and define their wealth and social status (Issa, 1999, p. 44). Krzywinski and Piece (2001) argue that the Bisharins are the possessors of the most famous Beja breed of camels and very few of the Bisharins do any cultivation; furthermore they do not originally eat fish and used in the past to look down upon those who practice fishing. The Bisharin herdsmen used to pasture their livestock on the Nubian shorelines between June and October. However, after the building of the High Dam and the formation of Lake Nasser, virtually all the summer resources that were used by them disappeared and they were forced to retreat to the permanent water sources in the Eastern Desert and some have moved to the Sudan (TDA, 2005b). Other traditional economic activities of the Bisharin include the production and trade of charcoal and the collection and sale of medicinal herbs (Issa, 1999).

Figure 5.25: Group of Bisharin at deep-range

- **Rashaayda**

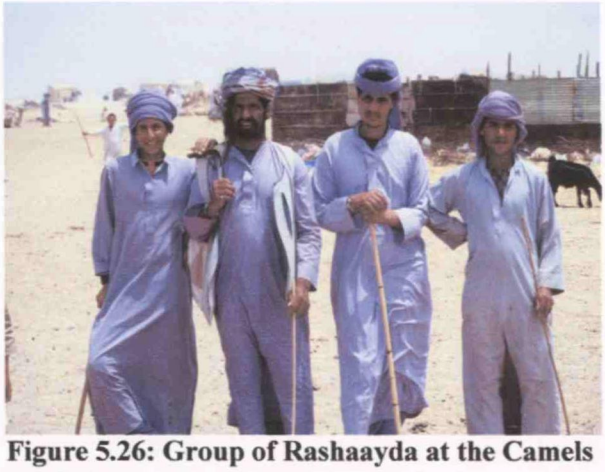


Figure 5.26: Group of Rashaayda at the Camels market

Many sources refer to the Rashaayda as "gypsies", who are recent immigrants coming from Saudi Arabia in1846 (Dar el Mareef, 1982). They settled amongst the Beja in Eastern Sudan, and quickly became engaged in the profitable camel trade in those areas that they have been able to control because of the lack of interest by the Beja in this activity (TDA, 2005b). Some researchers argue that the Rashaayda established some relations with their nomadic neighbours. However, they are distinguished from the other ethnic groups by their costume and use of the Arabic language (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001; Issa, 1999). They wear a turban and an indigo-blue *galabeia*. Unlike the Bisharins and Ababdas, the Rashada speak a dialect of Arabic that has many features in common with the Arabic spoken in northwest Arabia and they traditionally live in tents made of livestock hair (EEAA, 2001).

- **Egyptians**

Egyptians from the Nile valley have lived in the Southern Red Sea region since the start of modern commercial mining activities in 1915. The first Egyptians who moved to the Red Sea worked for the Geological Survey Authority, the Phosphate Company and in Locusts Monitoring Units (Sultan, 1992). When Egypt tried to confirm its control over the southern Red Sea region during the 1990s a second influx occurred of Egyptians working in various governmental bodies, in addition to some traders. According to TDA (2005b) the majority of the new settlers were men from Upper Egypt, who chose to move in order to improve their economic conditions, while others were forced to move to this remote place as a kind of punishment for their bad conduct. Many of these settlers brought their families with them and have in the meantime settled permanently in the area (Sultan, 1992). Recently, a third migration influx took place which is linked to the tourism development of the area and consists mostly of Egyptians from the Nile Valley and Delta who came to work in the newly established hotels. These migrants are usually

single men; staying in the area for the duration of their work and traveling frequently back to their hometowns (TDA, 2005a; EEAA, 2001).

5.10 Case study alternatives

For planning purposes the RSG (UPA, 2000, p.35) divided the population in the southern part of the Red Sea region into people living in: urban areas or large settlements (cities); semi-urban areas which are medium settlements and others living in 'rural areas' in small settlements such as fishing villages or around well heads (see Table 5.7 and 5.8).

Table 5.7: Numbers of population in the main cities south of the Red Sea

	Number of inhabitants	% from the total of the Red Sea region inhabitants
Marsa Alam	3380	2.17
Shalateen	9950	6.39
Halaybe	1670	1.07

Source: adopted from RSG, 2005 and UPA 2000

Marsa Alam witnessed rapid development until 1999 and a considerable number of migrants moved in from the Nile valley because of the tourism development boom, which in turn increased the availability of services and changed the pattern of land use (see section 5.8.2) (TDA, 2005a). The composition of inhabitants in the area varies between Marsa Alam and the other settlements at the southern part of the Red Sea region where the local community still possesses their unique character as Ababda or Bisharia or even Rashaayda (UPA, 2000). The area south of the Red Sea region suffers lack of public services, facilities and infrastructure, as - in the settlements of Shalateen, Baranic, Hamata, Halaybe and Abou Ghosun.

Table 5.8: Settlements-type in the southern part of the Red Sea region

	Coastal settlements			Deep-range settlements
	Urban areas (large settlements)	Semi-urban areas (Medium settlements)	Rural areas (Small settlements)	
Numbers	2	4	5	32
Example of settlements	Marasa Alam and Shalateen	Baranic, Hamata, Halaybe and Abou Ghosun	Quala'an, Om El abbess and Manazek	Sokkete, Wadi Quala'an, Wadi Abou Ghosun

Source: RSG (2005)

Although there are no accurate statistics linked to the population in medium and small settlements TDA (2005b) points out that a considerable number of inhabitants live in around 43 scattered settlements along the coast and in the deep-range (see table 5.8); this includes small groups of fishermen and pastoralists (JICA and TDA, 1999). Two settlements are more than 5000 inhabitants; four settlements are between 1000 and 5000 inhabitants and are formal settlements (see section 5.8.2) and the rest are small settlements. As stated earlier, nine of these settlements are in the coastal area (see section 5.9.2) and the rest are located in strategic locations that serve their needs, such as near wells or around mining locations. In fact it is commonly the case that the local communities in these small groups belong to just one family, such as Um Elabs, Sokkete and Elshazly, which are scattered in the deep-range and, occasionally at the coastal zone. In the past these people manufactured all the items for their everyday life themselves: pots and dishes and simple tools made of stone and wood, baskets woven from the roots of desert plants, harnesses and saddles for their camels. They used to migrate at certain times of the year depending on grazing conditions. In winter, when there is some precipitation, they migrate deeper into the desert, and during the hot and dry summer time they seek refuge around secure water sources (see Figure 5.27).

Figure 5.27: Wells are considered as strategic spots at the desert

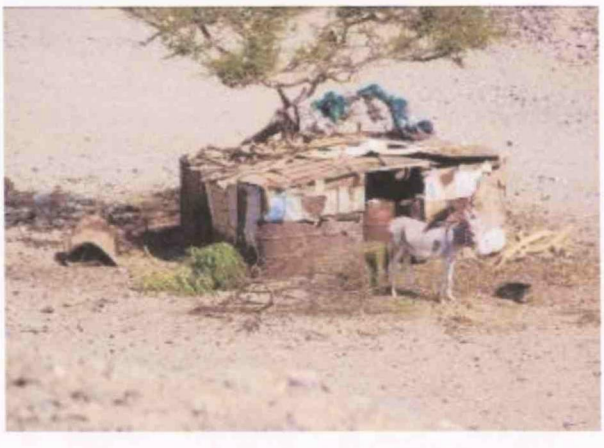


Figure 5.28: Local community wooden shelters

Small settlements such as Quala'an and El shikh Maleek contain homogenous groups of people and sometimes in the deep-range, These settlements also are frequently made up

from just one family. However the medium-sized semi-urban settlements such as Abou Ghason, and El shikh El Shazly contain several families. A considerable number of settlements are classified as 'slums' as the government categorized these as 'informal' areas. According to the JICA and TDA (1999) in 1998 the southern part of the Red Sea possessed a considerable number of informal settlements in the deep-range with approximately 15.000 persons live in them (see section 7.5). Local communities in these settlements organize themselves spatially according to family (i.e. build their houses next to each other). The size of these groups can vary from a handful of people close in kin to several hundred making up a tribe (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). The tribe is a community of equals headed by a sheikh, a position that is traditional, passing from father to son. People are divided into social classes, depending on ancestry and profession.

5.11 Summary

This chapter has presented essential background on the development of Egypt and the context of tourism development. Egypt has long been the premier tourism destination in the Middle East. The country has witnessed stable tourism development from the first half of the 20th century - excluding periods during the World War II and the Free Officer revolution up to the war in 1973. The tourism industry is considered to be a critical economic sector for Egypt and the country possesses a significant market share both within the regional and global level as well. The new tourism destinations along the Red Sea coast have been planned so as to bring about a transformation of Egypt's undeveloped area into world-class tourism destinations by means of an aggressive tourism development plan which aims to double the number of hotel rooms within 10 years. Study of the institutional framework at ministerial level and at local level has identified the tourism development stakeholders. Conflicts among tourism development stakeholders such as TDA, MOT, EEAA and RSG have been described and it is concluded that there are few roles taken by civil society and NGOs in the development areas due to the nature of these destinations: they are remote and thinly populated. The literature review identifies no specific role for local communities, particularly small rural

villages, which are situated at tourism development destinations in the coastal area and deep-ranges. There is no debate about local community issues and interests and investigation of satisfaction with tourism is not reflected in national or local level priorities.

The following aspects of the area have been explored: regional aspects in terms of the Red Sea region's population, administration and subdivision, the environmental features and the tourism development action plan. Tourism development planning and decision-making in the country are often described as top-down. At the same time however financial crisis has forced the Egyptian government to sacrifice long-term sustainability for the sake of quick, and desperately needed foreign exchange. National tourism planning must be developed and managed in a controlled, integrated and sustainable manner, based on sound planning. There may be risks involved, primarily the effects of development on natural habitat and the indigenous populations. By harnessing the unique natural resources, which have lain inaccessible to the world for millennia, tourism risks damaging pristine habitats and landscapes, and the unique human societies that have developed in close association.

The Red Sea region south of Marsa Alam has been shown to be a land of extreme contrasts. Most notably, this is one of the world's most arid regions. High mountain peaks offer stark contrasts to the extensive coastal plains at the edge of the Red Sea. The abundance of water and marine life in the Red Sea region contrasts sharply with the hyper-aridity of the Eastern Desert and the scarcity of biological species there. The topography is a maze of mountains, canyon lands, escarpments, *wadis*, and oases. Those animals that do inhabit the Eastern Desert are exceedingly rare species and therefore offer considerable attraction to tourists. The area's main historical and environmental features and the local communities' settlement pattern have been elucidated, along with demographic characteristics, in order to explore the characteristics of the case study areas.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

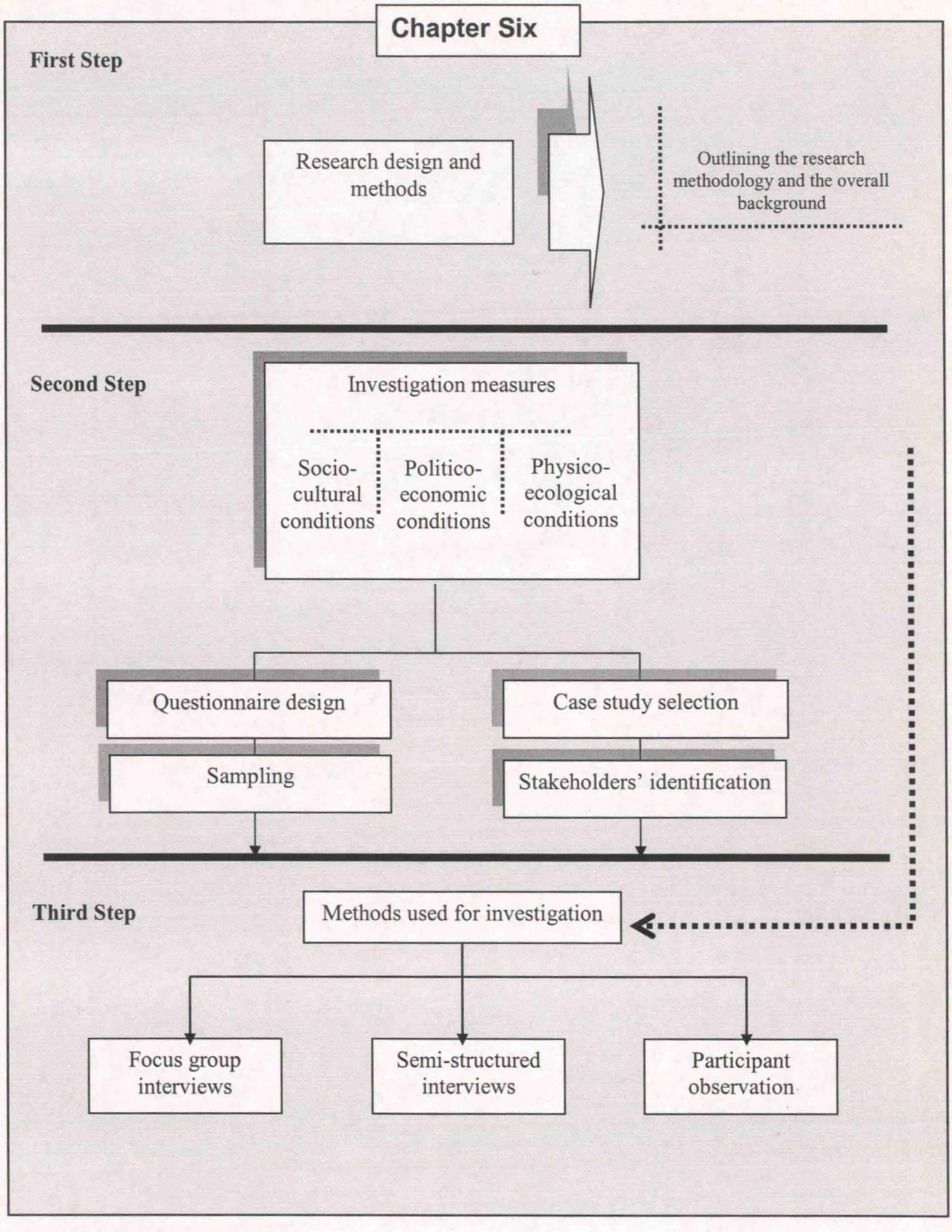


Figure 6.1: Chapter Six structure

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology; it is divided into three parts (see Figure 6.1). The **first** part clarifies the way that the research is designed and outlines steps for the validation of the research procedures and the rationale behind each step. The **second** part presents measures and procedures used for the investigation the socio-cultural, politico-economic and physico-ecological conditions. These conditions are taken to be the foundation for establishing the techniques to be used in the study fieldwork (section 6.3). Criteria used for the selection of the case studies possess particular characteristics such as the size of the settlements investigated, the number of inhabitants, and locations in relation to tourism development (section 6.4). The identification of tourism development stakeholders, questionnaire design and sampling techniques are also explored. The literature review shows that each stakeholder group has a particular role to play therefore these roles are highlighted for each group. Consequently the sampling techniques are modified so as to match each group of stakeholders. Moreover, in the light of the research question and the investigation measures, the areas explored are categorized and the stakeholders' interests and responsibilities are set out, then are used for designing the questionnaires (sections 6.5 and 6.6). Then **third** part of the chapter (section 6.8) outlines the methods used for investigation and explains the different qualitative methods used in the fieldwork survey. Focus group discussions, semi-structured interviews and observations are the main methods used in the survey in addition to analysis of existing planning and development documents to further refine the research. Finally, the chapter outlines the fieldwork, indicating duration, places, likely strengths and weaknesses of the approach, and summarizes the methods used to manage the fieldwork findings.

6.2 Overview of research methodology

In accordance with the purpose of the research, different methods are used to provide an understanding of the complexity of the relationship of local communities with tourism development and the setting of the southern part of the Red Sea region. Therefore the

research is divided into four main parts, the literature review; the research design and method; the fieldwork findings and analyses; and finally, the research recommendations, conclusions and discussion (see Figure 1.2). Chapters two, three and four have presented the literature review. The first step **(A)** was to investigate theoretical approaches to STD linked to local communities' development which is divided into: identification of tourism, development, integrated development, and sustainable tourism planning in addition to exploring the interaction between tourism and other aspects. Furthermore in **(B),** techniques and measures such as LAC and TCC are examined; these may help control tourism development in terms of sustainability. Then in **(C),** the study analyzes in depth the various sustainable tourism development approaches linked to local communities' participation and development. Furthermore the last part of the literature review presents an evaluation of negative and positive tourism development cases as practical and realistic criteria may influence the research. It takes into consideration the corresponding criteria for selection of case studies in the southern part of the Red Sea region in terms of the physico–ecological, socio-demographic and politico-economic conditions. These three parts provide the background for the criteria and techniques to develop controlled tourism schemes linked to community development and to improve community participation.This outlines the research content and methodology; however more details are given below.

The first part of the literature review (Chapter Two) has provided an outline for the STD and confirmed the importance of considering the values of cultural uniqueness and the natural environment. In the light of identifying the tourism development conceptual boundaries and the economic, social, cultural and political effects of STD linked to community development, main principles were explored, grouped as relating to: politico-economic, physico-ecological and socio-cultural issues. Tactics and strategies that generate net benefits for local communities were investigated in Chapter Three in addition to examine techniques that minimize the development impact and control the development process. Thus the second step of the literature review presented significant interpretation for TCC and LAC as planning procedures, which lead to exegesis of the guiding principles for the community development. Particular approaches linked to local

communities' development were investigated that take into consideration the economic benefits, social, environmental, cultural costs and profits of tourism. Community-oriented tourism development strategies such as community-based ecotourism and pro-poor tourism were discussed in Chapter Three, as it recognized that these provide direct and indirect income for local communities and conserve potential tourism resources. These in turn outline CBT development planning process issues, tactics and management techniques.

In view of the fact that exploring the positive and the negative features of CBT experiences may provide practical techniques to enhance the research techniques used for local communities' participation, the next step of the literature review (Chapter Four) analysed and discussed in depth practical experience in the light of harmonizing each case with the study area at the southern part of the Red Sea region. A number of measures to assess the development stages, the management procedures and the implementation under community control were examined. Important statistics that could influence the development of local communities were obtained which ought to be reflected in the STD techniques for local community development and participation.

The second part of the research (Chapter Five) has introduced the case studies and the research design and method. It has considered the essential background for the case study at the southern part of the Red Sea region at the national, regional and local level. This has provided firstly, an understanding of the current situation of tourism development, the tourism industry profile and strategic plan in addition to identifying the development stakeholders. Secondly it has explored the regional circumstances, the tourism development resources and the problems that hinder sustainable development. Finally, it has investigated the current tourism development system, and has classified the local communities in the area.

In the light of the previous steps Chapter Six discusses the research methodologies which are outlined; the area issues and concerns for identifying criteria for promoting local communities' participation are explored and the investigation measures are designed (see

section 6.3). Selection criteria for the case studies plus the identification of stakeholders and methods used for investigation are selected (see sections 6.4 and 6.5). Investigation procedures are selected to fulfill the research aims including review and analysis of the existing data. Nevertheless qualitative methods are used for fieldwork investigation, such as focus group discussion, semi-structured interviews and participant observation methods. The sampling selection techniques are based in theoretical and saturation sampling which are used according to the stakeholder groups (see section 6.7).

Chapters Seven and Eight - the third part of the research which follows discusses the fieldwork findings and analysis. Within the study area there are large, medium, and small size settlements at the coastal sites, which are urban, semi urban areas and rural areas respectively. Other extended families that live in *wadis* needed to be investigated in addition to formal and informal stakeholders. The analysis and research findings are divided into two parts; firstly, the background of the case studies is outlined using a cross section of respondents that covers all categories according to reliable criteria for selecting respondents and multiple sources of data. The selection of the interviewees in the inland areas *(wadis)* is done systematically since their inhabitants are very few in numbers. However, the selection of the interviewees in the coastal settlements is done randomly because of the large numbers of inhabitants. Several techniques identified from the literature review are applied at this stage. Key informants include various groups, for instance fishermen, women and elderly people from the communities, as well as non-local residents, such as managers of public and private enterprises, in addition to decision makers, and private sector and tourism development facilitators such as consultants and NGOs. Semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions with groups of local people, observation of living conditions and dynamics, draw together the essential background needed for understanding local people's circumstances (Chapter Seven).

Secondly, in the light of the background obtained from the previous chapter, a set of analysis methods are used in line with the needs of the investigation. This part presents in-depth analysis, evaluation and critical determination of relationships between local communities, the nearby tourism development and stakeholders. Qualitative techniques are applied to all the stakeholders including local communities in order to ascertain the

impact of tourism development in the area; this helps to crosscheck the actual impacts and the perceived impacts within the local community. Nevertheless, statistics linked to local people's age, sex, level of education, work force and income which have been obtained from official sources are analyzed using quantitative techniques. This part of the research presents an understanding of local communities' levels of satisfaction with tourism development near to their homes, settlements' conditions, the potential of local communities, social mechanisms, the current interaction between local communities and tourism development and problems that hinder local community integration. Furthermore it provides the fundamental essential statistics which underpin the next part of the research (Chapter Eight).

Subsequently the last part of the research presents an evaluation and critical determination of relationships between findings from earlier parts. This evaluates sustainable tourism development comparing the findings of the literature review and the issues identified from fieldwork findings. Accordingly the actual conditions of local communities, tourism development and stakeholders' roles are assessed in the light of STD linked to local communities' promotion concepts and ideas. The conflicts between local people and tourism development are examined in view of local communities' living condition, traditions and norms. Local people's opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses are explored leading to conclusions about how integration will affect local people and the tourism industry under the umbrella of sustainable tourism development Finally, by means of identifying characteristics of sustainable tourism development for local communities in the light of the findings of the research question, specific criteria for enhancing quality of life within local communities and also promote their participation in development are explored. An indicative framework for promoting local communities is identified and recommendations are made for CBT development in the Red Sea region (see Annex K). In addition a methodology is identified together with a sequence for sustainable tourism development closely linked to local people. Recommendations are made which illustrate how future tourism plans can achieve the overall aim of sustainable development and environmental management for local benefits. The final conclusion and discussion reviews and evaluates the research findings; discusses and assesses the

research hypotheses; puts forward recommendations for future steps; and discusses the research in terms of the original question (Chapters Nine).

6.3 Research Measures

Since the main research objective is to assess how suitable tourism development could be in the Red Sea Region and to improve community participation, it is essential to clarify the existing situation faced by the community and its future potential. A number of subjects were investigated, for instance major issues in the area and concerns including how to identify stakeholders: the nature of national, regional and local relationships; the current situation of tourism development; local communities' situations in terms of the physical, social, economical and political dimensions. According to the literature review (see sections 3.2 and 3.3) particular actions need to be taken into consideration when designing investigation measures in order to identify the validity of the existing development approach. These actions include, for instance, exploring techniques that assess the interaction between local communities and tourism; problems that hinder sustainability and the current role of participation of local communities in tourism development. Yet as one source may not provide all data required, multiple sources of validation are considered essential to achieve the advantage "triangulation" of evidence. These measures are formulated in the light of the research objectives and based on literature review. Therefore in the light of future objectives and the community potential that might be explored from the fieldwork a CBT strategy should be identified and this is proposed as a key building block for sustainable tourism development via community participation. The measures investigated include the following components:

a) Measures linked to the socio-cultural condition:

Community participation in tourism:

- Local communities' acceptance of current level of tourism development, as might be reflected in their attitudes and the issues of dissatisfaction (see sections 2.5.3, 2.6.3 and 4.4.3).

- Socio-cultural effects of tourism development including community behaviour, social benefits, changes in life styles and its contribution to sustain cultural assets (see sections 3.2, 3.3 and 4.3).

Characteristics of local communities:

- Social factors including the gender equity; family wellbeing and customary gender roles (see sections 4.3.2 and 5.9)
- Local activities related to the nearby tourism development such as handicrafts production and assessing its impact on local communities in terms of aspects of culture aspects such as gender division of labor, quality of life and gender segregation problems resulting from tourism (see sections 3.7.2, 4.3.1 and 4.4).

Identifying the welfare of host communities:

- Identifying community involvement and awareness which are implied by the reliability of contact with development information about the surrounding area and the local communities' empowerment potential (see sections 4.2 and 4.4).

Tourism impact due to changes in local communities' quality of life:

- Positive and negative tourism impacts on local communities, which could be measured by identifying for example the percentage of people educated (see sections 2.6.3, 4.4).

b) Measures linked to the politico-economic condition:

Legal Aspects:

- Land ownership in village and in *wadis*, local treatment of social issues, traditional law, local communities' leaders and key persons and the current relation between the government and local communities (see sections 2.6.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 5.9).

Employment:

- The number and the quality of jobs provided by the tourism sector and its revenue and local employment opportunities (see sections 3.7 and 4.4.2).

Local communities' empowerment:

- Local economic alternatives; access to the traditional sources of income, community integration with development plans; the availability of additional income resource beside tourism and equity for women in terms of access to land, credit and income opportunities. Tourism and poverty alleviation (see sections 3.5, 4.2 and 5.8)

- Access by local residents to key assets such as beaches and bays which indicates the reliability of access to important sites and the level of local satisfaction with this and current economic barriers (see section 4.2).

Tourism roles:

- Tourism revenue; potential of small and micro enterprises; tourism's contribution to local communities' incomes (see sections 3.7 and 4.3).
- Local communities' business viability; the quality of the products and its marketing potential existing cooperation over tourism facilities (see section 4.2.3).

Tourism seasonality:

- Number of tourists per season; peak and shoulder seasons; tourism local activities and tourism infrastructure (see sections 2.6, 4.4.2 and 5.9)

c) Measures linked to physico-ecological condition:

Tourism impact:

- Physico-ecological effects of tourism development including changes in community activities and the surrounding land use (see sections 2.5.3, 2.6 and 4.3.4).
- The built environment and the local circumstances which might be reflected in the infrastructure, building materials and the building condition (see sections 3.7 and 4.4).
- Exploration of the efficiency of the public and basic services by understanding how local communities interact with these services and investigate their actual needs (see section 4.4.3).

Participation in planning process:

- Assess local communities' communication with other stakeholders
- Explore local communities' skills; identify the existing management system; recognize local communities' relationships with the nearby development linked to the surrounding nature environment (see sections 4.2 and 5.8).

Mobilization of community resources:

- Local communities' knowledge with the surrounding environment; local communities' contribution to natural resources, resources required for tourism development (see section 3.5).

- To understanding local communities' attitudes towards natural resources, and to explore how nature can be affected by local communities in the light of the nearby tourism development (see sections 2.5, 3.5 and 4.2).

Subsequently these measures and factors are used as the main components for designing and guiding the qualitative methods that are applied in the fieldwork survey (see section 6.5).

6.4 Selection of case studies

Tourism development impact upon the area varies according to the characteristics of the industry on the one hand (see section 2.7) and the local community characteristics which are variable in the southern part of the Red Sea region on the other hand. Consequently a number of criteria are chosen based on the socio-economic conditions of the local community including its population size, its economic basis, the urban circumstances and the cultural traditions, along with the type of attractions on offer and the type and rapidity of tourism development (see section 5.9). For this reason the selected case studies cover the diversity of the local communities' settlements. Table 6.1 shows the criteria for the selection of case studies. Accordingly three cases are chosen as examples, which cover the main settlement characteristics of the area. Three out of

Table 6.1: The selected factors which influenced case study selection

Components of the issue		
	Number of inhabitants	Small
		Medium
		Large
	Economic activities	Pastoral
		Fishermen
		Combine
	Community homogeneity	Single identity
		Mixed identity
	Community identification	Rural
		Urban
	The settlement size	Small
		Medium
		Large
	Services and infrastructure	Sufficient
		Insufficient
	Urban pattern	Rural
		Semi-urban
		Urban
	Accessibility	Major city
		Protected area
		Tourism destination
	Natural characteristics	Coastal
		Deep-range
	Natural resources	Grass and pasture
		Fish
		Minerals
		Mixed
	Tourism activities	Sea activities
		Safari
		Community

Source: The author (2007)

eleven coastal settlements (two large settlements, four medium settlements and five small settlements) (see section 5.10) and further cases representing deep-range communities were investigated. The coastal zone settlements are Quala'an, Abou Ghosun and Shalateen; they also illustrate rural, semi-urban and urban settlements respectively. In addition other deep-range sites were investigated; these are linked geographically to the chosen coastal settlements, which taken place in wadi Quala'an, wadi Abou Ghosun and wadi Kabb (see section 6.7). The District of Marsa Alam is divided into three administrative units: Marsa Alam City Unit, Sheikh el Shazli Village Unit and Berenice Village Unit which Quala'an and Abou Ghosun settlements belong to. However, Shalateen is considered as one of the south Red Sea cities and belongs to Halayb District. Quala'an is a small fishing rural settlement located at one of the exceptional bays 75 km south of Marsa Alam. It possesses similar economic activities with a homogenous community identity. Abou Ghosun is a semi-urban settlement, 45 km south of Marsa Alam. It illustrates medium settlement and possesses mixed groups of local people. Shalateen represents a more urban settlement with some services and infrastructure, 300 km south of Marsa Alam and it illustrates a large settlement. In contrast the deep-range settlements represent rural communities where small numbers of inhabitants frequently belong to one family (see figure 6.2).

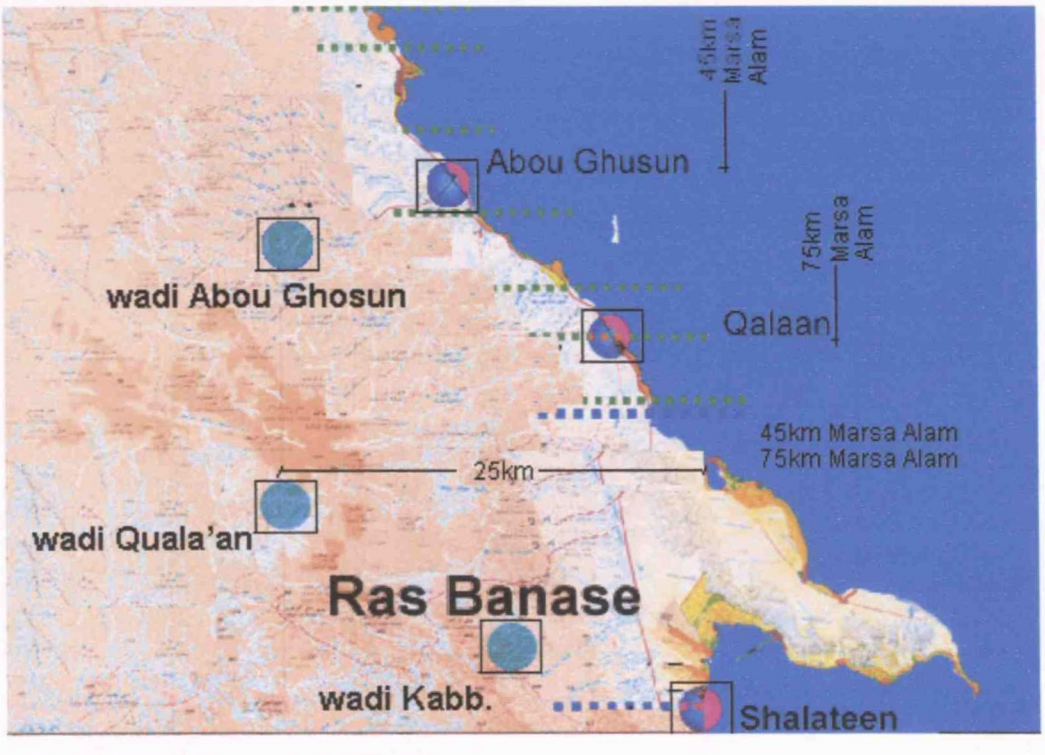


Figure 6.2: The case study location
Source: The author (2008)

6.5 Identifying stakeholder types

As a number of stakeholders with different interests were to be investigated (see section 5.6), divided into four main groups, different qualitative investigation methods were applied to each group to achieve positive responses from the participants (see section 6.9). The main stakeholder groups were defined as follows:

- Stakeholder Group (A): Members of the local community

Focus group discussions were held in each settlement, as this was more convenient for local communities, particularly at the coastal settlements. The numbers of respondents in each group were between 4 to 12 respondents, depending on the size of the settlement. Nevertheless semi-structured interviews were also held with key informants from various groups such as fishermen, women and older people from each of the three case study areas. Potential male interviewees in the coastal village settlements were chosen randomly. However, since Bedouin women are considered as hard to contact, a woman from the Tourism Development Authority volunteered to provide assistance and she discussed the issues with the Bedouin women on the researcher's behalf. Predetermined interviews were applied to the local community in the deep-range as they are scattered in *wadis* usually as separate families.

Table 6.2: Local communities investigated

Group (a) Local communities	Coastal settlements			Deep-range		
	Quala'an	Abou Ghosun	Shalateen	wadi Quala'an,	wadi Abou Ghosun	wadi Kabb.

Source: Survey (2007)

- Stakeholder Group (B): The private sector

Hotel and facilities owners, managers and operators were investigated via semi-structured interviews, which took place both in Cairo and at the Red Sea region.

Table 6.3: Tourism development stakeholders (group B)

Group (B) Private Sector	Owners	Managers	Tour-operators

Source: Survey (2007)

- Stakeholder Group (C): Decision-makers

Semi-structured interviews with officials from TDA, RSG and EEAA were held in Cairo and at the Red Sea region.

Table 6.4: Summary of the investigated tourism development stakeholders (group C)

Group (C) Decision Makers	Tourism Development Authority	Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency	Red Sea Governorate

Source: Survey (2007)

Stakeholder Group (D): Tourism development facilitators

Although civil society and NGOs actual activities are quite limited in the southern part of the Red Sea region (see section 5.6.5), staff of NGOs were interviewed in addition to tourism development consultants working for the government or for the private sector that have interests in the area; they are linked to both the tourism development and local communities. Both government and private sector consultants are local.

Table 6.5: Summary of the investigated tourism development stakeholders (group D)

Group (D) Tourism development facilitators	Tourism development consultants	Government's consultants
		Private Sector Consultants
	NGOs	

Source: Survey (2007)

6.6 Questionnaire design

In view of the fact that four groups of stakeholders had to be investigated and there were different linked topics, four different questionnaires were designed. The main topics were the characteristics of the tourism development; the characteristics of the host community and the characteristics of the tourists. These topics were examined and determined via understanding their relationships with the politico-economic, physico-ecological and socio-cultural conditions, which were grouped in particular subjects as: political, economic, technical, physical, natural, and social, and cultural environments. Different

correlations between the main topics and the grouped subjects and stakeholders are outlined in order to establish the pattern of the questionnaire (see figure 6.3).

The next step was to categorize the questionnaire sections that linked to each stakeholder in the light of the previous identified relationships. The final output considers four to five sections for each questionnaire according to the investigated stakeholder group. However, eight topics were examined in total:

- The role of tourism development: it includes questions related to perceptions of tourism development policies and required respondents to react to a series of positive and negative statements regarding aspects of tourism on a five point linker scale (strongly agree - strongly disagree);

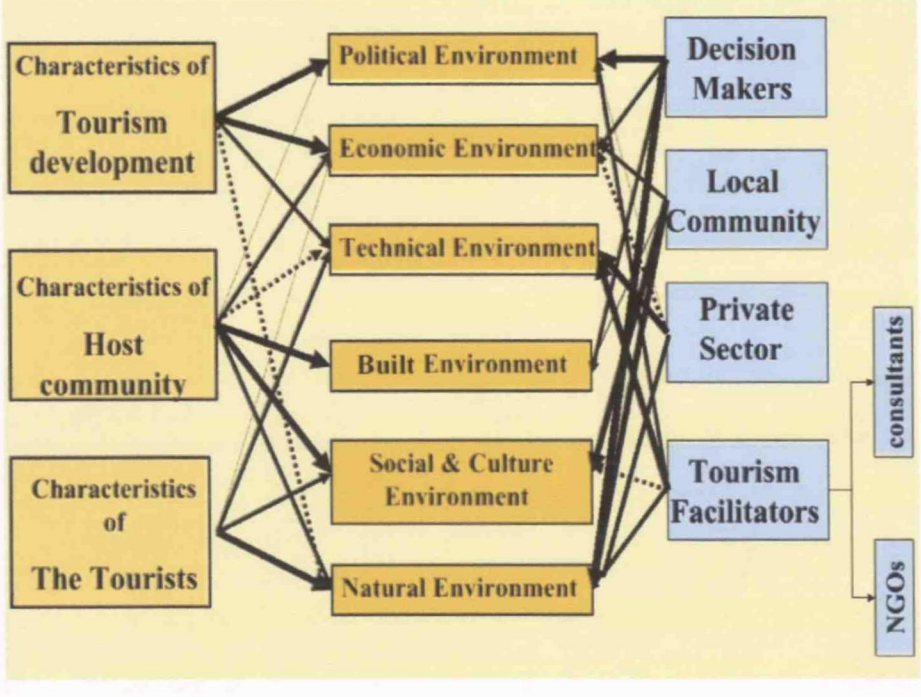


Figure 6.3: Sketch shows different relationships between topics and tourism development stakeholders
Source: The author (2007)

- Tourism volume and mode: this section investigates the seasonality and the number of tourists and ranks attractions at each destinations;
- The character of attractions: clarifies characteristic of local attractions that may enhance quality of life for local people and satisfy tourists;

- Attractions emphasis: this aims to evaluate the tourism services provided by the local community as a basis to identifying practical forms of organizational structure that may improve them;
- The control of tourism development: investigating current tourism development plans and their relation with the local communities and the surrounding natural environment;
- Community satisfaction: identifies the advantages and disadvantages of tourism development in the surrounding area; it included questions relating to community satisfaction and required respondents to reply to a series of positive and negative statements scaled from strongly agree to strongly disagree;
- Management strategy: draws out what a favorable management strategy would include, via statements linked to local communities development and STD classified as the bottom up, top down and shared management scenarios; and
- Demographic information: indicating the educational level; sources of income and land ownership.

The techniques used consisted of open-ended questions which are descriptive, structural and contrasting; assessment of development scenarios, multiple choices; rating scales; value statements; prompts and rankings of weight of a set of first steps for CBT and the local community development. Nevertheless closed questions were also asked to obtain specific information, mostly related to the demographic information. Furthermore the questionnaires included some identical questions in order to compare and observe different relationships due to subjects between different groups.

6.7 Sampling

As indicated in sections 6.5 and 6.6 different groups require different sampling techniques. Therefore, group (A), which comprises three coastal settlements, represents small, medium and large size at the southern part of the Red Sea region: Quala'an, Abou Ghosun and Shalateen. It also includes in addition deep-range *wadis*, where Bedouins can find water in wells and food for their animals such as goats and camels. These areas are located between 10km to 25km from the coastal area and connected to the three

settlements surveyed. Total samples of 90 persons were invited to take part in the research through focus group discussion or semi-structured interviews. However only 50 persons responded including 14 women and 36 men; these were investigated in seven focus group discussions at the coastal settlements. Two focus groups were held in each settlement, one for men and another for women apart from Shalateen, which had three focus groups consisted of two for men and one for women (see section 7.4). Four to five women community members of various ages attended the women-only focus group discussion. The men-only focus groups were attended by seven to twelve men. The women-only focus group discussions were held to respond to the women's request to allow them to talk with liberty. The selection of the group participants at small settlements was left entirely to the community members who proposed candidates that they saw as most knowledgeable in the themes provided by the researcher. Therefore for example in the case of Quala'an seven men representing most families who live in the area attended the men-only focus group. Given that Abou Ghosun and Shalateen are classified medium and large settlements in the southern part of the Red Sea region the focus group participants agreed to take part in the discussion representing themselves and their families.

In addition 22 persons consisting of six women and 16 men were individually interviewed. These "key-informants" were selected from the focus group discussion and after the pilot survey, and were able to provide more specific and accurate information because of the experience they have, because of their long experience or their practical involvement for instance local community business. Key–informants were selected to cover the various aspects of the research. Thus for instance in Quala'an three men and one woman at the coastal settlement were selected and they in turn recommended interviewees in the deep-range. Another three men and three women willing to take part in the research were interviewed at Shalateen as well as Abou Ghosun and these participants recommended candidates for interview in the deep-range.

Table 6.6: Summary of the investigated sample of local communities

	Coastal				Deep-range
	Focus Group		Semi-structured interviews		Semi-structured interviews
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Quala'an	7	4	3	1	2
Abou Ghosun	9	5	3	2	2
Shalateen	20	5	3	3	3
Total	50		22		
	72				

Source: Survey (2007)

Semi-structured interviews were used with the other groups which are; group (B) the private sector including the tourism facilities' owners, managers and tour operators. The fieldwork survey took place at the Red Sea and Cairo due to the fact that group (B) and part of (C) were located at Cairo. Group (C), the decision maker group, includes officials from the tourism development authority (TDA), Red Sea central government (RSG) and the Egyptian environmental affairs agency (EEAA). The theoretical sampling was applied for the interviewees for both groups (B) and (C) which means at least one from each category was interviewed who in fact has a wide knowledge about the research subject. In other words, for group (B), owners, mangers and tour operators who run businesses in the area were investigated (see Table 6.7). Furthermore group (C) interviewees for instance included the head of the main department at TDA, EEAA and RSG thus the head of the technical department, the general manager of the planning department and the Red Sea planner specialist were invited to take a part (see Table 6.8).

Table 6.7: Interviews with tourism development private sector

Semi-structured interviews		Number of interviews
Private Sector	Owners	4
	Managers	3
	Tour-operators	1
Total		8

Source: Survey (2007)

Table 6.8: Interviews with tourism development decision makers

Semi-structured interviews		Number of interviews
Decision Makers	Tourism Development Authority	4
	Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency	4
	Red Sea Governorate	3
Total		11

Source: Survey (2007)

Finally, group (D) consists of tourism development facilitators such as tourism development consultants and NGOs. This group was emailed with questionnaires and the information sheets. However, it seems face-to-face interviews were more successful in encouraging for them to participate. Therefore HEPCA and the Egyptian Desert Pioneer Society which represent the NGOs which are active in this field (see section 5.6.6) were invited to take part. Five people representing consultants who work both with the government and with private sectors was also interviewed.

Table 6.9: Summary of the sample of the tourism development facilitators

Tourism Facilitators		Semi-structured interviews
Consultants	Government's consultants	2
	Private Sector Consultants	3
NGOs	Egyptian Desert Pioneer Society	1
	Hurghada Environmental Protection and Conservation Association	1
Total		7

Source: Survey (2007)

6.8 Research methods

Fieldwork survey is considered as the main element of socio-cultural research, as it is useful to contact and directly interact with the investigated community in order to "to learn and understand diverse aspects of the inherent prevailing subculture (Flick, 2002)". Bryman (2001) identifies social research as an approach to learning about the social and

cultural life of communities, institutions and other settings that is both scientific and investigative. Since participation is the key feature permeating the entire process of data collection and analysis that allows for the maximum insight into the areas researched, particularly into the local community profile, the methodology adopted relies on qualitative research techniques. Nevertheless the balance between formal methods (such as semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and participants' explanations and informal methods such as the researcher's observations and perceptions along with the exploration of answers from others sources of information) helps to increase the validity of the fieldwork survey. Consequently qualitative techniques were used with the various stakeholder groups in order to identify the impact of tourism development in the area; the existing role of tourism development in local communities and to investigate local communities' potential capacity to be used as a cornerstone to integrate them into the tourism development process (see section 1.4). Semi-structured interviews were used as a tool to obtain data needed from stakeholders from different groups using the questionnaires. As local communities in the investigated area preferred to express themselves in public rather than being asked individually, focus group discussions were held with local communities as they preferred this approach.

The selection of the interviewees in the *wadis* was predetermined as there are few inhabitants and the extended families that live at the deep-range are normally represented by the oldest person. The selection of the interviewees in the coastal settlements was randomized because these settlements have larger populations (see section 6.7). Women's focus group discussions took place indoors, at each coastal settlement. Volunteer women agreed to hold the focus group meetings in their houses unlike men who had their focus group discussions at the traditional public meeting place. The selected methodology made the collection of detailed information about community involvement and tourism planning more effective as it basically considered local people key informants and the pilot survey led to changes being made to the questionnaires (see section 6.8.2.1). The key informants included people from groups such as fishermen, women and older people.

In each settlement the researcher observed the types of dwelling available; the community organization; the infrastructure of the settlements; the resources available; the main problems at the settlement; its population profile; local people potentials; the economic activities carried out and the development opportunities of the village considering its cultural, social and legal practices. The settlements' needs and their interaction with tourism so far and their willingness to engage in tourism activities in the future were also explored.

6.8.1 Focus group discussions

Focus group discussion is a technique that involves small groups of people (from six to twelve participants) with particular characteristics convened to discuss specified issues of a given topic under the guidance of a moderator (Wibeck, 2006, p. 249; Krueger and Casey, 2000, p.4). The main purposes for applying this technique were **first**, to understand local community opinions about the nearby tourism development and its effects; and **second**, to examine particular issues related to local management approach, beliefs and attitudes as this ought to lead us to recognize what people say in "particular social contexts and how group meaning, consensus, or disagreement is constructed" (Hollander, 2004, p.628). Furthermore, it is used to structure and draw relations from natural combinations of participants' comments by promoting and encouraging discussion. Moreover observation of enthusiastic experienced and key information participants may clarify undetermined issues through semi-structured interviews. Krueger and Casey (2000, p.4) identify the purpose of focus groups as "a way to better understand how people feel or think about a particular issue".

Since tourism development targets the sites of local communities, the research investigated relationships and conflicts between tourism development and local communities' interests. This was done to identify means of promoting community involvement and finding roles for community participation by using participants' experiences to protect and conserve the surrounding natural environment (see section 1.2). A number of stakeholders were investigated who might have different perspectives

about tourism development (these were for the most part people in group A), in line with the importance of the area in terms of its natural features, accessibility, and settlement size. Consequently the focus group method was chosen in order to understand the views of different groups at each settlement, examining group norms, behaviour and the groups' needs and exploring ideas linked to the work activities of the group (Krueger and Casey, 2000). The focus group method encourages participants to outline and express their views. However, face-to-face interviewing was applied to local communities in the coastal settlements and in the deep-range and the other stakeholders to crosscheck the individual opinions against group perspectives. To quote from Hollander (2004, p.628) to understand different issues related to the community behaviour and its interaction with different aspects "multiple methods of data collection that demonstrate groups' performance may be necessary".

6.8.1.1 Local community research

A number of procedures were identified before, within and after each focus group discussion. First, key persons were informed and asked to provide recommendations about the preferred time, place of meeting and logistics issues such as refreshments and setting and in addition to review the main discussion points. Second, the main topics were identified and a discussion plan was prepared according to each settlement. The main discussion points for all local communities were as follows:

- Tourism and community satisfaction: this part aimed to examine local community opinion regarding the advantages and disadvantages of the nearby tourism development; the problems that have arisen because of it and the ways to overcome problems.
- The actual and the desirable role of tourism development: this includes the stakeholders' role; assesses how the local community evaluates its own involvement; and which stakeholder should take the lead with the local community development. It also explores how the local community sees the contribution of tourism to natural and cultural conservation.

- The character of the attraction: verifies the major attractions at the area; the existing management approach; scanning strengths, weaknesses and opportunities of the services provided; assesses the local community's opinions of local attractions.
- Management strategy for local communities' development and involvement: this explores how local communities see their ability to control community tourism development, evaluates scenarios related to community development and discusses practical forms of organizational structure that would be necessary to satisfy the needs of local communities.

Third, each focus group discussion was divided into two sessions, and each of the previous topics was broken down into a number of questions and allocated to those sessions, each of which was planned to last for 1.5 hours. This duration was considered as sufficient to cover two topics; but, some sessions lasted for 2.5 hours. The discussion agenda and the roles were explained to the participants before each session. The participants had been informed previously about the topics. Therefore they were asked to prepare five to six areas of interest from their perspective of what they would like to discuss as a brainstorming session. An accommodating and convenient atmosphere for encouraging participants to share opinions through the focus group discussions was prepared by providing refreshments, snacks and drinks. Furthermore the sessions were recorded and notes were taken. The meeting was recorded on tape and transcribed for analysis of data gathered from the discussions and that basically relied on listening to the taped focus group sessions and developing an abridged transcript of the relevant and useful portions of the discussion.

6.8.2 Semi-structured interviews (SSIs)

The semi-structured interview is a qualitative approach that involves collecting individual data, in this case, after focus group discussions. The research used the questionnaire as a guide for the face-to-face interview (see section 6.6). This technique allows participants to elaborate on comments made during the focus group discussions. As Bryman (2001) points out, the semi-structured interview ought to "fill in gaps in participants

contributions, describe thoughts or memories evoked by the discussion, or share their reactions to the discussion, including their comfort with disclosing their experiences and feelings". In agreement with this view, Krueger and Casey (2000) argue that the interview is the most widely used method of generating data in qualitative social research. It should be recognized that semi-structured interviews generate more data than may be required by the questionnaire, particularly personal data and opinion regarding the subject. "It is usually considered that the semi-structured interview allows the respondent to raise and to pursue relevant lines of thought which might have been excluded by a formal predetermined questionnaire" (Bryman, 2001).

Clearly "The semi-structured interview is a guided conversation in which only the topics are predetermined while the new questions or insights arise as a result of the discussion and visualized analyses" (The Mountain Institute, 2000). Therefore this method provides a conversational method to allow participants to introduce and discuss issues that they consider relevant in addition to covering the main topics examined, in ways that help to ensure that the interviews stay focused (Bryman, 2001, pp.111-112). The view that semi-structured interviewing may appear as a casual qualitative technique and is not a professionally accurate method is controversial, but by using a set of clearly investigated topics, defined goals and guidelines the interview ought to be an effective way to uncover any views of the people questioned which may not have appeared during the focus group discussion (Flick, 2002).

This technique was applied to all stakeholder groups. The level of participation, data gathered and topics covered are different for each stakeholder group according to their experience, background, profession and their relation with the topic. It was essential to ensure that participants understand the purpose of the semi-structured interview before doing it. The sampling method depended on the group investigated (see section 6.7), for instance theoretical sampling has been applied to groups B and C according to consistent criteria for selecting respondents. Here the research used guiding themes based on the terms of reference represented by the questionnaire to lead the discussion. Interviewees were then given the freedom to direct the discussion according to their own experience

and the contributions they felt capable of providing. Different considerations were applied according to each of stakeholders, as discussed below.

6.8.2.1 Local communities SSI

The research aimed to present a clear account of the existing conditions affecting local people and the environment. It identified the characteristics of sustainable tourism development, which are linked to local community, by outlining the local community's economic profile; pattern of mobility and cultural traditions and the on-going economic impacts of tourism. Accordingly a four-page questionnaire was applied to local communities (see annex C). It covered:

- Community satisfaction;
- The role of tourism development;
- The character of attraction and
- The demographic information.

First, the section on community satisfaction considered the individuals' opinions of existing tourism development by exploring its advantages and disadvantages and understanding the nature of relationships between tourists and the local communities. Subtopics were used here to led the discussion on economic, environmental, social and culture aspects including exploitation of local people; income opportunities; support for the local economy; local moral standards, conserving natural resources and the crime rate. **Second** the roles of tourism development section aimed to explore the role of tourism development stakeholders linked to community development, such as the tourism facilities management; local communities' involvement; capacity building and tourism development's potential contribution to natural, social and culture aspects in order to outline existing and desirable conditions. **Third** the section on the character and the quality of attraction explored local perceptions of tourism products and the way tourism utilized local people' skills and experience. The demographic information forms the final section step of the questionnaire (see Annex C).

The pilot survey with the local community (conducted shortly before the main survey work) indicated the need for some changes in the questionnaires for instance, statements related to strategies for local community development were changed from "who should support local people's enterprises, who should develop collective income sources, and who should explore opportunities to classify the individuals' opinion about the government's ability and that of other stakeholders to complete each task". Furthermore some questions were eliminated as they were not applicable; for instance it was noticed that there were no tourism facilities at some settlements, particularly in the deep-range. Therefore it was more practical to observe local talents, skills and potentials that might be able to be employed as tourism attractions. Questions about the university education as one of the choices were eliminated apart from at Shalateen. A question about intermediate education was deleted because intermediate and vocational education is considered as being the same level.

In the light of the literature review the questionnaires were used to guide the interviews, which ranged from thirty minutes to over two hours. In view of the high illiteracy rate of the settlements' inhabitants, the interviewees were supported throughout by the present researcher who explained questions; gave examples; referred to someone or something visible and built bridges between topics and participants' responses. It was planned that around 9 participants would be interviewed at each settlement three men and three women at the coastal settlements and another three participants at the deep-range. The interviews have helped to ascertain all the information needed and have provided deeper understanding of the local communities' circumstances and perceptions of tourism development. Furthermore interviews have identified the necessary course for actions to achieve community development, from the individuals' viewpoints. The afternoon was the perfect time for interviewing individuals from local communities, and interviews took place either in front of the respondents' houses or at the local traditional cafeteria.

6.8.2.2 Private sector SSI

Figure 6.4: Semi-structured interview with different level of private sector

Given that important roles are being played by the private sector (see section 5.5) it was necessary to interview a sample from this sector. This sample needed to cover a wide range of experience in order to categorize existing tourism development conditions connected with local communities' development (see section 6.7). Accordingly, a sample consisting of 22 participants was invited to take part including owners, managers and tour operators who were running businesses in the area. The TDA provides different categories of projects according to the capital investment of the companies and the size of the development areas (TDA, 1996; TDA 2005a), and these call for different levels of interaction with local communities. The sample included representatives of both operational and under-construction projects from all sizes. Thus small, medium and large establishments were represented. The sample built on projects situated in the southern part of the Red Sea region which are relevant to the discussed topic. However only 8 participants responded to the interview and the others excused themselves as being busy and/or for personal reasons. Nevertheless all categories have been represented. Some of the interviews took place in Cairo since most of the owners run their businesses from there and the remainder took place at the southern part of the Red Sea region.

The private sector interviews considered topics under five sections (see Annex D). First: tourism volume and mode; this section of questioning sought to explore the demands for local communities' tourism; seasonality; and the characteristics of this kind of tourism from experts' views, in addition to exploring the main potential for local communities and local settlements. Second, the role of tourism development section investigates

methods to improve social issues for local communities at the government level and within the project level. Furthermore the character of attractions section examines two main issues: (A) the tourists' demands, which categorizes different attractions divided by different settlements in coastal areas and in the deep-range; (B) it identifies local communities' attractions strengths and weaknesses. In addition this section sought to discover how these attractions will enhance quality of life for local communities and satisfy tourists. Moreover the attraction emphasis section evaluates the existing tourism facilities linked to local communities and assesses the existing organizational structure along with techniques recommended to improve it. Finally the management strategy categorizes different management scenarios which are: bottom up management; top down management and shared management and its effects on local communities in terms of the wellbeing of the host community; the effects of tourism on community; the community participation in tourism; the economic and political benefits and the protection of natural assets. This evaluation in turn sought to understand local communities' tourism management methods that could constructively be used (see Annex D).

6.8.2.3 Decision-makers SSI

As decision-makers play an important role not only for the tourism industry but also in local communities' development, it was essential to talk to officials from TDA, RSG and EEAA who are the main official players (see section 5.6). Therefore a five topics questionnaire was applied using theoretical sampling technique set out in section 6.7. Interviewing this group required special prerequisites such as preparing for appointments, using interview checklist and guide as well as being timely organized (see section 6.6). The control of tourism development was the first topic investigated. It mostly examines different stakeholders' opinions and is linked to support, development and involvement of the local community within the nearby tourism development. Two main issues were examined: first, the current tourism development plan linked to development of local communities which identifies tourism development role for the local community development; and second, the procedures applied by the government to involve and inform local communities.

As shown in the literature review it should be recognized that each stakeholders group has different roles and interests (see section 5.6). Consequently the details of the questions have been modified; for instance participants from EEAA were asked about the existing roles of tourism development and nature conservation as connected with local communities, about methods and techniques for supporting local communities within protected areas at the southern part of the Red Sea region and about local community participation in protected areas which are used as tourism attractions under EEAA supervision. In contrast participants from the RSG were asked about the governorate's role in developing and supporting local communities affected by considering tourism development, environmental conservation and urban development, as the RSG is responsible for administrations in the municipalities and has a coordination role between TDA and EEAA.

Under the section on the role of tourism development an assessment was made of respondents' responses to statements covering particular issues. The statements concerned the proposed private sector and government roles; local community rights; identified management procedures that can be applied to minimize negative impact on local people; local community capacity building; and procedures to explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations, for instance food suppliers. Furthermore the questionnaire included as topics: the type and the nature of local attractions, aiming first to explore decision makers' view about activities and attractions provided by local communities that may enhance their quality of life. The questions were also aimed to evaluate the quality of the existing services and attractions. Furthermore they discussed which forms of organizational structure for local communities might be able to handle community. Finally the fifth topic covered the management strategy preferred by the decision-makers (see Annex E).

6.8.2.4 Tourism development facilitators SSI

Tourism development facilitators include both NGOs who are linked to local communities at the southern part of the Red Sea region and the tourism development consultants. This latter group includes government consultants and private sector consultants. The government consultants are university professors or national and international consultants, who provide a reference for the decision-makers and provide consultancy recommendations and guidance particularly at regional level. In contrast private sector consultants provide consultancy at the project level. It was important to understand their views since they could add different experience and dimensions. Accordingly a sample of NGOs with environmental interest and local community support, in addition to government and private consultants, was contacted. A questionnaire covering five topics was applied to both groups. It included the control of tourism development; the role of tourism development; the character of attractions; attractions orientation and finally the management strategy. Four NGO members and five consultants from government and private sectors were invited to semi-structured interviews. However, only two NGOs responded: the Egyptian Desert Pioneer Society that supports local communities in the southern part of the Red Sea region and the HEPCA which has interests in the environmental aspects and local community (see section 5.6.6). However, all the contacted consultants responded. These interviews took place in Cairo, apart from HEPCA, whose representative of which was interviewed at the Red Sea region.

6.8.3 Observation

Observation is an essential technique as local communities have low literacy rates; also as the research probed deeper the more conservative local communities becomes because of cultural differences. This qualitative method was used to reduce the number of questions that needed to be asked to local communities and to improve the reliability and the accuracy of the information gathered. Bryman (2001) argues that the observation method provides the research with "what is behind the veil" by way of seeing people

behaving naturally. Flick (2002, p.139) states that "observation is considered as an important field strategy that simultaneously combines document analysis, interviewing of respondents and informants, direct participation and introspection". Therefore observational techniques are useful for gathering a wide range of data that might not be obtained through direct questions. It is used to increase the clarity of the data obtained. The Mountain Institute (2000) considers that evaluation of relevant physical and social conditions of a study area is the main objective for using the observation technique, and provides triangulation with information collected using other techniques.

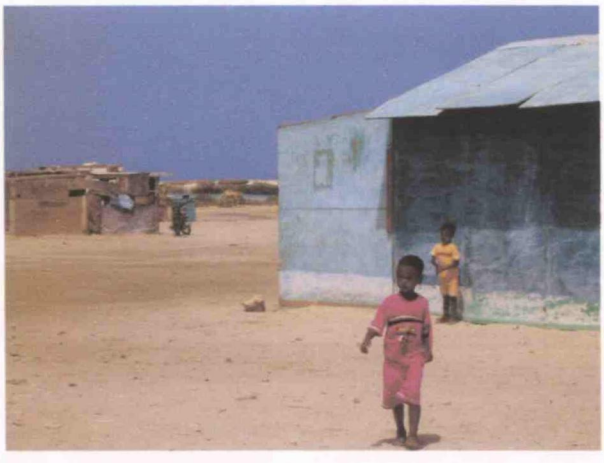


Figure 6.5: Building conditions at Quala'an settlement

In fact it is highly likely that participants' observation and direct observation are particularly important because they both help to clarify misunderstandings, as sometimes information generated may not match what is seen. Observation was used as an extra tool to substantiate the information provided by the interviewees. In addition to monitoring the actual local communities' behaviour and attitude toward tourists in real situations, the local community's physical environment and its relationship with the surrounding natural environment were observed. Observation was a practical research tool within the fieldwork to observe satisfaction and dissatisfaction of local communities while interacting with tourists. Nevertheless Flick (2002, pp.139) points out that participant observation should be understood as a process in two respects. First, the researcher should increasingly become a participant and gain access to the field and local communities. Second, the observation should also move through a process of becoming increasingly concrete and concentrated on the aspects that are essential for the research questions.

Consequently a checklist of areas which needed to be covered by observation was prepared and used as a guide in a way that allowed flexibility so that issues could be explored as they arise in the field or from being stated by participants (such as the condition of the houses; the infrastructure and the tourism facilities, as physical environment; the local community's customs, skills and attitudes as potentials of local communities). Observation took place before, after and within the focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews at different times of the day. Thus, although focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews took place in the afternoons, local communities' daily life was observed in both the morning and the afternoon. Local communities were monitored in different situations such as when interacting with tour operators, tourists and each other. From crosschecking and comparing observations with the data collected from other methods, additional questions were developed and posed, which filled in gaps in the knowledge of local conditions.

6.8.4 Time and duration

The survey timetable allowed a period of around three months to cover fieldwork preparation; stakeholders' appointments, particularly decision-makers and private sector; pilot survey and revising questionnaires. This period included 40 days actual fieldwork which took place between Cairo, Hurghada and the southern part of the Red Sea region. The pilot survey took about five days for all stakeholders groups, since the pilot survey for stakeholders group B and C had been assessed earlier by email, in addition to two days in Cairo. The local communities' pilot survey took about three days, one for each settlement. That period included reviewing the material and preparing the interview guidelines, based on the pilot survey output. Thus, approximately thirty days were spent in the field in Quala'an, Abou Ghosun and Shalateen (see Annex F). Interviews with government employees were conducted during the morning at Cairo and the Red Sea region. The SSI data was managed and stored appropriately using data tables for each stakeholder group. Notes taken at focus group discussions were reconstructed, together with the observation notes that helped to build bridges between the different methods used in field work and information obtained from other resources. The field work survey

data was listed in order to be used as a routing map for further analysis and recommendation (see Annex J).

6.9 Summary

This chapter has outlined the methods and techniques used for testing and addressing the research question. After an outline of the research design the main part presented criteria for promoting local community participation; as well as investigation measures and the field work techniques. Multi method qualitative approaches were applied to the selected case studies in order to overcome the weaknesses of the individual approaches. Focus group discussions took place with local communities according to each community's local circumstances, in terms of the different town sizes and groups involved. Changes to the questionnaires were made in the light of the pilot survey. The focus group participants provided help with the semi-structured interviews particularly by providing contacts to the deep-range inhabitants who are hard to contact. As tourism development stakeholders have different interests, background and objectives, different questionnaires were designed. Tourism development stakeholders such as decision makers, private sector and tourism development facilitators were investigated according to predetermined procedures and programme. The chapter also presented the observation undertaken and how data has been managed. It provides the essential underpinning aspects for the fieldwork survey and research findings.

PART THREE:
CASE STUDIES AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

CHAPTER SEVEN:
CASE STUDY FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS
(Local communities)

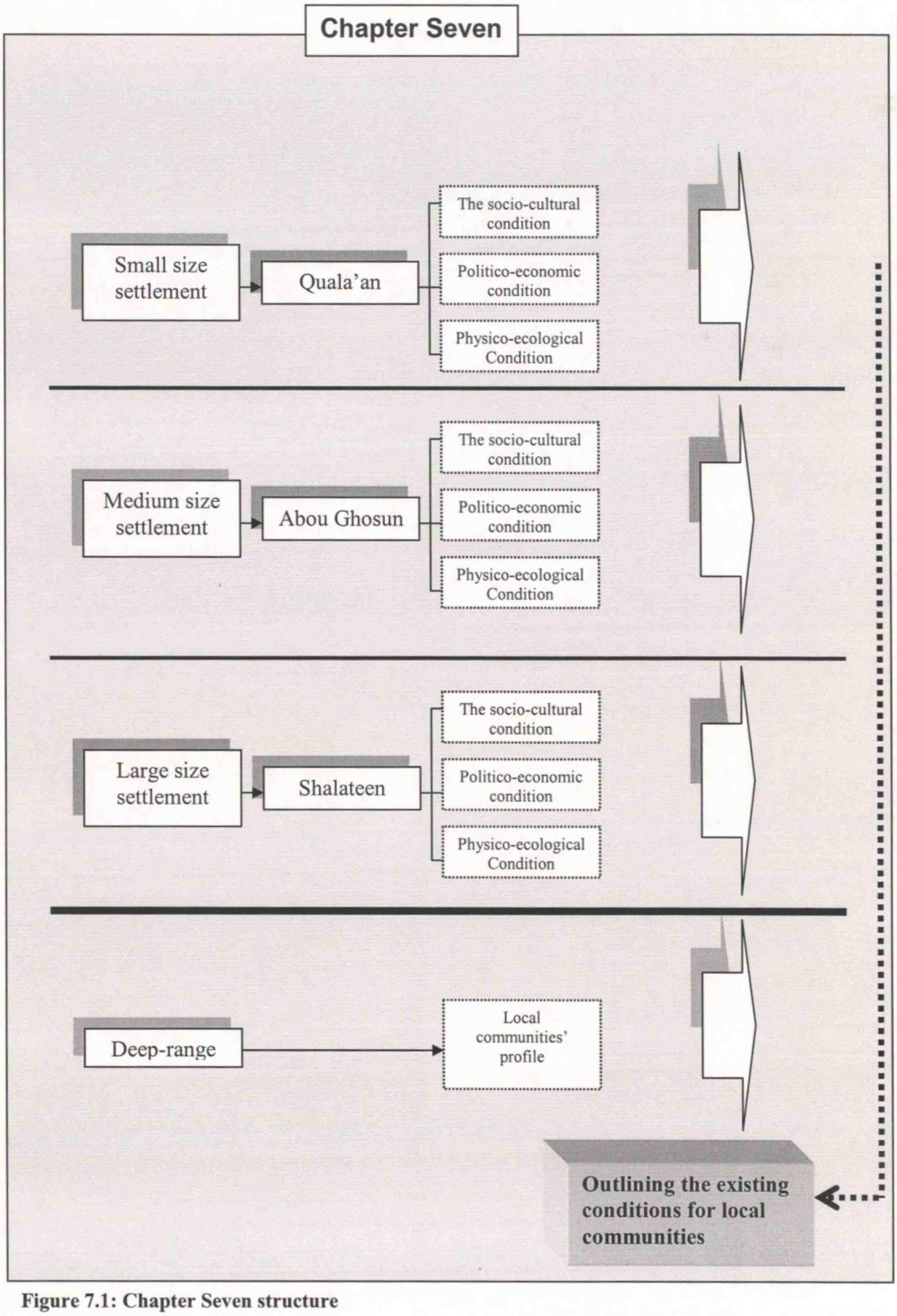


Figure 7.1: Chapter Seven structure

7.1 Introduction

According to the World Bank and CAPMAS (2000) three types of poverty are routinely referred to in order to assess or describe the extent and the depth of the poverty for a given community.

- *Structural poverty* is related to the lack of basic social and public services, and infrastructure, which represent an obstacle to human development.
- *Capability poverty* describes the incapability of individuals to empower themselves to satisfy their basic social and economic needs and become real actors in a given society.
- *Monetary poverty* is defined as not having enough income to obtain a specific amount of food, a situation that leads to insufficient basic food consumption.

The research findings are analysed and discussed within this and the following chapter; comments drawn from the focus group meetings and SSI are reported. **This chapter** aims to clarify circumstances about local communities in each settlement and the deep-range in the study area and show existing evidence of all three types of poverty within local communities. Based on the fieldwork survey, this chapter is divided into four sections in which the first three sections cover the coastal settlements Qualan, Abou Ghosun and Shalateen. In each case the physico-ecological, politico-economic and the socio-cultural conditions are described. The fourth section covers the deep-range local community. The historical background and the profile of the existing population including demographic and economic features are described. Issues linked to local community customs such as patterns of mobility, social and economic management and gender issues are described. Furthermore, stakeholders' views are considered in specific sections and examples are given that illustrate the potential of local communities. **The subsequent chapter** analyses in-depth issues related directly to the research questions. To understand the actual condition of traditional local communities in the southern part of the Red Sea region and the present interaction between tourism development and local communities, profiles and results from the fieldwork are outlined for the case studies located in the coastal area and in the deep-range.

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7.2 Quala'an in context

Quala'an lies to the south of Marsa Alam unit (see figure 6.2), in what is known as the Bernice village administrative centre. In the early 1960s a group of five fishermen, originally from Ras Banase and *Wadi* Quala'an, used to moor at the Quala'an bay during the summer fishing season (EEAA, 2001). In view of the fact that Quala'an has easy access to good fishing areas and because of its shape that provides protection from waves and proximity to the road, the group decided to settle permanently in the bay. They moved their families in and started the slow process of building houses with material collected from the seashore and the nearby *wadis* (TDA, 2002a; Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). Quala'an slowly grew as an informal fishing settlement over the following 40 years. Though not formally registered as a built up area by the local government administration, the presence of the inhabitants is fully acknowledged, and they are provided with some basic public and social services. In contrast, local communities who live at the deep-range and are linked to the Quala'an community have no services or acknowledged status. With tourism development activities over the last decade, Quala'an has become the subject of heated debates due to the fact that it occupies a prime tourist location on

Figure 7.2: Quala'an from the air

Figure 7.3: Quala'an crystal white sandy beaches

Quala'an is considered as one of the ideal tourism development locations at the southern part of the Red Sea due to the reason that the unique bay, the crystal white sandy beach, and the natural lagoon in the middle of the bay secure access to the sea and provide the proper condition for various tourism activities.

the coast, which makes it a valuable location for investors (see Figures 7.2 and 7.3). Today 16 families live in Quala'an, composed of the earlier settlers and their children. The population of Quala'an is 50, according to government data in 2000 as reported by the community leader, indicating that local or regional outward migration has kept the population at the same level over the past 8 years (UPA, 2000; TDA, 2005a). However this does not include the local people who live at *wadis* and deep-range, approximately 25 km far from the coast, (like *wadi* Quala'an) and are linked to the Quala'an community. Given that the number of inhabitants is small the focus group participants represent almost the entire Quala'an local community. Seven men and four women corresponding to nine families out of the 16 families living in the area contributed within two focus groups, one for men and another for women. The Quala'an local fishermen's union represents the local community and is in charge of decisions related to the local community, particularly public issues such as coordination with tour operators, local governorate and fishing issues in addition to its roles of solving local and social problems. It consists of five men who are considered as leaders of the local community.

Figure 7.4: Quala'an traditional meeting place, where the men's focus group was held.

In the pilot survey, it was suggested that particular areas at the deep-range are under tourism pressure (see section 6.7); so the participants in the men's focus group discussion were asked to recommend potential research areas in the deep-range for semi-structured interviews and the women participants for the women-only focus group discussion. Therefore six women were recommended as participants for the women-only session, which took place at the house of one of the women; the meeting was facilitated by a

woman volunteer from the TDA. However, two of the women were unable to attend and only four of them attended the session. Since there is no specific business schedule for the local community as fishing is dependent on the weather and tourists visits are not scheduled and both of these activities take place between early morning and afternoon, the selected times for both focus groups were chosen by the participants who agreed to hold the meetings in the afternoon at a convenient time between lunch and dinner time. The following sections outline the existing circumstances within the socio-cultural, physico-ecological and the politico-economic condition that were explored within the fieldwork survey.

7.2.1 Socio-cultural condition

The focus group discussions and in-depth interviews of key informants revealed that the Quala'an population has, since the mid 70's established a second sub-settlement in Abou Ghosun 30 km north, at the south part of the bay, because the mining company at Abou Ghosun recruits local people mostly in winter when fishing is not profitable. Quala'an people move back and forth between the two settlements according to seasons and job opportunities. With the prospect of long term employment and public facilities offered by the company, some families have decided to establish permanent houses in Abu Ghosun. Their presence there encouraged several families to send their children to school. Better access to basic services and availability of electricity play an important role in the decision of the young temporary migrants to settle permanently in Abu Ghosun. Whilst according to the local community leaders the total number of inhabitants is 50 there is no

Table 7.1: Quala'an population distribution

Qualaan				
No. of inhabitants	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**	
Below 6 years	3	2	5	10%
Between 6 and 15 years	6	5	11	22%
Between 15 and 65 years	17	15	32	64%
Above 65 years	2	0	2	4%
Total	28	22	50	
	56%	44%	100%	

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

official up-to-date and accurate information about the settlement population currently. The assistant leader of the local community provided further information and Table 7.1 illustrates the population distribution according to age and sex. It shows that 44% of the district population are women and girls, and 56.0% are men and boys. Almost one-third (32%) of the district's population is below 15 years old. Only 4% of the population is older than 65 years. The average family size is 3.1 persons per family. These population distributed is similar to that shown in the official governorate figures, apart from average family size, which is given as 4.56 persons per family (UPA, 2000), as this average based on all inhabitants in different settlement size (see sections 7.3.1 and 7.4.1).

The nearest school is located in Hamata 16 km to the south; however, local families prefer to send their children to Abu Ghosun where they can stay with their relatives. The focus group discussions and the interviewees reported that about 4 boys and 3 girls are currently attending school in Abu Ghosun. About 22% of the population belongs to the school age bracket of 6 to 15 years old. This means that the level of school enrolment in the village is roughly 63%, or seven out of eleven children, a rate significantly lower than that shown in the governorate figures of 93% (UPA, 2000). The cost of sending children to school, combined with the need for unpaid family labour for fishing, limits the number of boys the family can send to school. Strong social and cultural traditions prevent the families from sending "unaccompanied" young girls to school outside the immediate territory of the community. It was reported that one young woman; daughter of one of the mining company employees has completed her school education. All other women over 15 years old are illiterate. A small number of young men have an opportunity to attend school, but the overwhelming majority of the population is illiterate (see section 8.2.1). The highest educational level found among the male population is intermediate level school. Nevertheless they are able to calculate and deal with both the fishing trade and tourists smoothly; they do understand the value of different currencies, as will be detailed later. A special effort was made by the government to facilitate civil registration of the local population in the Red Sea region to determine their citizenship and enable them to access social services. Out of the need to obtain a fishing licence and to access social benefits such as food aid, all adult males of the community have completed their civil

registration. Civil registration of the remaining population varies it was reported that most of the children less than 20 years old are registered. Registration of women above age 20 is under way.

7.2.2 Physico-ecological condition

The village is composed of 16 houses, one community centre and a general store for fishing equipment. Houses are mostly made out of recycled materials scavenged from the beach. They are fixed and reinforced with pieces of recycled tin cans or purchased corrugated zinc. They are seated on shallow foundations made of two by two inch timber beams.

Figure 7.5: Quala'an houses condition

Housing construction used to be a gradual process, built by the family as material became available and as the family grew. Sitting and/or sleeping rooms are kept separate from the kitchen. There is a small courtyard to keep poultry and do the laundry. Larger animals such as goats are kept in separate huts, as observed during the field visit. The condition of the houses is rather unstable and interviewees indicated that they face problems in case of rain or strong wind. Maintenance and repair of the houses is an on-going process to replace sections destroyed or taken away by the wind (see Figure 7.5). One of the mature interviewees built a new house two years ago prior to marrying. He bought new plywood sheets, beams, windows and doors. He built his house with one sitting/sleeping room, one

kitchen and a courtyard. The total cost was EGP 700[1] (£58.3). He would have liked to build it with cement block but the local council refused to provide him with a permit. He indicated that the settlement does not have a mason and he would need to hire a mason from outside the area for cement block construction. Even if he could obtain a permit, he could not afford to do so at the moment. The community built a community centre for display handicrafts and guesthouse at the entrance of the settlement (see Figure 7.6). The centre is made of a 6x5 m room built with new plywood sheets and beams. Each head of a family contributed EGP 20 to the cost of the centre in addition to labour.

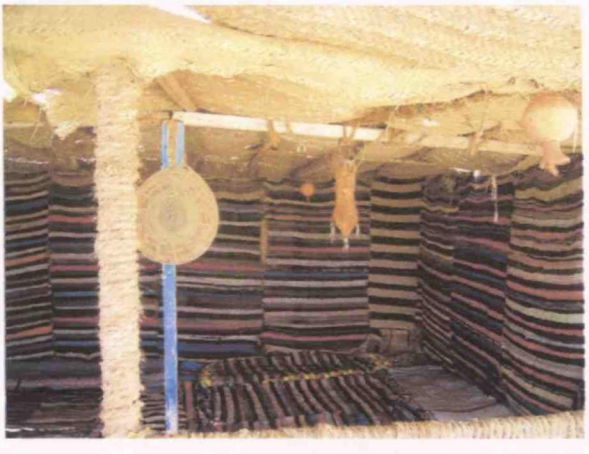


Figure 7.6: The Quala'an guesthouse

According to Egyptian laws, the land is the property of the state. The families settled informally in the area and can be considered legally as squatters. However, the law has special provision for people who moved into a desert area and developed economic activities over a period of time. They can in principle initiate a procedure to purchase the land from the state at a nominal price provided that it does not conflict with public plans or interests. Yet since the Quala'an settlement is located on one of the exceptional natural tourism attractions (see Figures 7.2 and 7.3) residents are not able to own the land, as it is considered as important national property. On the other hand Quala'an residents did not show any awareness of these legal issues and they stated that they do not currently have the means to engage in such a procedure or offered to purchase the land. Interviews with decision-makers from the governorate local office for resolving the issues of Bedouin landownership (which is located at the premises of the Local People Council in Marsa Alam) indicated that there is no objection in principle formalizing the ownership of the land of Quala'an people provided it is outside the beach setback (a 200m wide non-built

[1] One pound sterling is equal to about 12 Egyptian pounds (EGP) (according to the Egyptian Central Bank June-2007)

area along the coast). Nevertheless review of the legal situation shows that the settlement's land is in the TDA territory and does not fall within local governorate supervision (see section 5.6).

Due to its size and informal status, Quala'an does not have any of the basic services such as health or education services. The nearest schools are 16 km away in Hamata and the nearest hospital is in El Quseir, which is 160 km away. Electricity is not available. However decision-makers from the Red Sea governorate noted that a diesel generator was installed in 1993 in Quala'an - during the fieldwork survey this was found to be in very poor condition. One of the local residents stated *"it was my mission to manage the generator and the supply system during six years. Unfortunately, it was not fixed when it stopped in 1999, and since then there is no electricity. Local people tried to collect money for providing a new one but it seems that it is unaffordable*". A ground water desalination station provides water for domestic purposes, which is delivered every two weeks by the Local Council without charge. It is stored in tanks for community use. Residents indicated that the water is hardly drinkable. They purchase weekly potable water from the Nile at a cost of EGP 15 per tank. Sanitation facilities and solid waste collection are not available. Waste effluent is relatively small. It is disposed directly into the ground. Solid waste is piling up on the southern edge of the community; the wind blows it into the mangroves and the nearby desert. Quala'an has a tiny grocery shop, which sells some basic commodities. Lack of capital prevents the owner from expanding his range of products. The nearest markets are in Hamata and Abou Ghosun.

7.2.3 Politico-economic condition

TDA controls management of the area; however, since the mangroves surrounding the beach are considered as natural protected area, direct supervision is carried out by the EEAA (TDA, 2005b; EEAA, 2001). Yet the area is settled by the local community, for whom RSG has a role in terms of providing public services. RSG is involved in any decision related to the area (see section 5.6.4 and Figure 5.8) (Sultan, 1992; UPA, 2000). Consequently Quala'an is located within an area where three major government

stakeholders, the RSG, TDA and EEAA have different levels of responsibilities and plans. Interviews with officials from TDA indicated, *"it was proposed to move the local population away. However, the presence of a large area of mangrove in Quala'an bay somehow saved them from being evicted as EEAA declared it a protected area according to the law, thus tourism development doesn't exist in the surrounding area"*. Though the population feels much relieved and the threat of relocation is gone for now, they are faced with new land use and fishing restrictions defined by EEAA's protected area laws. On the other hand decision-makers from EEAA point out *"there are obstacles that hinder developing the area through an environmental and social approach. Those obstacles include the lack of finance, and human resources. For instance, Wadi Jimal National Park (more than 270 km2 and located 12km to north) is managed and monitored by two rangers. Furthermore since local communities suffer from low education levels and lack of capability to be involved in any initiative, it is not easy to hire them"*. This issue in turn influences local source of income in the community. In the past, the people of Quala'an combined seasonal fishing and small scale herding to maintain their livelihoods. Work opportunities in the Abou Ghosun mines provided some of them with steady employment. Over the last decade, environmental circumstances and regional economic development have substantially affected the way they manage their local resources. Different economic activities are outlined below.

Fishing

The fisheries resources of the Egyptian Red Sea region have traditionally been exploited at a low level and until recently represented the economic and nutritional mainstay of the coastal population (EEAA, 2001). In Quala'an, fishing is a family affair and every member of the family participates to some degree in it. Men and boys above age of nine years are usually engaged in fishing with the boat and net fishing in shallow water. Maintenance

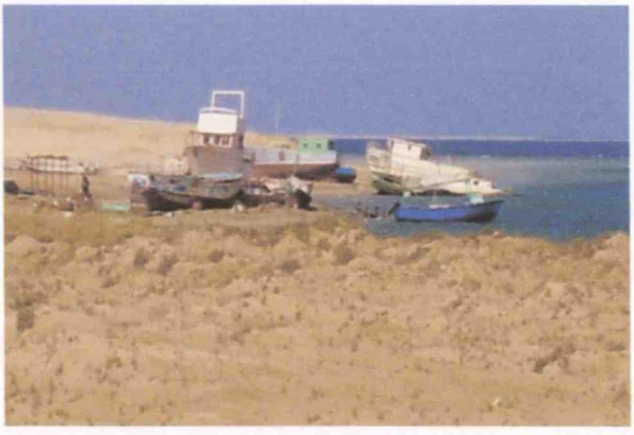


Figure 7.7: Local community fishing boats

and repairs of boats and fishing tools is carried out by men. Women and girls work in storing and cleaning and salting the fish. They also fish in shallow water with a net during the summer season. In contrast, fishing as a secondary occupation for desert inhabitants is undertaken only by men. Officially though, only those registered at the regional fishing cooperative are recognized as professional fishermen. Fishing capacity and techniques have developed over the years and the fishermen have been adapting and improving their boats in line with their financial resources. The community has four fishing boats; one of them is equipped with a motor, which has raised its capacity. Each boat is owned by four to six people who share costs and revenues. Three years ago, the owners of one of the boats managed to save EGP 3500 and buy a second-hand motor from El Quseir. They indicated that the fishing resources have reduced over the years; they now need to go further out to sea, but this requires bigger boats and motors that they cannot afford. All the boats are registered in El Quseir and the fishermen are members of the fishing cooperative. It provides them with a professional licence and enables them to contribute to the national social insurance system. Since the declaration of the protected area, they have been subject to a new licensing system. They have to renew their licence every three months and pay a fee of EGP 60. They indicated that the three months cycle represents a hurdle for them, as they need to cut short their fishing trips to renew the licence on time.

Figure 7.8: Quala'an focus group discussion

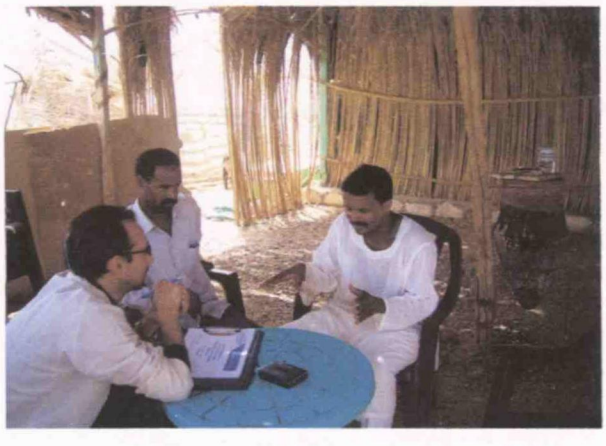


Figure 7.9: Semi-structured interviews with local people from Quala'an

The fishing season is in summer and lasts for about 6 months. At the peak of the fishing season, the catch can be within the range of 80 to 100 kg per week per boat. Catch in the winter may fall to a bare subsistence level to feed the families. Storage capacity is limited, as they do not have long term refrigeration facilities. Fishermen buy ice from traders to preserve the fish during the fishing season. The fish is sold on the spot at an average price of EGP 5 -7 per kg to traders with refrigeration equipment. During the summer, they do not have the capacity to keep a large quantity of fish for more than a day. A large part of the catch is salted - salted fish is sold at a higher price; however, in terms of gross revenue per catch, revenue from selling fresh fish is higher. Interviewees estimated that the revenue per family per week is about EGP 80 during the peak season after expenditure on boat and equipment maintenance. They indicated that access to refrigeration within Quala'an would help them negotiate a better price for their catch. Lack of electricity supply facilities among other factors prevents them from getting a freezer.

Tourism

The interest and capacity of the residents to participate in tourism development activities was discussed in six individual interviews and two focus groups. The current tourism development, local employment opportunities, the quality of the products and marketing potentials and the existing tourism activities were explored (see section 6.4). Due to the natural beauty of the site it is frequented by tourist buses (between two to five buses per week); with an average capacity of 25 tourists per bus, which means from 250 to 300 tourists per month. They stay for a short time, frequently not exceeding two hours, with local people. They always visit the beach located just in front of the settlement and stay the rest of the day swimming and snorkeling. The guesthouse is managed and operated by three local people who together

Figure 7.10: Handcrafts produced in Qala'an

prepare and serve tourists. They take about 25% of the income and the rest is divided into equal shares amongst local families. The local community indicated, *"For each bus, the tent staff prepares a pot of tea and cakes in addition to oriental coffee (Gabana) and water-pipe (Shisha) to be ready for tourists. However sometimes tourists just take a walk and swim on the lagoon without paying anything which disappoints the staff. Local people get paid by the tour guide between EGP 5 to 20 per served guest, who in turn charge tourists in euros or dollars"*. This means that the average of the tent income is between EGP 1500 to EGP 5000 monthly. Local community leaders identify that each family get around EGP 150 per month from the tent, which depends on the tourism season and their communication with tour guides. Some of the tour guides have also attempted to convince the tent staff to offer tea and food for free, in return for which the tour guide will convince the tourists to buy the products they have on display. In view of the fact that the local community lacks adequate access to the tourism value chain in the area and their lack of skills in terms of hospitality, quality of handicrafts and communication mean that managing the tent is very difficult to sustain (see section 8.4.2). The women-only focus group discussion indicated that some women used to weave mat 'kelims', primarily for family use and exceptionally for sale in the market, but as the demand decreased, they abandoned this activity. During the fieldwork survey, on days subsequent to interviews, it was noticed that tourist groups who came with buses parked away from the village and near the sea; however, individual tourists and others move with 4x4 cars in between local houses which local people consider thoughtless behaviour.

Livestock

Sheep and goats play an important role in the local economy. They represent a kind of capital and the savings of the family. Animals are sold over the year to meet the regular or exceptional needs of cash for the family. Animals are butchered for family use at festivals times. Although milk production is

Figure 7.11: Goats owned the by local community

limited, it represents a significant contribution to the daily diet. Each Quala'an family used to own a minimum of five animals. Children and women used to herd the animals, moving on a seasonal basis between the deep range and the coast according to the availability of grazing. Nearly a decade of drought has led to the depletion of the deep range grazing land and now the majority of the families have reduced the number of their animals, thus losing an important source of cash income.

Mining

A number of men worked at the mining company at Abou Ghosun and Hamata (see section 7.3.3). It was reported that two resident families of Quala'an have one of their members working in Abou Ghosun mine. Economic support is also given from migrant families residing in Abou Ghosun to their relatives in Quala'an. The interviews indicted that on average, family income is EGP 350 monthly. Families live between subsistence and the cash economy. Increased costs of basic fishing inputs and transportation have further reduced the family budget for food items other than fish. On the other hand local people pointed out that there is government support through the 'Orban support scheme', which provides local people with essential food stuffs (see section 7.3.3): such as flour, sugar and oil that are provided by the local governorate; however, local communities consider the portion ration as not enough.

7.3 Abou Ghosun in context

This settlement lies on a wide bay and the area is naturally divided into two districts by the main *wadi* into stretches of sandstone hills to the north and south and called locally Abou Ghosun "sharkya" and Abou Ghosun "gharbia" respectively. Abou Ghosun was a small fishing village just like Quala'an until a British company established a mining settlement close to it during the British occupation. The mining settlement inhabitants extract phosphate and talc from *wadi* Halagalig and *wadi* Abou Ghosun and because immigrants from other places looking for jobs temporarily established houses at the southern end of the bay, it was turned into a permanent settlement. The two districts possess different built environment conditions; the northern district has the majority of

population, services and infrastructure. It has permanent houses, built from stone; wood and concrete, which are clustered in a U shape (see Figure 7.12).

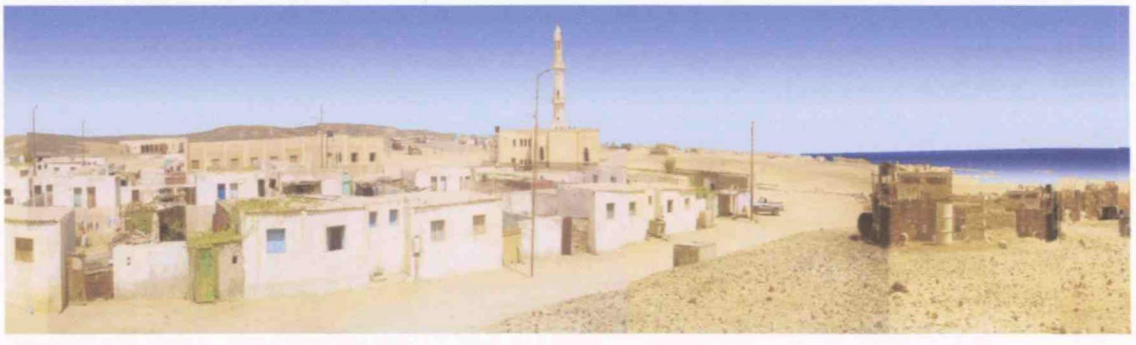


Figure 7.12: The northern and the southern hills at Abou Ghosun

In contrast the southern district has temporary houses which are randomly scattered everywhere in the area and built from wood and metal sheets. As the houses have only informal existence the government considers it a slum; and accordingly the area suffers from a lack of services and infrastructure. Nevertheless inhabitants of the northern and southern areas work for mining, government, tourism and fishing activities. The village council believes that the northern district possesses about 150 households and the southern district contains about 50 families, giving a total of 820 inhabitants in Abou Ghosun (TDA, 2005a). According to UPA (2000) 60 houses out of 150 in the southern district are inhabited by Ababda people originally from the Koreiygab clan and the remaining 90 houses were said to belong to a mixed population of Bisharin, Rashaayda and Egyptians from the Nile Valley working in the village or the mining businesses.

The original study plan was for four focus group discussions, two in the north and two in the south, one for men and the other for women in each district. However, the pilot survey and discussions with key persons showed that the northern and the southern inhabitants see themselves as one community. Given that tourism development is targeting their shared natural, economic and cultural aspects and that in addition the northern inhabitants and the southern ones have, in one way or another, family relationships they requested shared focus groups to include members from each area. Therefore two focus group discussions were held at Abou Ghosun. The men-only focus group took place at the local cafeteria at the southern district, which is managed and

owned by the leader of the fishermen in the area known locally by the fishermen as Sheikh 'Gharieb'. The Community Development Association (CDA) that manages some of the local community issues (see section 8.4) was represented. Nine men attended the men-only focus group discussion and five women attended the women-only focus group discussion, which took place at one woman's house at the northern district.

7.3.1 Socio-cultural condition

In Abou Ghosun, according to the Village Council statistics, more than 87% of the population is illiterate; however, there is 10 month adult literacy programme, started in 2003, for men and women. Only three persons have university education and they are all men. However 19 men and eleven women have a middle level of education such as a diploma in commerce or vocational education. There is a small primary school (from year one to year six), which is managed and operated by nine teachers. Students who want to continue their education have to attend preparatory school (from year seven to year nine) in Hamata and secondary school (from year ten to year twelve) either in El Quseir, or in Marsa Alam. Currently there are 169 boys, 31 girls in the primary grades, eight boys, and six girls in the preparatory school. All teachers are seconded from other locations like El Menia (in the Nile Valley) or Quseir, and are only in the settlement during the school semesters, and leave during the vacations, apart from a few who have settled at the settlement. Abou Ghosun, is considered to be medium sized in terms of population and its built area. Table 7.2 illustrates the population distribution according to age and sex. It shows that 44.0% of the district

Table 7.2: Abou Ghosun population distribution

Abou Ghosun				
No. of Inhabitants	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**	
Below 6 years	64	78	142	17%
Between 6 & 15 years	185	46	231	28%
Between 15 and 65 years	253	180	433	53%
Above 65 years	10	4	14	2%
Total	460	360	820	
	56%	44%	100%	

Source: Village Council data in Abou Ghosun (2007)

population is female, 56.0% male. 45% of the district population is below 15 years old and about 53% are between 15 and 65. Less than 2% of the population is older then 65 years. The average family size is 4.4 persons per family.

The economic activity for those living near from the main road was focused on employment with the phosphate mine. Most of the leaders of the community are the older people. A few participants pointed to relatives working at the village council. Most of the younger people have no regular work apart from those who work in construction as a considerable number of tourism resorts are under construction. Nevertheless it was noticed that a number of local people, particularly men over 25 years, are working in tourism activities as hired help on safari boats or desert safari they have sailing and guiding experience. A smaller portion seems to be engaged in fishing, selling their produce to small cafeterias. This category includes men over 40 years.

7.3.2 Physico-ecological condition

The fieldwork survey found that almost 75% of the settlement houses are built of stone and typically these have two sleeping rooms, one kitchen and one washing facility with septic tank toilets. Figure 7.13 shows part of the formal settlement in the northern part of Abou Ghosun. However 25% of the houses are considered as slums; the local community calls the dwellings *"eashaa"* which means small wooden shelter. The shelters are located in the southern part of the bay; they are built with pressed wooden blocks and sheets. Figure 7.14 shows part of the informal settlement at the southern part of Abou Ghosun. Almost all inhabitants, say they have enlarged their houses using the adjacent space to add extra rooms. A few householders mentioned not having a private washing facility or toilet and several mentioned not having a kitchen. Electrical equipment and household facilities owned by the households are mentioned in rank order as follows: cooking stove, television sets, refrigerators, radio, fans and washing machine. Local people indicated, *"Generally speaking the settlement suffers from the lack of services and infrastructure. The existing services are hardly satisfying the old settlement, which accounts for 30% of the settlement. However, the settlement still receives immigrants from both the*

surrounding villages and the deep-range. People are quite poor and looking for any income possibilities".

Although there are restrictions on the use of the diesel generators, electricity is available on a daily basis from 7 am to 11 am and from 7pm – to 11pm, during special occasions electricity is available from 12 pm to 2 am. Television reception generally requires a satellite antenna to receive the Egyptian broadcast channels (through exceptionally sometimes during summer time reception is good enough without a dish). Currently, there is one health unit, two coffee shops, and mosque in addition to the primary school. The health unit lacks an office for birth and death registration and the local people have to travel to register their births or death in Marsa Alam (see Table 7.3).

Figure 7.13: The formal houses at north of Abou Ghosun

Figure 7.14: The informal houses at south of Abou Ghosun

The health unit lacks equipment and medicines; in addition the doctor in charge is a young graduate (a general practitioner) so it cannot offer the best quality of services. There are four grocery shops, which are owned by local residents, among which one is owned by a woman entrepreneur who runs the business with her children. Usually family

members would operate the shop and share their revenues. It was noticed that some tourists' boats, which are moored at the Abou Ghosun marina, buy their stores from the shops. There is an informal agreement whereby each boat supplies its grocery needs according to a rotation system, as a step towards equally shared incomes. There are also three coffee shops; only one is locally owned; others are owned by outsiders who started these businesses recently to provide services to tourists.

Table 7.3: Services and facilities historical timeline

Year	Service
1965	Registration of fisherman cooperative registered in Hurghada .
1966	Ababda people register their Identity cards for the 1st time in El Quseir.
1967	Immigrations came from Nubia and Nile Valley.
1986	Start up of Bernice village, Hamata and Abou Ghosun as its surroundings.
1987	One class-room school attended by 10 pupils.
1988	Introduction of electricity (10 days per month).
1992	Marsa Allam with attachments of villages became a center independent from El Quseir and local community could register their identity, death and births.
1993-94	Introduction of the ground water desalination station, before villagers used to drink from wells or the water brought by the boats from the sea or from El Quseir and distributed by tractor. CDA establishment.
1995	Establish the primary school; introduction of health unit and mosque.
2000	The RSG established local office for supply and provision.
2001	Beginning of tourism development in the area.
2003	Introduction of Adult Literacy Programme for 10 months by for men and women.

Source: Adopted from the fieldwork (2007); TDA (2005a); RSG (2005); UPA (2000) and Sultan (1992)

One of the local people's leaders indicated that they set up the Community Development Association (CDA) in 1994. The CDA is confined to the general development of Abou Ghosun settlement only. The present general assembly consists of 45 members (40 men and four women) who pay a membership fee of EGP 6/year. The present board, which is composed of five male members, was elected during the most recent elections (April 2006). The present chairperson came ten years ago from the Nile Valley to work at Abou Ghosun School as a social science teacher.

The CDA currently runs at present a kindergarten that is owned by one of the local people and has a roll of 25 young children taught by two women instructors. The CDA's main sources of funds are the Ministry of Social Affairs and the annual subscriptions of the general assembly members. The overall capital of the CDA is EGP 21.000 received as

a grant by the Ministry of Social Affairs to cover the purchase of raw materials and other expenditure. Members from the CDA point out that the grant was used for the purchase of oil and covers expenses of the oil stations and their maintenance, and for infrastructure expenses such as purchase of water trucks, water distribution system, electricity poles, generators and the garbage collection truck. The CDA owns a fish kiosk used as an outlet for fish selling, this however closes for six months every year due to lack of refrigeration.

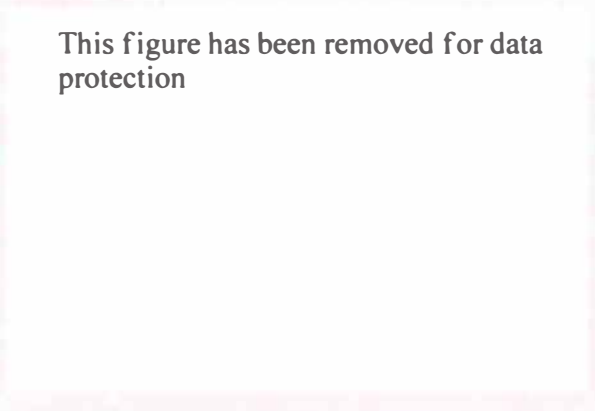


Figure 7.15: Abou Ghosun kindergarten

7.3.3 Politico-economic condition

The Abou Ghosun local community indicated that the adjacent tourism development influences their life although it is located within the RSG territory and they are not threatened as are local people in Quala'an. It was noticed that the tourism development affects the economic status since new sectors have been emerging recently supported by the tourism sector whilst others have disappeared. Further details about the current economic sectors are supplied below.

Fishing

> *"Hotels and tourists resorts not only took fishermen's sharms and bays and their security denies fishermen rights to use it as access to the sea or to fish in the surrounding area but resort operators also refuse to buy our fish"* .
>
> Statement by one of the local people

According to the CDA around 30 fishermen are still in business which means that less than 4 % of the total local population is involved in the fishing business. These fishermen come particularly from the southern part of the bay. Other economic activities such as

mining, tourism, construction and government have arisen recently and encourage local fishermen to change their jobs particularly those in the northern district. In Abou Ghosun, at present there are eight sailing boats owned by fishermen. Usually each fishing boat is operated by three to four fishermen who spend either one whole day or a couple of days at sea at a time. Income from fishing is divided between parties: one third goes to the owner, one-third goes to the fishermen on the boat and one share is retained for the boat and used to cover maintenance expenses. Fishing is practiced with nets or hooks from fishing boats. Men and women use the two first modes while the use of boats is confined to fishermen, as they may go on sea journeys that last for days.

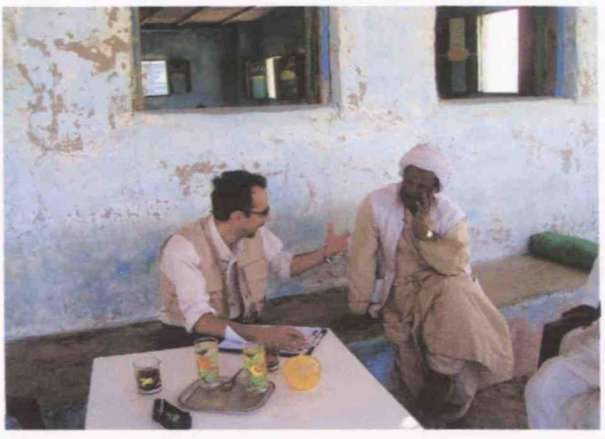


Figure 7.16: Semi structured interview with Sheikh 'Gharieb' the fishermen's leader

As in Quala'an the lack of ice and refrigeration facilities is considered as a serious problem. Despite the attempts of the local population to address the issue through the local CDA, problems with the electricity led to the failure of their efforts. In addition, the remoteness of Abou Ghosun from Marsa Alam made the cost of transporting ice, or fuel for the electric generator, extremely high. The limited quantity of fish brought in by the villagers with their limited equipment is either consumed in their homes, sold to the cafeterias or to the outlet fish kiosk which is owned by the CDA on the main road, or marketed to the vendors who come once a week to deliver the ice blocks and receive fish

Figure 7.17: Focus group discussions with the local community

in return. Nevertheless fishermen indicated that workers and employees from surrounding tourism projects frequently buy fish from them, mainly from projects under construction. In contrast, fishermen do not gain any benefits from the operating resorts. But they pointed out *"motorized boats have a larger capacity that would enable us to sell to merchants or resorts since our limited capacity does not encourage them to buy from us. In addition that would create more job opportunities for the local community. A motorized fishing boat normally creates 6-8 job opportunities"*.

Tourism

Officially less than 2 % of the people in Abou Ghosun are employed in tourism as permanent employees. Men with middle level of education who can read and write work in the diving and safari centres and some resorts. An important argument materialized within the semi-structured interviews with resort managers who indicated, *"Local people are hard to employ to interact directly with the tourists for the reason that they lack education and communication skills. In addition they are lazy, stubborn and uncooperative. Housekeeping, irrigation and recycling are considered as the only suitable jobs for them. Otherwise they need intensive capacity building programmes to improve their ability"*.

Focus group discussion with the local community indicated that not many people from the Ababda tribe are involved in tourism. Some of them are committed to their traditional sources of income such as camel trading and deep-range inhabitants tend to be very selective in the types occupations they would consider. Thus, for example they would not work as waste collectors or in housekeeping. They consider their experience to be valuable and see themselves as owners of the place and thus as deserving better jobs. Conversely, the majority understand the opportunities provided by the tourism sector and they claim that it is more profitable to host tourists for a short time at the cafeterias or to sell handicrafts. Community members, however, complain that the tourism guides restrict involvement by tourists and do not allow them to intermingle with the local community. Moreover tour guides capture most of the profit for themselves, which deprives the local people of profit. Local inhabitants commonly believe that it is due to their lack of English language proficiency that the tourist guides cheat them.

Handicrafts Production

Handicrafts production is an activity that is at present confined to women. In the past, male members of the local community, particularly Ababda men, were known to manufacture leather articles such as belts, small bags and shoes. Almost all women of all age categories at the settlement can produce bead work, while weaving of *kelim* mats is generally confined to most of the older generation of women. Apart from bead work, women also produce straw and leather articles. There are several other handicraft articles that are produced from wool, such as small carpets, as well as leather goods from the goats, or beadwork (beads are purchased by the neighboring markets of Aswan, Marsa Allam or El Quseir). Marketing of the items is very limited to the few tourists who pass through the village. One woman indicated that neighbour markets her handicrafts through a grocery shop located on the main road. For a necklace made of beads for example, the neighbour would charge EGP 2 as commission. The cafeteria is another outlet for the handicrafts (see section 8.5.1). Usually the items shown in displays have been produced in Aswan, and are of a clearly better quality than the ones of Quala'an.

Figure 7.18: Handicrafts produced in Abou Ghosun

Livestock

Unlike Quala'an only 2 % of the population are actually involved in herding, primarily in Abou Ghosun, where herding is considered as a solo activity. According to the focus group discussion fewer than 20 families sell milk or meat. Otherwise the majority keep animals around their homes such as sheep, goats and sometimes camels which is an established traditional practice among the Ababda. Settlers in Abou Ghosun do not keep their animals in separate shelters but leave them to roam around during the day and at night lock them into their courtyards.

Employment

The available employment opportunities provided by the government are limited given the high rate of illiteracy; opportunities in the governmental sector are scarce but include positions in the village council, in the health unit and the school administrative or technical positions. Interviews with officials from the village council indicated that among the 23 employees of the village council, there are two women employees from the local community who work in the administration and six men who work in different units. The remaining employees work in the technical section such as driving or maintaining cars and electricity supply; they are outsiders from the northern part of the Red Sea region or from the Valley as are all 23 village council employees and the only woman teacher employed at the school. Furthermore the 45 members of the CDA earn only small amounts of money as they are considered to be volunteers who serve the community. In addition there are the privately owned businesses; four grocery stores and three cafeterias. Other private businesses can be found at the Abou Ghosun settlement; see for example Box 7.1.

Mining

Initially the area was considered as a mining area and belonged to the National Geological Authority. The area had a private mining company for talc and phosphate owned by foreigners. There was a harbour for the export of the products through sailing boats. After the company was nationalized, it was taken over by the Abou Ghosun Company. Although the government official data considers mining to be the main economic sector in the village, the local community presents a different view. Recently, since the area has received tourism development attention there is much more consideration of the environment. A number of regulations linked to environmental conservation have been applied. Such regulations assume that mining is a source of pollution since the extracted phosphate and talc have to

Figure 7.19: Port Safaga

be crushed before transportation to Safaga port for export, which leaves behind a cloud of dust layers for hundreds of metres (Figure 7.19). Thus mining is threatening natural resources for tourism and industry in the area. Mine owners were given limited time to upgrade and improve their equipment to respond to increased environmental concern. This meant that crushing machines needed to be replaced or moved to another site in the mountains but this was not feasible. In view of the fact that the area is witnessing a considerable trend to tourism development, most of the mining workers have switched to construction labour at resorts and tourism facilities that are under construction. Nevertheless a small number of local people work as guards for the mining equipment and have moved to live in the deep-range with their families.

Interviews with individuals who work in resorts construction indicated *"We are satisfied with the current wages; it is almost double what we used to get from the mining businesses and less effort; in addition construction contractors prefer local people because we do not cost them accommodation. However, it is not secure since we have no social insurance and when we finish the job we wait for another one to start"*. They point out that around 65 men work in the resorts currently under-construction as porters, builders, painters and carpenters; this accounts for almost 8% of the local residents. Most of them started as porters but those who have the talent and ability worked as assistants to become more specialized. The average wage is EGP 25 worker/day with an average income of EGP 550 monthly. An official from the village council stated, *"In a community like in Abou Ghosun it is not easy to talk about unemployment as the government considers most inhabitants are involved in the mining and traditional occupations of herding or fishing"*. According to the official records the average monthly income for a family consisting of four persons is around EGP 350, but - many local people deny this, saying the figure is lower. Under the government's Orban support scheme each household receives 25 kg of flour, 2 kg of sugar and 2 bottles of oil once a year. All inhabitants rely on the governments' in-kind support. In general, around 90% of the inhabitants have identity cards (RSG, 2005). The same percentage is also said to hold ration cards for supplies and provisions. Inhabitants receive social support for living in the desert conditions, which ranges between EGP 50-70 per month per person from

Marsa Alam. It was indicated that the local community's understanding of poverty refers to cases where the family has food, but very few assets; for example they may have two goats and live in poor living conditions, namely without comforts such as refrigerators or television sets. Usually such families include many household members. Thus the majority of the settlement inhabitants live below the poverty level (see section 7.6).

Box 7.1: A woman baker from Abou Ghosun

Fatima (not her real name) is a 45 years old widow from Ababda. She has five children, two girls and three boys. All her life has been living in the eastern desert, close to Abou Ghosun. More than 15 years ago, her families settled down on the desert side and built their own kiosk out of 20 pressed wooden sheets, which they had bought for EGP seven a sheet then (at present a sheet would cost EGP 35). Fatima's husband, who was working as the vendor for the supply and provision rations, had built a kiosk of the same make close to their home. 6 years ago after her husband's death she started to receive a monthly pension of EGP 115.

Figure 7.20: A woman baker from Abou Ghosun

Even though she and her husband were illiterate, they sent their two girls to school at one of the Nile Valley cities. The youngest boy has finished the preparatory school and plans to attend the secondary school in Marsa Allam, where he will be staying at a relative's house. Since Fatima has an Identity card she benefits from the 'Orban support scheme'. Every 10 days her household gets the water supply from the village council, which is not enough. Thus, once a month they buy water (200 liters) for EGP 15-20 from the trucks on the main roads, which they ask to deliver the water to their shelter.To support her family for which she became responsible after her husbands' death, she thought of starting a bakery from her home. Every day she spends 4 hours for her business preparing the dough (3 hours) and baking the bread (1 hour). She buys a sack of flour (25 kg) for EGP 14 and a butane gas baking cylinder every 2-3 days for EGP 11 from the traders from the main road. Fatima bakes only once in the morning and usually the whole quantity she prepares is sold out. Her regular customers are employees, who are not local residents, such as the men teachers, resort staff and the other village council employees. Sometimes there are local residents who come to buy from her. She sells 4 loaves of bread for EGP 1, thus making a tiny profit margin for herself. In addition they keep some goats. She owns a sewing machine and used to work as a tailor and she can also do beadwork but does not prepare any products, as there is no market for them. "This village is a sleeping village" she comments with her enthusiasm.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

7.4 Shalateen in context

Shalateen is the market for the southern part of the Red Sea region and is located about 200 km north of the Egypt-Sudan border. The city is considered as the trading point between the people who live at the northern part of Sudan and tribes who settled at the southern part of the Egyptian Red Sea region. According to the city council the settlement possesses about 6.5% of the total of the Red Sea region inhabitants (see Table 5.7). It contains a mixed group from Ababda, Bisharin and Rashaayda in addition to Nubians who were mainly from Upper Egypt and who moved and settled in the area after the Aswan high dam was established (see section 5.9.4). JICA and TDA (2002b) point out that in the south of the Red Sea Bedouin were considered nomads and lived in the Red Sea frontier governorates. These communities suffered marginalization for a long time; however the area attracted government attention when the political tensions in the southern triangle of 'Halaib, Shalateen and Abu Ramad' emerged in 1992 when the people who live on the Egypt-Sudan border made the border control difficult to maintain, because of their social, historical and economic relationships (TDA, 2005a). Therefore the national government and the RSG provided some public services (UPA, 2000) to attract the loyalty of local communities. These services focus on infrastructure, education and health services.

Figure 7.21: The north coastal site of Shalateen from the air

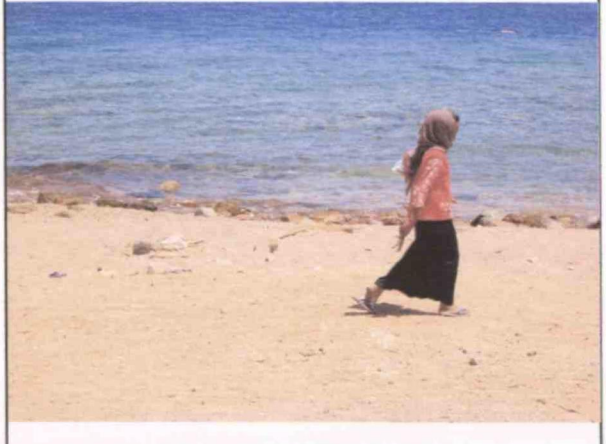


Figure 7.22: Shalateen coastal site

Although the government pays attention to the southern part of the Red Sea particularly Shalateen which is considered as the capital of the south, it still suffers from the insufficient services, due to the lack of public services, facilities and infrastructure.

Schemes, which provide jobs for local communities such as the Trans-boundary Natural Resources Management Approach (TNRMA) was launched[2]. The TNRMA was aimed to involve the local community, as rangers and guards through community-based management projects for the protected area of Gabel Elba (UNDAF and WFP, 2006). The TNRMA employs local communities' experience to protect the natural and cultural resources in the natural protected area near the Egyptian-Sudan border. As a result, local communities who live at *wadis* moved to the settlement in order to benefit from these services (RSG, 2005).

The settlement possesses around 10.000 inhabitants, and this is expected to rise to 15.000 within a few years. EEAA (2001) points out such significant immigration will not only change the demographic character of the area but also will change its economic aspects. This in turn will put severe pressure on the natural environment. The area encompasses more than 1500 hectares at the northern area, suitable for fishing activities. In addition the western site has a number of mining sites, and the central mining department. Furthermore the southern site contains areas suitable for husbandry activities. RSG (2005) argues that the area may present one of the most promising tourism destinations in the future once the road link between Shalateen and Aswan is established and when agricultural and urban development in the area is finished. Leaders explore and determine local communities' needs from different tribes who share the responsibility with the RSG since 1995. The Shalateen community considers tourism to be a newly emerging issue. Tourists visit the area at regular intervals to experience local cultural traditions, activities, and festivals and to buy handicrafts.

The study plan for Shalateen included four focus group discussions, which consisted of two discussions for men and another two for women. The pilot survey approached the key persons in the settlement and identified that two committees in charge. The formal City Council consisting of local community members and government employees linked

[2] The Trans-boundary Natural Resources Management Approach (TNRMA) is the active course under Natural Resources Management Approach agenda which is a part of Community-based natural resources management initiative programme sponsored by the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) and the World Food Program (WFP).

to the RSG, is responsible for settlement management, infrastructure, services, and future plans, etc (see section 5.6). The other committee consists of older people who have much more social interest. It manages communal issues, fishing, mooring systems and camel markets. The first men-only focus group discussion took place at the social centre and included members from the local community and officials from the City Council. Nine participants were invited from amongst the formal committees and local people; however, the total number of participants by the end of the meeting was twelve. It lasted for four hours divided into two sessions, which lasted for two hours each.

Figure 7.23: Focus group (A) with participants from the city council

The second focus group discussion took place at the local community leaders' traditional meeting place (see Figure 7.24) with eight participants. Participants in the second focus group were closely linked to the original inhabitants so they were able to recommended contacts for the semi-structured interviews in the deep-range and provided real help with holding the women-only focus group. An unexpected obstacle arose as women in urban areas at Shalateen found focus group discussion an inappropriate technique for them, since there are no social relationships between women in this area, where women are subservient to men. As such they found semi-structured interviews gave them more opportunity to express themselves. Therefore five women participated in the women-only focus group discussion, which took place in the suburban area linked to Shalateen. It took place at the

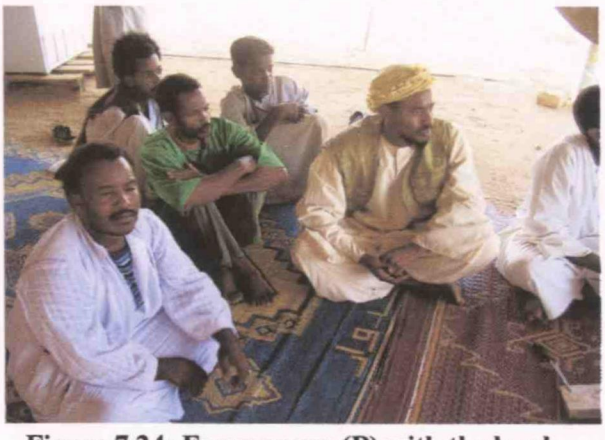


Figure 7.24: Focus group (B) with the local community

home of one of the women. However, semi-structured interviews took place with three women in urban areas.

7.4.1 Socio-cultural condition

The latest census held by the RSG shows that there are around 2000 families in the settlement. Table 7.4 illustrates the population distribution according to the age and sex. It shows that 47 % of the district population is women, 53% men. Over a third (37%) of the settlement population is below 15 years old and 61% are between 16 and 65 years old. Only 2% of the population is older then 65 years. The average family size is 5.1 persons per family. In comparison to Quala'an and Abou Ghosun less than 50% of the 20+ population of Shalateen are illiterate. Most of the young people attend the school; however, as in Abou Ghosun there is an adult literacy programme started in 2003 for men and women. Only 4.2% of the community has a higher level of education or university degree, with a total number of 440 inhabitants in this category (RSG, 2005). They can be divided in to 70 women and 370 men. There are 697 inhabitants (30% of them are women) who hold middle level of education such as a vocational education diploma in commerce. According to the fieldwork survey and the officials from the RSG, 95% of inhabitants who hold high or middle level of education are immigrants from the Nile Valley, these people work as government employees or have private businesses (official statistics do not detail the origins of individuals).

Table 7.4: Shalateen population distribution

Shalateen				
No of Inhabitants	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**	
Below 6 years	707	756	1463	15%
between 6 & 15 years	1244	958	2202	22%
Between 15 and 65 years	3170	2913	6083	61%
Above 65 years	123	76	199	2%
Total	5244	4703	9947	
	53%	47%	100%	

Source: Estimated by the City Council in Shalateen (2007)

The City Council in Shalateen points out that there are two primary schools serving 87% of the pupils between six to twelve years old; together they have a total capacity of 1400 students[3]. The preparatory and the secondary school, with total capacity of 700 students, provide education services for students between 13 to 18 years old, and are managed and operated by teachers from the cities of the Nile Valley. There are vocational and commercial institutes under construction. Students who want to continue their education have to attend the university or specialized institutions in the southern cities of the Nile Valley such as Aswan. Nevertheless official statistics shows that the illiteracy rate is 44.8% of the population (RSG, 2005).

Although the government aims to support local communities in the area, doing this changes the community's composition (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). Providing services and infrastructure not only attracts new inhabitants from the mountain but also creates a focus of interest for immigrants from the Nile Valley. Therefore the community of Shalateen has witnessed rapid changes during the last 15 years. Different communities are easily distinguished according to their roots; nevertheless, these mixed groups live and work together harmoniously. They even share one vision linked to community development as tourism development is targeting all the community and its consequences affect them all. On the other hand, despite the attention given by the government, the community suffers from the nearby development, which has different effects among different groups. For instance fishermen criticize tourism development and the large scale fishing companies which have recently come to the surrounding area. Camel traders claim that the recent attention provided by the government puts them under pressure because this development not only attracts traders from different places but also they are being asked to pay taxes to the government. "*We used to bring Camels from north of Sudan to Shalateen and other traders from Cairo and Nile Valley take them from here. The price depends on the seasons and it is hard to calculate. The government not only established an estimated fixed price based on the average value and the profit for tax,*

[3] It was noticed that although the education at the primary, preparatory and secondary level are free and supported by the government, 23% of the pupils at the age between 6 to 12 years old and 34% of the pupils at the age between 13 to 18 years old do not attend school and they work to help their parents.

which is usually more than we can pay, but also, for security reasons, it put several procedures for camels traders in terms of roads and tracks which in reality are considered as troublesome procedures although we have nothing to do with tourists" said one of local camels traders.

7.4.2 Physico-ecological condition

The fieldwork survey revealed that generally speaking, the settlement is divided into three parts. These parts have been developed incrementally over the last 75 years. The first and the oldest part took a strategic place on the Egypt-Sudan track for trading purposes. At this time Sudan and Egypt were considered as one country. A mixed group from Ababda and Bisharin established a small settlement in the western part of the area which grew steadily after the development of the national road by the British. Since then the area has played important roles for tribes on both sides mainly since the border had been drawn between Egypt and Sudan. One of the older people argued *"we still consider ourselves as part of both countries, we cannot be divided"*. Then another group, from Nubia, joined the settlement these people had evacuated the Nile Valley at the time when the High Dam was developed (see section 5.9.4). These people established the second part of the settlement close to the coastal site in the eastern part of the area. They worked as fishermen and established good relations with the people in the older part of the settlement. During this time a group from the Rashaayda people took part in supporting relations between different groups.

Figure 7.25: Facilities were provided by the RSG intensively during the last 15 years.

The third part is quite new and developed after the recent attention from the Egyptian government, which started about 15 years ago when the settlements grew dramatically. It

developed between the eastern and western part. The three parts are distinct in terms of their use of building materials, conditions and techniques. Unlike Abou Ghosun and Quala'an most of the houses in the settlement have formal and legal statues; nevertheless almost all inhabitants have, on their own account enlarged their houses to add extra rooms particularly after the government established the new infrastructure and the public facilities, away from the new part of the settlement. Nevertheless a number of shelters made from wooden blocks and sheets are scattered around the settlement. They serve as temporary accommodation for people who live in the deep-range. The settlement's main road takes a central location where most of the shops and facilities are allocated and this connects all parts together. Shops provide local people with food, clothes and building materials; however, a number of coffee shops and bazaars for tourists have been established recently. These shops provide tourists with herbs, handicrafts and snake and crocodile leathers bought from Sudan.

Currently, there is a moderately equipped health unit which offers birth and death registration with two ambulances and a family centre. The City Council assessed the need of the medical services as *"the health unit needs to be developed with at least eight beds and proper equipment*". There are two primary schools and one preparatory and the secondary school in addition to the vocational and commerce institutes which are under construction. Local people agree with the city council about the efficiency of the education facilities; however, both blame parents for their responsibility for young people who fail to attend school. An important argument was made by local people *"Although vocations and commerce are important for the local community, we believe it would be more practical if we had a tourism educational institute not only for young students but also providing training for all inhabitants"*. There are two social community centres and two playgrounds in addition to nine mosques, a police station and an oriental market. There is a television transmission unit and a local TV station, which is supported by the Aswan television transmission unit that is called the "South of *Wadi*". It focuses on local issues and supports local customs and traditions. Table 7.5 summarizes public services allocated in the settlement.

Despite these facilities local community members complain about the poor housing and lack of services, which compromise their culture and privacy, the lack of good quality potable water, inadequate electricity and, health services and poor or even no solid waste management. They argue that although attention has been given to developing the infrastructure, inappropriate design and management of toilets and latrines has resulted in significant impacts on the neighboring marine and coastal ecosystems as well as on Bedouin livelihoods. Problems arise due to the conflict of activities in the same area such as diving by tourists and fishing by local people, who complained about this.

Table 7.5: Shalatten public services

Services	Quantity
Primary school	2
Preparatory and secondary school	1
Health unit	1
Social community centres	2
Playground	2
Mosques	9
Police Station	1

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Tourists are usually interested in interacting with local people. They visit the camel market (see figure 7.26) and stroll in the surrounding area and purchase local handicrafts and herbs. They sometimes ride camels and enjoy oriental coffee *(Gabana)* and smoke *(Shisha)* in local cafeterias. Unlike Quala'an and Abou Ghosun local fishermen have quite big fishing boats and there is a private fishing company which buys fishermen's produce on a daily basis. In view of the fact that the coastal area is occupied by fishing equipment, tourists tend to be more interested in the local community and they rarely visit the coastal area.

Figure 7.26: Camels market in Shalateen

7.4.3 Politico-economic condition

It is clear that the main economic activities are: pastoralism as the main source of livelihood, trading between Egypt and Sudan including camels and other goods, some limited agriculture, fishing and handicrafts in addition to services and the government sector.

Fishing

The study indicated that 2.5% of the total population works in fishing, i.e. an average of 250 inhabitants. Fishermen in Shalateen used to have problems that are somewhat similar to those of Abou Ghosun with the lack of motor boats, but have recently found a solution by sharing the development cost of boats between five to seven fishermen with RSG support. Focus group discussion with local fishermen indicated that the Fishermen's Association in Shalateen has had previous experience with a lending programme for motorized boats. Five boats were offered by the governorate to the association. Each boat cost EGP 23,500 and was offered to the members on concessionary terms with one year grace period and acceptable monthly instalments for a period of six years. Shalateen had a large public-sector ice factory but the factory was closed down because it was not economic to continue operations as demand was not high enough. Nevertheless local fishermen still suffer from lack of ice for refrigeration facilities. Meanwhile, the fishermen believe that a small ice production unit seems to be more appropriate for their needs. One of the fishermen pointed out *"Although we have not got tourism facilities in the surrounding area and tourists are not interested in our coast it still affects our activities. We are not able to fish in the north. All bays and sharms were allocated for tourism activities. We are facing significant hardships".*

Tourism

The official statistics do not distinguish local people's sources of income apart from people who have stable work such as government employers. However, discussions with local people and officials from the RSG identified that around 2 % of the people in Shalateen are known to be employed in tourism as permanent employees. Employers only provided permanent jobs to local people who have at least a medium level of education. Men and a few women worked in resorts, diving and safari centres. It was

indicated that local shops, coffee shops and bazaars mainly provide their services for tourists. A discussion with local people indicated tourism would be a good opportunity for the local community particularly if the local community could communicate with tourists. It was noted that *"when a group of tourists visit the settlement, they walk around to eat wherever they want, buy from whoever they like"*. Thus, tour leaders have limited influence. Unlike the case in Quala'an and Abou Ghosun tourists act differently within a big community that offers a variety of activities. This may provide more interaction between tourists and the local community and in turn present opportunity for local people to gain more benefits from tourism. In contrast this freedom of experience given to tourists has negative effect as it was noticed that some local people experienced culture clash and were annoyed by tourists (see section 8.7).

Handicrafts

A number of local people are engaged in handicrafts particularly women and young people. Several products are made from beads, palm leaves, leaves, wood and leather to be displayed in the settlement and in other areas. In addition, some products are made from stone, marble, and camel bones. As elsewhere in the southern part of the Red Sea, marketing is the main constraint facing handicrafts, though to a lesser extent. The limited number of bazaars, coupled with the need for improved product quality and designs, combine to create marketing problems. Access to raw materials and inputs was also indicated as another obstacle despite the existence of the market.

Figure 7.27: Handcrafts produced in Shalateen

Livestock

Almost all of the local community engage in pastoralism and herding apart from immigrants from the Nile Valley who prefer raising pigeons, ducks and chickens. Families in Shalateen are practicing husbandry for self-sufficiency; however, it was indicated that there are a few local people who raise livestock as a source of income. Like

other local communities along the coast the majority of the local people keep livestock in the area surrounding their homes and in their court-yards.

Employment

As the settlement is large and possesses a number of government facilities and services there is a considerable number of employed people. The official statistics indicate that more than 350 employees work for the government at different levels, which means that around 3.6% are employed, by the government. Some of them work as permanent employees and others work as temporary employees, in addition to local people who are employed through the TNRMA (RSG, 2005). According to officials from the village council around 400 families are supported by the Orban support scheme. They get the same amount as the Abou Ghosun local community. It was obvious that all inhabitants have identity cards and ration cards for supply and provision apart from some government employees and some traders. It is understood that the local community at this settlement have a better quality of life in comparison to Quala'an and Abou Ghosun although a larger proportion of local people has no stable source of income.

7.5 Deep-range

> *"Throughout history Beja were described as hostile, and have been widely known as good warriors and a proud, brave people. For natives it must have been important to keep up this reputation, in order to protect themselves and their homeland; conversely, at present although they are quite poor and threatened by outsiders, they present extraordinary hospitality to strangers".*
>
> Krzywinski and Piece (2001)

Studies of local communities who live in the deep-range took place in *wadis* linked to the three coastal settlements surveyed. It is obvious that these people all live in similar circumstances. They consider the desert and the mountain as their homeland even if they have other alternative accommodation (see Box 7.3). They are known to be the original dwellers of the area and any outsiders will not be more than temporary visitors. Only the Ababda people and a small number of Bisharin live on the deserts that originally belonged to the Beja people. Since they are hard to survey, the government has no exact numbers and no demographic statistics about people who live in the deep-range.

Nevertheless some studies estimate that inhabitants in deep-range areas in the southern part of the Red Sea number around 15.000 (see section 5.10). Each inhabited site is occupied by a single family with an average of five persons. They are completely without services and are isolated from the outside world; this isolation supports and conserves their customs and traditions. Deep-range people are known to be desert seekers, whose main subsistence occupation is herding. Other Ababda people, who later came to live close to the coast have quickly acquired fishing as an additional occupation for themselves.

From the area of Marsa Allam- Edfu north to Shalateen there are 44 wells which are well known by the inhabitants. Anybody, men and women community members, may get their water from the wells with no restrictions (Sultan, 1992). However, desert plots are informally distributed and owned among the Ababda clans and any family which wants to settle in another clan's plot has to ask the clan concerned for permission, which might be granted or refused. Being allowed to move on to another clan's plot means that this land has to be protected and preserved and returned in the same condition as it was handed over (Krzywinski and Piece, 2001). This means that no tree should be cut and no damage is to be done to the land. And for both the Ababda who live close to the coast, and the fisher people, it is widely known that young and small size fishes are not allowed to be taken out of the water and if they are caught, they must be returned to the water immediately. Semi-structured interviews with official rangers from EEAA indicated *"The level of awareness among the Ababda people to preserve their environment is very high. Cutting trees in the deep-range or in the coastal sites (mangrove trees) is considered a crime, for which the local tribal jury would request a fine be paid by the violator"*.

It was observed that particular places in the deep-range attract tourists (see section 6.8). These places are informally located inside the influence area of the Ababda who have more experience about the area than tour leaders do. Although some of them point out that tourists annoy the local inhabitants and disturb the wildlife, the majority find it an opportunity for additional income. While the Ababda people have tracking and desert survival experience, their lack of finance and communication skills prevents them from

gaining real benefits from tourism. Interviews with individuals from deep-range communities and the private sectors show that owners of resorts, diving and safari centres employ Ababda people as trackers, guards and facilitators (see Box 7.2).

Box 7.2: Employ local community experience

Ali (not his real name) was an ex-military man who worked for the border control service, has set up a small private desert safari company that offers jeeps, camels and motorcycle tours for who enjoy desert safari. His good relations with the military helped him obtaining the necessary licences to operate in the mountains. He works with clients from the operated hotels and resorts in the surrounding area. He employs two staff members, one person from the Nile Valley who speaks some English and one local Ababda from Wadi Abou Ghosun who is responsible for the kitchen and the coffee shop. This Abady provides fresh bread which is baked in the sand, in heat from the glowing coals of fire and also the Gabana. Ali constructed a small camp in the deep-range, where he built a shelter. A local Bedouin family takes care of the place and offers tea and bread to visitors. The wife of the Bedouin makes also carpet-weaving demonstrations for the visitors. He likes to work with local people, but argues "You can use Bedouins for certain work only as they are not use to work with tourists and have to be trained first. The hotels here in the area are neither interested in nor have the time to train them, even though they should. Also the government should be more committed to the development of the tourism related skills for the local people". He feels that his own capacity is too small to train staff.

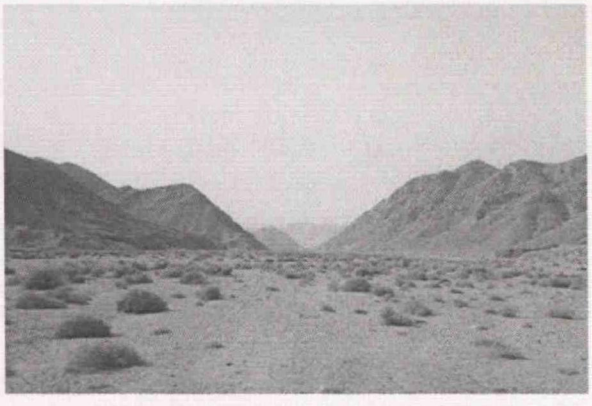


Figure 7.28: Wadi Abou Ghosun entrance to the deep-range

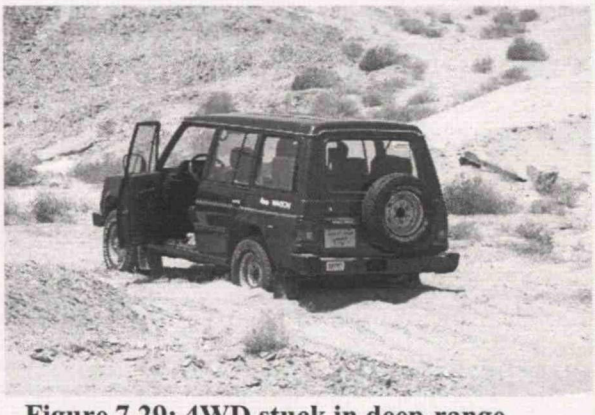


Figure 7.29: 4WD stuck in deep-range

He considers that the southern part of the Red Sea communities do not really benefited from tourism, as tourism focuses mostly on diving and nothing has been developed so far in the deep-range. According to him, the hotels block direct access to the sea for local people and have already taken away some of the best pieces along the beach. The local communities have not been involved in any steps of the tourism planning and are hardly involved in the current tourism operations. They have been left behind and rich investors from Cairo and Egyptians from the Nile Valley have made profits". A major problem for him is the lack of communication facilities. He cannot notify the Bedouins in advance of his arrival. He also has communication problems with the Bedouins of the area and failed to formalize an agreement on how to use their place and remunerate them for their services.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

On the other hand, some local people in the deep-range are employed through the TNRMA, private guesthouses, safari centres or mining operations; in addition they are being supported by the Orban support scheme (see section 7.3.3). It is understood that individuals who live in the deep-range are supported by public services provided in the coastal settlements, and have settled there. Deep-range inhabitants are requested to register with the nearest health unit for their child immunizations or other medical attention if there is a need. The deep-range inhabitants leave their children with relatives in the coastal settlement who look after them and supervise their education.

Figure 7.30: An Ababda couple rebuild a hut

Because they live far away from civilization deep-range inhabitants are forced to use distant markets to obtain their goods and to receive other services as previously mentioned. They thus travel to remote towns and cities such as Marsa Alam and even Aswan in the Nile Valley. Local people in the deep-range enjoy settling down at one place and at the same time retaining their liberty of movement at all times. Usually each move takes them not very far from their existing site. They may move within the same *wadi* but to different locations. Nevertheless interviews with officials from the RSG indicated *"Anyone who lives in the deep-range can apply to the city council to own a house in one of the villages they choose. Obtaining a house in a village does not exclude one's right to set up another shelter in the desert. Among the deep-range people placing a shelter in the desert is a necessity without which they cannot survive. Even if their homes in the villages are luxurious compared to their life in the desert, and they are furnished with electrical appliances, the people would still rush back to the desert and stay there as long as possible"*. On the other hand, discussions with the local community showed that this is not entirely true at least for the younger generation (see Box 7.3).

Tribal members who dwell in the desert do not own fixed places for their houses as they place their shelters according to the grazing areas and nearby wells. The shelter itself can be made of tin, built of wood, textile or a combination of these materials (see sections 5.9.4 and 5.10). The nomadic origin of the Ababda people is clearly manifest in the high mobility of its people. Wherever rain falls and the first desert grass appears, they will encamp with their tents and herds. The husband's occupation is also an important factor which determines the family's location. If the husband is not involved in any occupation in the surrounding settlements but is working in the mines located in the *wadis*, the dwelling place would be in the desert. If these people settle in a village they always retain their shelter in the desert and then periodically rotate between the village and the desert. Once in the desert they are constantly on the move accompanying their herds through valleys and mountains.

Box 7.3: A case of mobility

A 35-year-old woman, Aziza (not her real name) lives in the deep-range, who is married and has 3 children. Her husband works as a technician in the garage of the Geological Authority, which manages the mining business. They live in Wadi wadi Kabb for 10 years ever since they got married. The couple is cousins and are members of the EL Hasna clan belonging to the Ababda tribe. They also use a flat allocated to them by the city council in Marsa Alam. It is fully furnished with a television, washing machine and a fridge. They usually keep it closed and live in the desert in their wooden kiosk. Their eldest daughter goes to school in Marsa Alam and is hosted by her sister's family. Every three weeks Aziza's husband hires a car to take her to Marsa Alam to stay with her daughter for one week. In the desert, she keeps camels, goats, sheep, a donkey, chicken and pigeons. During her absence all the animals stay on their own when her husband is at work. When she comes back from Marsa Alam she brings along the food supply, which she buys from the groceries and consumer cooperative of the city. Both she and her husband share the responsibility for bringing water from the well to water their animals. They receive drinking water for free from the truck of the Geological Authority which fills their tank on a weekly basis. Aziza goes either on her own or with her husband to the market in one of the Nile Valley cities 160 Kms away. There she can obtain the wool she uses for her kelim waving. Aziza usually visits the health clinic in Marsa Alam every 3 months to receive her contraceptive injection. Her identity card as well as their marriage certificate is issued from Marsa Alam.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Local people in the deep-range take part in festivities linked to their traditional culture. These occasions mark the major events of their life cycle, such as birth, marriage and funerals. The periodic celebrations are related to rain and for instance going on

pilgrimage. The period marked out for celebrations ranges between one day as in the case of rain or pilgrimage and up to 40 days as in the case of marriage. The average time for celebration however for the major life events is found to be one week. The festivities for those celebrations focus on food and music. The main dish in the food is meat for which at least one animal is slaughtered. The spirit of the festivity is enlivened through the melodies played on the traditional stringed instrument. In some cases two men demonstrate sword play.

Deep-range and mountain inhabitants all refer to the traditional tribal customary law to solve their disputes. Refusing to do so, and instead reporting to the police or using the governmental law, is considered to bring disgrace on the people doing so. Thus in the case of disputes the two parties concerned refer to the village head *"sheikh"*, or the tribal elder or the person most knowledgeable in tribal matters. In some cases several others are invited to the meeting but the decisions remain with the elder. The punishment for inflicting harm on another person is the payment of a penalty in camels, goats or sheep depending on the size of the loss. Such decisions have to be executed. It is permitted for the aggressor or the victim to refer to the head of another local sub-tribe. After that however the judgment becomes mandatory and has to be fulfilled. However, it was noticed that they are following the Islamic inheritance law, which entitles women to half the property of their men. According to the customary traditional law, the distribution of the inheritance is not recorded in any official inheritance notification or declaration. The items for inheritance are not distributed until one year after the death of the deceased relative.

7.6 Summary

This chapter has outlined the main characteristics for the selected case study communities by bringing together information collected by different qualitative methods such as semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and observations. Fieldwork survey data have been presented and analyzed in this chapter to describe the local circumstances and provide the essential background of each case study before proceeding to analyze specific

issues linked to the research questions. The current condition of each of the selected case study communities has been described, presenting different situations according to the size of settlements in terms of built area and community size. Although investigations in the deep-range took place in different *wadis* that are linked to the coastal settlements surveyed, the information is gathered into this one section because of the similarity of inhabitants' conditions. This chapter has sought to clarify the differentiation between them such as inhabitants' sources of income, way of life, traditions, level of community harmony and inhabitants social and cultural characteristics. These factors reflect different cultural perceptions concerning tourism development.

It is obvious that marginalization of local communities leads to different kind of poverty among local communities and the three communities show evidence of all three types outlined in the introduction (see section 7.1). It is understood that all the case studies in one way or another experience poverty at different levels. Since the poverty threshold is currently around EGP 900 per year for a three person family[4] the majority of the families interviewed can be said to live below poverty level with varying degrees of severity. The investigation shows a severe deficiency in basic social and public services and highlights the current weaknesses of the communities. Although in the Quala'an and Abou Ghosun cases, the communities are very strong and inter-connected; external factors are rapidly changing their lives. The local people lack the knowledge and basic negotiating skills to formalize the situation of the settlement and to have their experience and skills valued on the current market. The empowerment of the community through awareness, skills development to communicate with the authorities would be a powerful lever to lift them out of their current marginalized state.

[4] The poverty line is calculated as US$2 person per day accordingly US$150 is the poverty line for family consists from 3 persons which equal EGP 900 since American dollar is equal about EGP 6 (according to the Egyptian central Bank June-2007)

CHAPTER EIGHT:

CASE STUDY FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

(Local issues)

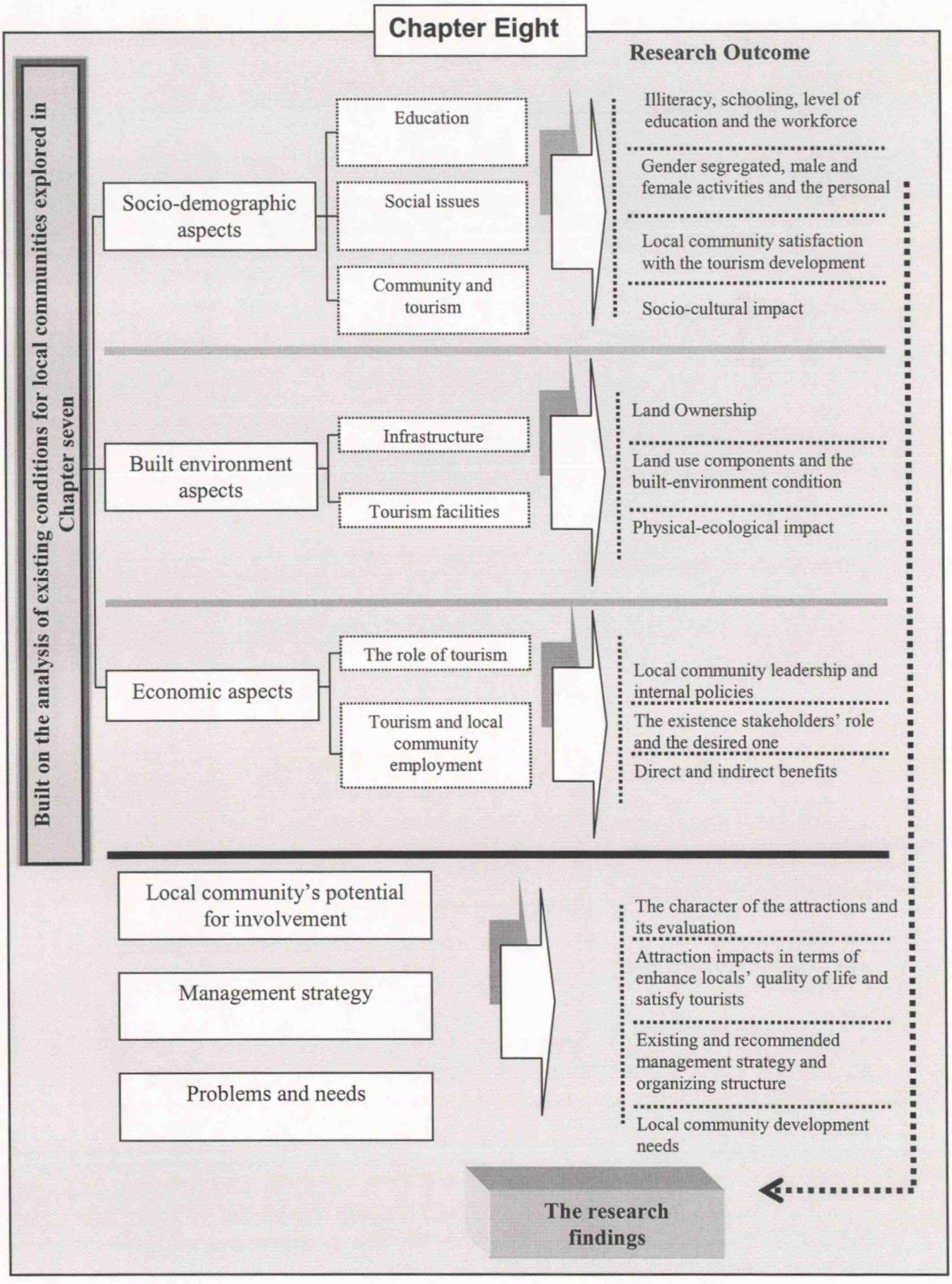


Figure 8.1: Chapter Eight structure

8.1 Introduction

This chapter explores in depth how the tourism industry influences local communities in the southern part of the Red Sea region. Building on the fieldwork of previous sections (see section 6.3) and considering the factors that influence local communities as outlined in Chapter seven, covering the local population's demographic profile and living conditions, this chapter analyses the implications for the case studies of their future integration into tourism development. The research topics explored previously in Chapter six were considered during the fieldwork as a framework for the questionnaires and focus group discussion guidelines for data collection, and as a structure for analysis of the findings.

Given that an array of both qualitative and quantitative data was gathered, different analysis methods are used which are employed according to the needs of the research. Consequently statistics linked to age, sex and the level of education of the local community (derived from official sources) are analyzed using quantitative techniques such as SPSS as well as information related to household and monthly income, which were gathered from semi-structured interviews. However, local communities' levels of satisfaction with the surrounding tourism development are analyzed using qualitative techniques. Furthermore information on settlements' conditions, local source of income, the social structure and the character of attractions, as gained from observations, are analyzed using qualitative techniques. In addition current levels of interaction, problems that hinder local community integration and the recommended management strategy which were gained from focus group discussions, are examined using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. As a result, stakeholders' visions in the context of the current and the future quality of tourism demand and supply are explored in addition to activities, traditions, life style and local possibilities, as the increase of tourism demand in the area (see section 5.8.4) will in turn influence the rise of certain types of tourism activities.

Understanding the meaning of local phenomena is a focus in this chapter, which is divided into two parts built on the background outlined in the previous chapter. Socio-

demographic, built environment and economic aspects are analyzed in depth to understand strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats facing local communities for tourism development integration. Secondly the chapter analyzes the participants' feedback in terms of local communities' potential, products and the character of attractions available; in addition it investigates the attractions highlighted and the likely impacts of the use of the various attractions for enhancing local people's quality of life, at the same time as satisfying tourists' expectations. Moreover the recommended management strategy and the possibility of structuring local communities' organizations are explored. Finally local communities' problems and needs are ranked (see Figure 8.1).

8.2 The social aspects

It is understood that the differences in the geographical location, natural features, size of the settlements and the volume and the structure of the population influence the type of tourism which may be developed at a site. Different kinds of tourists' demands and motivations exist, which are in turn reflected in the character of the interaction. The cases investigated, which present urban, semi-urban and rural settlements in addition to the deep-range inhabitants (see section 5.8.2), possess comparable demographic structures. Figure 8.2 shows that on average around 60% of the inhabitants are of working age. This may be considered as a potential that could support the development of local communities. Additional important demographic aspects are observed in each community and have been verified according to the research measures (see section 6.3) as discussed below.

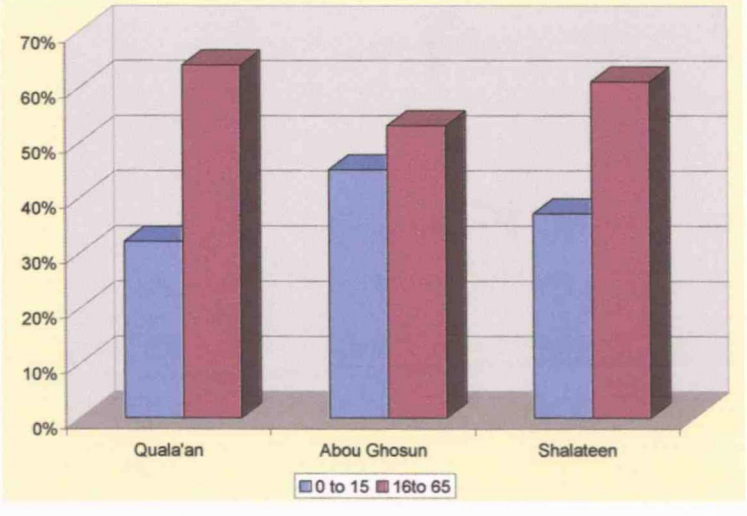


Figure 8.2: A comparison between the age structures in the three communities
Source: RSG (2005) and fieldwork survey (2007)

8.2.1 Illiteracy and schooling

The average illiteracy rate in the case studies (see sections 7.2.1, 7.3.1 and 7.4.1) is more than twice as high as the comparable rate in the Red Sea region. Generally speaking the illiteracy rate of the female population in the area is 66%.This is twice as high as the figure for the women in the Red Sea Governorate population (RSG, 2005). On average around 80% of the population of Quala'an and Abou Ghosun cannot read or write (see sections 7.2.1 and 7.3.1). Nevertheless it was noticed that some individuals in the local community have the ability to read and calculate and they are capable of dealing with tourists. According to the Central Department of Information in the Red Sea Governorate, 6.8% of the population in the area has a university degree; these people are only be found in urban settlements (Shalateen). This rate is twenty times higher than the same figure for the semi-urban areas and medium settlements such as Abou Ghosun, where only 3 people, equal to 0.4%, have graduated from a university. No women in the semi-urban or rural settlements have education above intermediate schooling level.

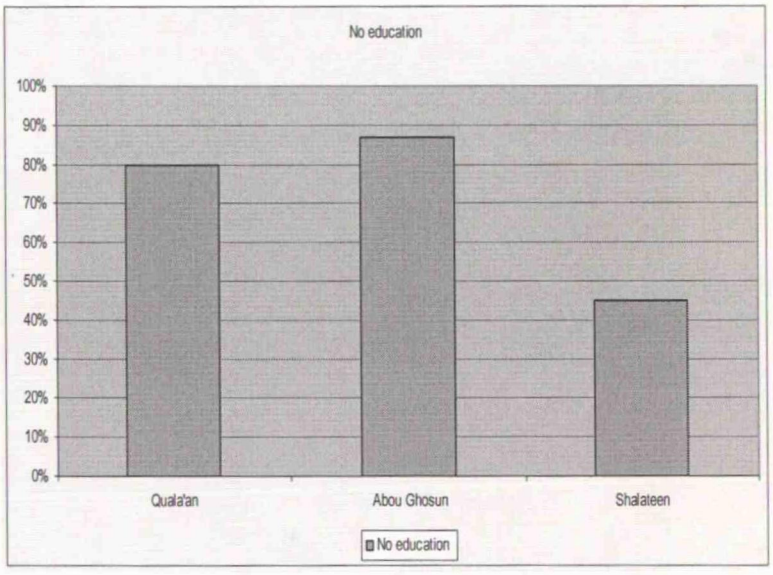


Figure 8.3: The percentage of the non-educated people
Source: RSG (2005) and fieldwork survey (2007)

8.2.2 Personal Status

All respondents in the study hold identity cards, apart from 10% of the Abou Ghosun community. This 10% is made up of women, who do not apply for identity cards until they are going to be married. Interviewees contacted in the study, both those living in the coastal settlements (Quala'an and Abou Ghosun) and in the deep-range, have pointed out

that local marriages take place without civil registration, since there are no registry available in the area. Thus tribal people wishing to get an official marriage certificate accepted by the government must travel to the nearest city. Some people did not have an official marriage certificate but had to obtain one when they wanted to register their children at school. An identity card is considered as an important reason for joining the Orban support scheme, particularly by inhabitants of the deep-range. Furthermore, for the interviewees identity cards are seen as essential in order to gain support from public services.

8.2.3 Gender segregated activities

In view of the harsh living conditions, male and female members of the local community are likely to share the various tasks necessary for their living. Activities which are always shared between men and women in the household are herding goats, sheep and camels. Fishing is shared by women and men of the coastal settlements' inhabitants and where fishing is the prime activity. Marketing, either buying goods for the household and/or selling any products of the household, specifically handicrafts, is an activity shared by men and women. Receiving compensation for services performed for tribal neighbours is uncommon for deep-range inhabitants, yet it is not always made and never in cash. Buying or selling items for one's neighbor in any market, regardless how far, is an activity performed and is distinct from the work of traders, who take commission. In some cases deep-range inhabitants carry out herding activity for other members of their tribe or for relatives living in the coastal settlements. In this case an agreement is made whereby the herdsmen can have one of the animals' offspring and use the animal's milk or have their children looked after in school. Consequently activities may be grouped into four main categories, namely:

- Household activities: supplying water for the household, erecting tents in the deep-range;

- Commercial activities: animal herding of goats, sheep and camels; fishing and marketing such as buying goods for household consumption and marketing handicraft products and animals;
- Handicrafts: production of *kelim* mats, making beads and accessories, weaving of straw baskets and beaten metal dishes;
- Employment: working for money in the private or public sector.

Some activities could be defined from a gender perspective and assessment of the distribution of those activities among the household members, as discussed below.

8.2.3.1 Men' s activities

It was noticed that there are activities always practiced by men particularly original local people people such as Ababda, Bisharin and Rashaayda. The cases interviewed revealed that they were working for the mining companies, usually as guards or drivers, and earn an average salary of EGP 200 a month; however, the new tourism facilities under construction provide job opportunities which pay EGP 350 a month which is considered barely enough for a household head to maintain his family. In addition the buying or selling of camels is an entirely male activity. But men are seldom involved in the production of leather items like bags, shoes or buckets for fetching water from wells for deep-range inhabitants and this is mostly limited to old men. Building or extending houses for coastal inhabitants or shelters for deep-range inhabitants is performed by men. In some cases the head of the family can ask some of his male relatives or friends to build his family shelter. Such activities are never rewarded financially.

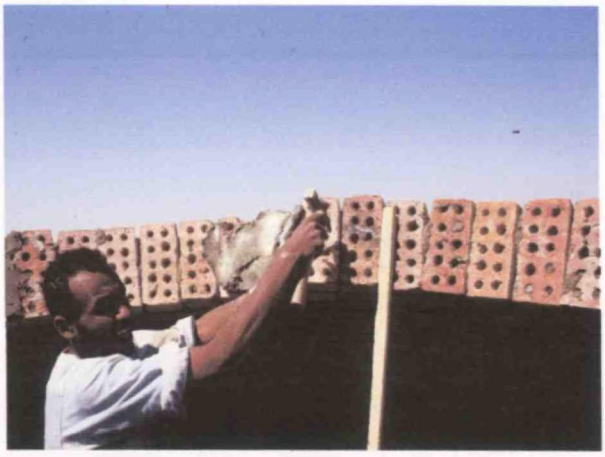


Figure 8.4: A man from the local community works in the tourism project under construction

8.2.3.2 Women's activities

Production of handicrafts such as *kelim* weaving, bead accessories, or weaving of baskets out of straw are women's activities. The finished products are usually meant for the maker's own use or are sold in the market. *Kelim,* for example are used as part of tent making or are used inside the tents as a cover or as a mat to sit on. It was observed that *kelim* are considered by tourists to be attractive handicrafts. Women are usually indirectly involved in tourism activities by providing such handicrafts or oriental food such as breads and oriental coffee *(Gabana)* without interacting with tourists (see Box 7.2).

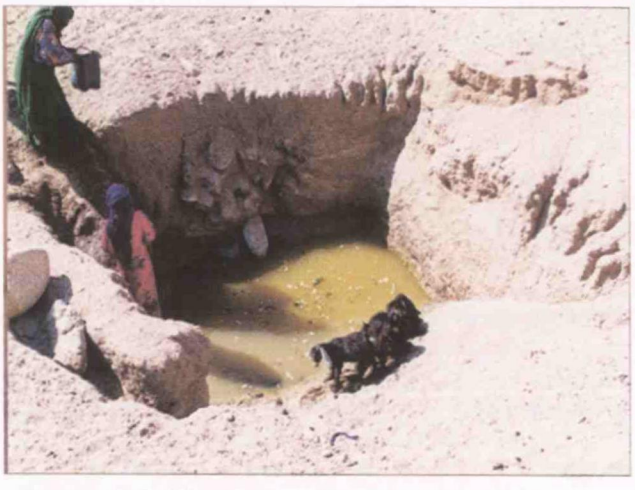


Figure 8.5: Women are sharing household responsibilities

8.2.4 Local communities and tourism development

Although TDA official statistics show that almost 235 projects have been approved as concessions since 2000, which consist of tourism facilities, restaurants, diving and safari centres and resorts (see section 5.9.3), the survey indicated that less than 10% of this number are operating and around 30% is under construction. Nine resorts with three, four or five stars are working in the area, operated by national and international management companies, all were built within the last five years. Five international diving centres are affiliated to the existing hotels and two eco-diving camps are linked to a third center located north of Marsa Alam in addition to bazaars, coffee shops and other tourism facilities. Interviews with the private sector and officials from TDA indicated that the delay in opening facilities is linked to the troublesome procedures that are required and the unstable building materials' market. The current resort capacity is around 2000 rooms (see Table 5.5). However, it should be recognized that tourists and visitors who stop over at local communities come from different places such as resorts north of Marsa Alam.

"The new road between Edfow (in the Nile Valley) and El Qusier (150 km north of Marsa Alam) encourages tourists staying in Luxor and Aswan to visit the Red Sea region and spend a couple of hours. Investors, who own hotels there and resorts here manage special packages for residents to visit the area" (comment by one of the investors). Furthermore the planned capacity for the area is expected to be reached within the next 10 years (see section 5.8.4). Investigation with the private sector shows that the tourism peak season lasts from November until April; however hotel occupation between May to October is around 55%.

Officially only 2% of local communities have an existing involvement in the tourism sector (as only the first source of income is considered officially). In Quala'an the local community considers itself to be a party in sharing in tourism benefits gained from the Quala'an guest house (see sections 7.2.3, 7.3.3 and 7.4.3). As part of the study design, individuals from the local community who work with the tourism sector were interviewed using semi-structured interviews and these were arranged within the focus group discussion[4] (see section 6.8.2.1). Nevertheless all respondents from more than 80% of the communities expressed their willingness to participate in the various tourism initiatives. Although many respondents mentioned they were aware of the potential disadvantages that might affect them, local communities are fully convinced of tourism's great positive potential if local people are integrated into the industry. They are aware that tourism is likely to provide a large market for income and employment generation with great advantages for all parties concerned. The community satisfaction survey responses for positive and negative statements on a five-point linker scale were summarized into variables (see section 6.6); however, important comments were taken into consideration that may help to explain particular phenomena.

Table 8.1 summarizes the results of the survey of local community satisfaction with tourism undertaken as a part of this research study. The majority of the local community

[4] SPSS output shows that 28.6% of the interviewees are directly working with the tourism sector and 13.6% are indirectly working with the tourism sector which rises to 24% if the construction workers and the private sector (coffee shop owner) are added which means that over 52.6% are benefiting from tourism development (see Annex G).

indicated that although tourism is an unstable source of income and it is considered as a secondary occupation, it brings benefits and generates money more than the traditional business and it helps to create unique local craft. However, the general impression for most participants is that they are marginalized from the surrounding tourism development and the government pays no attention to their rights. Furthermore local people believe that they are being excluded from their main source of income by the surrounding tourism development. They agree that benefits could be gained if they were involved and that can be seen from their positive and negative responses statements about tourism, as shown in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Summary of communities' satisfaction survey

	Community satisfaction	Percentage of respondents (n=22) (Local communities)				
		SD	D	N	A	SA
Positive responses	Tourism development provides jobs for locals	0	14	27	**41**	18
	It brings benefits and generates money more than the traditional business.	0	5	14	**50**	32
	Tourism helps to create local craft	0	0	41	**46**	14
	Locals have ability to influence tourism	9	36	**46**	9	0
	Resorts and hotels exploit local people.	0	9	**41**	32	18
	The surrounding tourism development excludes locals from their sources of income.	0	0	0	41	**59**
Negative responses	The surrounding tourism development provides help to enhance services.	23	**35**	27	9	5
	The government pays attention to locals' rights.	27	**41**	14	9	9
	Local community is involved in planning process and the development at the surrounding area.	**50**	32	14	5	0
	Tourism development harms the local moral standards and it increases the social crimes and harm local moral standards.	**36**	32	27	5	0
	Tourism harms the natural environment.	27	5	**27**	18	23

SD-Strongly Disagree D-Disagree N-Neutral
A-Agree SA-Strongly agree

Source; Fieldwork survey (2007)

Local communities suggested that they can participate in tourism industry via activities that they perform or skills they possess, by using resources found in their surroundings or that they could personally contribute. Respondents have shown a great interest in providing various recreation activities, such as safaris and desert camping.

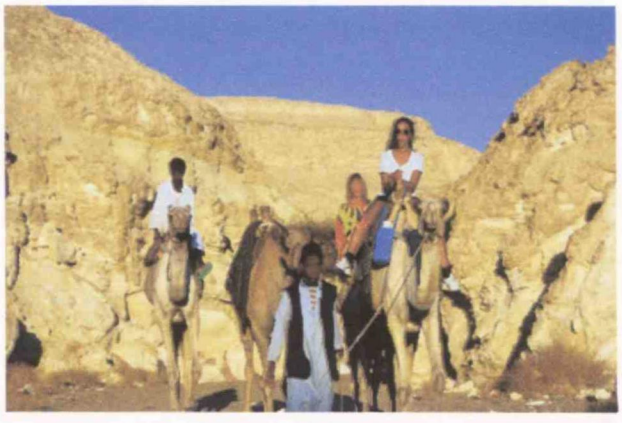


Figure 8.6: An Ababda tribesmen guide a group of tourists on a desert excursion.

They are also keen to accommodate tourists who are interested in knowing their customs and traditions. They could cater for tourists by hosting them and providing them with food and baking the traditional bread[5] as well as preparing the traditional coffee '*Gabana*'. The majority of local people are not aware of possible negative social impacts from tourism development with a few exceptions, such as women who were told by their relatives in Hurghada and Aswan about negative social impacts that may take place. Women are quite worried about the future of tourism development in the surroundings, thinking that their husbands and relatives may change to conform to behaviour that is normal in the international tourism industry; on the other hand, men are more enthusiastic for tourism development which may provide sources of income for them. Young people are more willing to work with tourists in the area in contrast to older people who believe more in their traditional sources of income such as fishing and camel trading. In addition another two respondents were found to be hesitant to get involved in tourism as one of them was afraid to lose his camel trade and the other was not willing to commit himself to any activities.

Different views were expressed in the three settlements. Most local people in Abou Ghosun and Shalateen believe in keeping fishing as their traditional source of income and

[5] Traditional bread is well known for local communities, particularly for deep-range inhabitants. It could only be eaten fresh since it is baked using flour and water and placed in the sand, using from the glowing coals.

consider tourism as a second-priority source of income. In contrast, since the Quala'an community is experiencing interaction with tourists, its community considers tourism as an important income resource. This in turn reflects on participants' points of view in regard to job opportunities. The Shalateen local community accepts as true that tourism development will exclude local people from their normal sources of income; however, the Abou Ghosun community believes that tourism development could bring some benefits for them and the Quala'an community thinks that tourism development could help them by providing sources of income.

Consequently the Shalateen community believes that in the future more tourists could be sought, but only if communications are supported by the government to achieve local communities' aims such as enhanced infrastructure, facilities and services. The Abou Ghosun community does not believe in more tourists in the future for the reason that their traditional source of income might be under threat. Nevertheless Quala'an and deep-range inhabitants strongly support the approach of having more tourists. It is highly likely that the wealthier the community becomes the more awareness there will be of benefits and other consequences of tourism development. People in small settlements wish them to become tourism destinations. Therefore they are more flexible about involvement in any tourism activities that are in line with their abilities and their attitudes. People in the deep-range are satisfied with tourism development. These people say that they are happy to see tourists from time to time to chat with them and to take pictures and sometimes tourists offer local people work as safari guide which generates money and sometimes payment 'in kind' such as food, clothes, beverages and cigarettes. Although some local people in the deep-range are worried about being excluded and forced by tourism development to leave the area, they do not see any problems that may occur through tourism apart from the disturbance of nature.

The knowledge and skills of these people are based on their life style and their tribal background. Those living in the desert must develop a strong familiarity with the desert valleys and mountains and the knowledge they can contribute revolves around this. It is obvious that life style, local traditions and experience are appreciated by the majority of

the other stakeholders (see section 8.5). Experience of work as desert guides was suggested by deep-range respondents as the first priority for improvement; whilst experience as sea captains, and diving instructors were ranked as the first priority in coastal settlements. Some artistic skills were also mentioned such as playing the traditional musical instrument, singing traditional tribal songs and reciting poems in addition to production of handicrafts like weaving *kelim*, making bead accessories, weaving baskets and making beaten metal dishes, as well as production of some leather goods such as bags and buckets. Painting pictures of local scenes is another possibility (Figure 8.7).

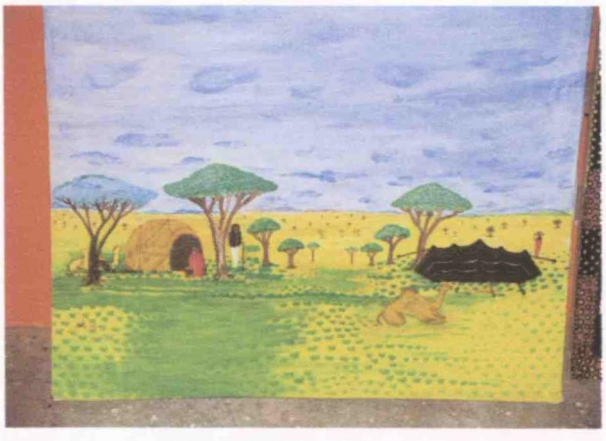


Figure 8.7: Local art painting

8.2.5 Discussion of social impacts

Most of interviewees listed increased income as the major benefit from tourism development in the nearby area. They also listed an increase in overall communication skills, increased cultural awareness and increased language skills. According to the focus group discussions, the general benefits from tourism to the area are fairly an increase of employment opportunities, more economic benefits for the area deriving for example from an increased number of tourists at local coffee shops or shops and a general increase in the people's cultural awareness. Yet they also felt that tourism has not benefited the area as it should have and they noted that local communities have almost never been involved in the planning and management of tourism. Tourism development problems are ranked at different levels from one place to another. People in Quala'an identify the tour operators' behaviour as greatest problem that hinders local community benefits as local people are not capable of protecting their rights (see Box 8.1). The Abou Ghosun community identified the overlap of activities between users on the beach in particular areas as the main problem as there is a conflict between tourism activities and local

people's activities. Furthermore the Shalateen community said that pollution and the unregulated visits may cause social problems since tourists do not respect their privacy. Tourists stroll and take pictures of local people during their daily life activities when women do not like to be photographed.

Box 8.1: Interaction with tourists

Khaled (not his real name) is a tour guide for one of the camps on the area and is in charge of accompanying non-diving excursions of the camp. He met with a group of French tourists at the small beach in front of the lagoon of Quala'an and reported the following: "our camp conducts approximately one trip per week to the camel market in Shalateen. The trip is done for a group of 10 – 15 persons and includes lunch in Shalateen and a one-hour stop in Quala'an when driving back. The charming lagoon with its white beach is very popular among our tourists. They consider it as one of the prettiest beaches in the area and are very eager to stop there. We always park the bus behind the village next to the mangroves and then walk down to this beach, where we enjoy the view. Some people go swimming or snorkeling. In general, there is no direct interaction with the village people, except with some children and young girls who follow us and try to sell beadwork; however tourists rarely respond to them. Unfortunately most of the tourists prefer not to communicate with locals. I do not think that the villagers benefit from our visit. We do not pay fees for the utilization of the beach and do not ask them for any service. The tourists I come with are solely interested in a swim and the beauty of the lagoon.

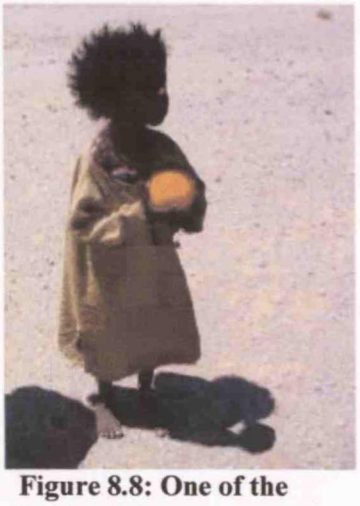


Figure 8.8: One of the local children
Source: TDA (2002b)

Source: Fieldwork survey 2007

Some of the local people in Shalateen indicated that their consumption patterns particularly foods were changing from being confined to food such as flour, oil and sugar to more Western oriented food: *"We have gums, chocolates, crisps and biscuits"* indicated one of the local people. The general appearance especially the clothes of the young people, has shifted away from the traditional style. Interview with individuals who have more experience emphasized the following general social negative impacts:

- The government's ignorance and the contradictions between communities' needs and benefits for tourists;

- The local community is being exploited by the tour guides and tourists do not usually pay attention to local people's needs;
- The occasionally disrespectful behaviour by tourists toward local people;
- The increase of waste from tourism facilities particularly waste from diving boats as well as destruction of marine life due to unregulated tourism and diving activities;
- The surrounding tourism facilities do not usually buy from local fishermen, as their catches are usually small, due to their poor gear. In addition, the government has allowed fishermen from the Delta to fish in their fishing grounds. These incoming fishermen have modern gear and use fishing methods that are not environmentally-friendly, and their catches are bigger, thus there is fierce competition between the newcomers and the local inhabitants.

8.3 Condition of the built environment

Land ownership is considered as one of the most important topics for local communities, who take different views depending on their location (coastal settlements or deep-range). However, problems that are linked to housing condition and legal aspects are similar for both types of location. In the coastal settlements the majority of interviewees (81%) mentioned that there is no legal land ownership, particularly in small and medium settlements. The land their houses is built on is their property by custom. They do not however hold any official or registered papers for this land ownership. They reported they had chosen the land and then built their houses on it. Furthermore interviewees in the deep-range reported that there is no land ownership in the *wadis*. Nevertheless in the large coastal settlement at Shalateen and in the northern part of Abou Ghosun settlement (see sections 7.3.2 and 7.4.2) it is customary to register the ownership of houses. Accordingly about 19% from the total research sample have legal title (see Annex G). Focus group discussion revealed that the city council has provided them with masonry built houses instead of their traditional primitive ones made of wood and tin. Observations made regarding the dwellings in the settlements show that in small settlements 100% of the houses were made from wood, tin cans, corrugated zinc iron

sheets and tree branches. However in medium and large settlements only 42% of the houses were made from wood and corrugated zinc. Stone houses account for around 25% of stock, whilst 16% are made of branches and 11% of cement blocks, apart from the new housing area in Shalateen (see section 7.4.2). Interviews with deep-range inhabitants and some of the small coastal settlements revealed anger about the new houses provided by the government, because they were built of rough stone and not made of concrete and perceived as being too close to each other to protect the families' privacy (see Box 7.3).

8.3.1 Infrastructure

In general the study results show that local communities' access to important infrastructure elements and public services for Quala'an and Abou Ghosun communities is limited, as these services are allocated in big coastal settlements. For instance, only 26% of respondents in Quala'an and Abou Ghosun settlements have electricity; 21% of them have an access to education and health services as it is mainly located in Shalateen and Marsa Alam. Furthermore, 74% of the inhabitants are dependent on water delivery by a tank, 21% use piped water as water source. The majority of interviewees reported receiving their drinking water from the City Council which distributes the water. For the dwellers in the city the water is distributed directly to their houses where they get their water tanks filled, and this is often used for washing. In the case in Abou Ghosun village drinking water is reported to come from Aswan. Some of the deep-range inhabitants leave their empty water tanks on the main road where the city council comes to fill them without charge. The only cost they have to pay is for the transportation of the water tanks. However, other interviewees mentioned that they take their drinking water from the deep wells in the area. Animals both in the desert as well as in the villages are provided with their drinking water from the wells, which are close by; this water has to be obtained by family members. The water is known to be unsuitable for human beings because it is polluted and far too salty for them, but when there is no other water available, they resort to that water for drinking. On the other hand in Shalateen the basic infrastructure in terms of water, sewerage and electricity is available to the majority of the community (see section 7.4.2). Nevertheless it is noticed that lack of infrastructure and poor housing conditions are ranked as important problems among all respondents (see section 8.8).

8.3.2 Tourism facilities

As mentioned previously, beside the natural and cultural attractions in coastal settlements and deep-range, local communities have developed cafeterias, coffee shops, and guesthouses (as safari stations) to attract and host tourists. In addition, it was observed in the deep-range that there are a number of Bedouin sites, known to the public as Bedouin rest houses, which are developed by the private sector with the deep-range inhabitants' support, under the EEAA umbrella. According to officials from EEAA these rest houses represent the current ecotourism facilities in the area, but they are not acknowledged by the TDA as they do not belong to the MOT or the TDA. Therefore *"since MOT and TDA are the only bodies that provide tourism facilities operating with permission these rest houses have no legal presence in terms of the rating system, foods, beverages, hospitality and security"* noted one of the TDA officials.

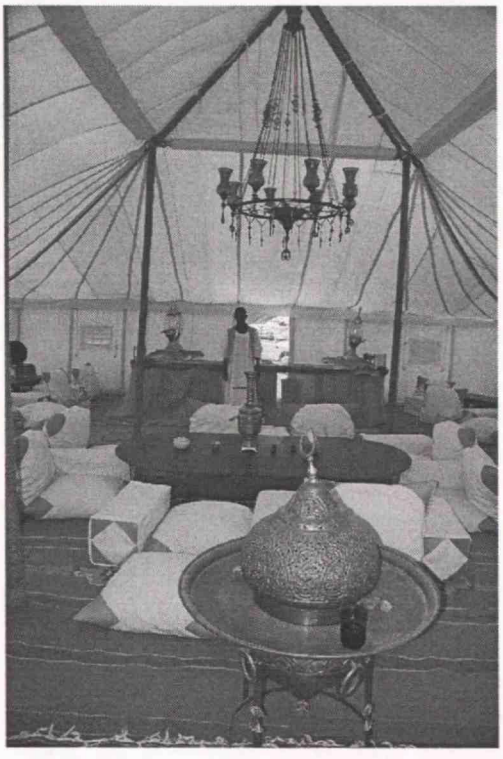


Figure 8.9: One of the Bedouin rest houses

All the rest houses have almost the same structure; they take the form of large shelters made mainly from 'sawn' wood or tree trunks. Each room is furnished with cotton-filled pillows, each of which is a seat for a group of tourists. Some of the houses have service for serve tea and coffee. The number of tourists per room differs from place to another. Some of the rest houses have the facilities for hosting a number of tourists over night but this requires special permission from the police and coast guard office in Hurghada, and this permission seems to be rare. The number of people who live in each of these rest houses differs, some of the rest houses are owned and managed by one family (see Box

7.2), and the staff is resident there all the time. Otherwise, the rest houses are empty and the staff come with or just before the visitors arrive and leave when they do.

8.3.3 Discussion of physical impacts

Positive and negative impacts result from the surrounding tourism development. Although the positive impacts are quite few in comparison to the negative ones, the local communities are relatively satisfied with the situation due to the increased attention given by the government to somehow improve public services compared with the situation ten years ago (see sections 7.3.2 and 7.4.2). For instance, electricity and water supply were enhanced. Even though health and education services are still not sufficient, local communities consider them to be a good start. Nevertheless, local people still complain of the limited electricity service which negatively affects medical services, particularly in the small and medium settlements. As a result *"the health unit cannot keep antidotes against scorpions or snakes which are noticeably increased in the area"* commented one of the local people.

Furthermore local people's awareness has been increased in terms of appreciating the value of the surrounding natural area, cultural and traditional aspects, and their accumulating experience. The local communities have begun to understand their roles and duties and have become interested in education; they are becoming more concerned about their land rights. The number of local inhabitants has increased as people have flocked into the area to open shops or attracted by the promise of new work opportunities. With the advent of tourism in the area local communities have begun to open up and people now intermingle with foreigners. Several cafeterias have opened; these are operated either by the newcomers or by local inhabitants. The local community feels that they are being threatened by outsiders and their traditional settlements are challenged. The local government considers these changes to the traditional settlements as an essential improvement. Discussion with officials indicated that the development plans of legal settlements do not adequately consider traditional land use, though attention is given to natural resources. Programmes for monitoring and evaluating fauna, flora and

marine life are taking place, in addition to periodic assessment of the environmental impact of tourism development.

8.4 Politico-economic aspects

As was explained previously customarily the local community leadership is retained by the tribal elder who would be known for his wisdom and hence retained the right to lead his people (see section 7.5). These leaders provide different services for the local community. For instance under the Orban scheme it was the leaders' responsibility to determine the distribution of the governmental flour rations. Ababda people used to travel on their camels to leaders' houses to receive their flour rations. It was indicated that 68% of the investigated settlements have a community leader and 37% of the settlements established a community centre like the CDA in Abou Ghosun; however, Quala'an community consider the Quala'an local fishermen's union to be their informal community representative (see section 7.2), but in Shalateen, the community is organized more formally (see section 7.4.3). Now the Sheikh's roles are confined to solving the disputes that people seek their support for. Now people living in any community can seek the advice of any nearby sheikh, who does not necessarily need to be the one of their own clan. It was noticed that in some cases people recognize the disadvantages inherent in the traditional leadership system of the sheikhs, such as lasting discrimination among people of the different clans. There is also a generation gap, while the young generation would be interested in the introduction of changes, the sheikhs would be pulling their people backwards, in order to retain their old preferred status, and their own self-interest. Currently the Quala'an and Abou Ghosun communities are at a transition stage when it comes to local leadership. While the community still retains its tribal and nomadic characteristics as acknowledged and explained above, the local leadership once practiced through the Sheikhs of the different clans seems to be lapsing. Therefore it was essential to understand how the local communities see the surrounding tourism development and distinguish as in the different groups such as men and women; older and younger people, and leaders and ordinary people.

8.4.1 The role of tourism as a means to development

The existing and the future roles of tourism development were investigated with all stakeholders in addition to the exploration of tourism development stakeholders' roles and local community involvement. Like Table 8.1 the outputs of the fieldwork survey were summarized and coded into particular variables. The responses given by participants, regarding the role of the non-local stakeholders (groups' b, c and d) and the local community, are summarized in Table 8.2. This indicates that as the private sector and decision-makers each believe that the other party has the ability and the responsibility for local community capacity building, their answers were inconclusive. Nevertheless, tourism development facilitators believe the local authority (the government) has a role to support local people's rights (55%). The majority of the non-local stakeholders consider capacity building in the local community as a role for the private sector. It was observed during the interviews with NGOs and tourism development consultants that there is trust in the private sector's ability to provide such services under the supervision of the government and local authority. The non-local stakeholders were not sure about local people's rights to control the tourism targeting them (46%). Discussion with stakeholders showed that they are denied local community involvement in the surrounding tourism development due to their lack of communication skills and education. However, the majority of stakeholders support local communities' right to receive fees from the tourism (85%). The development of micro enterprises was supported by all stakeholders (77%) believing that the private sector experience ought to manage the approach with the support of the government.

Table 8.2: Summary of the role of the tourism development survey

	Investigated issues	percentage of respondents				
		SD	D	N	A	SA
Non-local stakeholders view (n=26) Groups b, c and d	Tourism development should involve locals	0	8	23	**35**	**35**
	Locals have rights to control the tourism targeting them.	3	12	**46**	35	4
	Local authorities should manage community tourism and support locals rights	0	8	2	**35**	**55**
	The government should support local people's micro enterprises	0	0	0	23	**77**
	Capacity building for local people should be provided by private sector	0	0	38	**50**	12
	Private sector should provide locals capacity building/training programme/ awareness/ skills.	0	15	**38**	35	12
	Explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations (food suppliers, etc) and those that sell to tourists (craft producers, etc	0	0	0	30	**70**
	Fees should be paid for local community	0	0	0	15	**85**
Local people view(n=22)	Tourism development should involve locals	0	5	18	22	**55**
	Private sector should manage tourism activities	23	18	**23**	17	9
	Management procedures should applied to minimize the locals negative impact	0	0	0	23	**77**
	Capacity building for local people should be provided by private sector	5	5	18	**41**	32
	Local authorities should manage tourism and support locals rights	0	0	9	19	**72**
	Government should develop collective income sources such as fees, revenue shares, equity dividends, donations, etc	0	0	5	27	**68**
	Government should explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations (food suppliers, etc) and those that sell to tourists (craft producers, guides, etc	0	0	5	14	**82**

SD-Strongly Disagree D-Disagree N-Neutral
A-Agree SA-Strongly agree

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

On the other hand local people believe that private sector is able to provide them appropriate capacity building programmes (41%) that targeting the demand; but, it was obvious that local people consider local authorities for supporting their rights (90%). Furthermore, local people trust the government to develop collective income sources for them and explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations. The local community agreed that the government should not only develop collective sources of

income such as fees, revenue shares and equity dividends but also it should explore opportunities which provide services for tourism operations and those that sell to tourists and it should monitor this process to protect local community rights. Discussions with local people showed that at present there is no involvement at all by the local community in tourism development and local people only know about any development in the area when coastal projects are constructed. Consequently, increasing the communication and the flow of information between stakeholders and the local community was supported by all stakeholders. Almost all participants agreed on the important role of tourism development to preserve the social and cultural environment and to contribute to natural and cultural heritage.

8.4.2 Tourism and local community employment

Two main subjects were investigated which may provide local communities with a source of income and benefits from the surrounding tourism development. **Firstly,** what are the possibilities for enhancing and providing direct sources of income within the existing tourism development facilities by employing local people and **secondly,** what is the potential of local communities to be employed at tourism attractions (see section 8.5). Accordingly semi-structured interviews were held with the private sector to identify problems that hinder local communities' employment in tourism development. The most important reason given for not employing local staff was their lack of work experience, technical skills and languages. According to one of the managers, *"the hotels need workers with a certain expertise, and that is why we hire people from other places. The only advantage of the people from the area is that they live here and would be cheaper for us to hire".*

The skilled workers are often recruited as graduates of hotel and training institutes in Cairo and Alexandria amongst professionals who have gained working experience in Hurghada (see Box 8.2). Most employees are recruited informally and are chosen on the basis of the contacts they have with the present workers at the hotels. The manager of one of the resorts noted, *"no local people came to ask for work or* (said with irony) *respond*

to the advertisements the hotel has placed in the newspapers". He also indicated that he *"would prefer to hire local people as they have all the same culture and mentality, they are easier to manage than the present staff members who come from different regions in Egypt"*. One manager stated that the local people do not have the cultural awareness to deal with tourists and lack basic foreign language skills. Another manager reasoned that *"you cannot ask people that have never in their life seen a proper room to clean it. It is possible to hire local people, but only for very specific duties that do not require any direct contact with tourists"* this matches officials' opinions from EEAA (see section 7.2.3).

Box: 8.2: Sample for workforce composition at existing tourism establishments

Three large hotels in the study area were investigated which have a present capacity of approximately 600 beds catering at the moment mostly to the German, Swiss, Italian and Austrian markets. The oldest one, the Shams Alam Hotel, located 30 km north of Quala'an, has been operational since 1999. Zabargad Hotel opened in the autumn of 2001 and Lahmi Bay Hotel in 2002. The three hotels employ a total of approximately 321 staff members. Only eight of them are from the local community. The remaining staff is composed of Egyptians from the Nile Valley and Alexandria. Most of them have previous working experience in tourism. The eight identified local staff members all work in the Shams Alam Hotel in low ranking positions that require no formal qualifications, such as gardening and outdoor cleaning, and have no direct contact with tourists. All of them are illiterate. The manager of the hotel reported that they have first been hired to work as cleaners for the diving center. When they proved their seriousness and carried out their work in a satisfactory manner, they were taken over by the hotel. Zabargad and Lahmy Bay Hotel do not employ local employees at all, even though all hotel representatives interviewed agreed that they would prefer to employ local people.
(See sections 8.2.4, 5.9.3 and Table 5.5)

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

When asked what would be needed to develop a local and qualified working force, all private sector respondents pointed out the need for primary education, language and technical skills. *"We do need a lot of technical staff when operating a hotel in this remote area, but are not able to identify well trained local mechanics, plumbers or electricians,"* told by one interviewees. Other training skills named as necessary were cultural awareness courses and general communication skills. Managers who have local staff indicated that they are very happy with them. *"The people we hired are very enthusiastic to learn, but it is not easy for them as most of them have no previous experience other than fishing and they need to learn everything from scratch. But their asset is their good*

knowledge of the sea and the desert. Working in diving is not difficult for them as they are used to the sea and feel at ease". Several interviewees noted also that hiring local people results in savings for the diving centres as the people will not ask for frequent holidays to go and see their families.

8.4.3 Discussion of economic impacts

It is obvious from previous sections that the politico-economic status has been affected by the surrounding tourism development and different impacts have taken place. Tangible and direct impacts among local communities include: dramatic increase in land values; exclusion of local fishermen from their natural access to the sea; burdensome procedures for camels' traders (such as traders having to keep to a particular track predetermined by the government, being searched and sometimes investigated); sources of income were changed sometimes in inappropriate ways; the economic environment has changed; mining is prohibited near to the tourists' area in addition to changing local and traditional roles such as leaders' responsibilities and roles. Nevertheless, official statistics for economic aspects which related to the surrounding tourism development are inaccurate and the fieldwork survey found that some of local communities' workforce has been absorbed by the tourism sector into jobs that have been created directly and indirectly by the sector (see sections 7.2.3, 7.3.3 and 7.4.3). Handicrafts, tracking and safari guiding, fish supply, construction and hosting tourists are new economic sectors that in one way or another, have helped to enhance local communities' quality of life. Furthermore in view of the fact that around 80% of respondents articulated their enthusiasm for tourism initiatives (see section 8.2.4), this suggests they receive revenue and benefits from tourism or hope to do so eventually. It was noticed the most important sectoral employer in the area is the government; however, in practice local communities benefit from the private sector more (see Table 8.3) apart from Shalateen where the local community has more stable and diverse sources of income.

Table 8.3: The main economic sectors

	Fishing	Tourism	Handicrafts	Livestock	Construction	Trading	Government
Quala'n		×	×	×	×		
Abou Ghosun	×	×	×	×	×		×
Shalateen	×	×	×	×		×	×

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Nevertheless it should be recognized that brokers benefit several times more than local people; for instance, in-depth interview with the one of the bazaar owners revealed valuable insights about the operation of the supply chain for handicraft products. Products are sold at around seven times their original price. For example, the women's accessories which are bought from the local community for EGP 35 are sold to the tourists at 35 or 40 Euros. Also a *Gabana* kit obtained at EGP 12 is sold at around 10-12 Euros. The tour guide's commission is reported to be 40%. According to the bazaar owner, this is not a significantly high commission, since it reaches 70% in other places such as Aswan. On the other hand results of the fieldwork survey indicate that most residents have very limited resources and opportunities and it is noticeable that the majority of local communities live under difficult circumstances and poverty is extremely widespread particularly in small, medium settlements and deep-range communities.

8.5 Potential activities for local communities

It was necessary to understand the relationship between tourism attractions provided by local communities and their impacts, and to evaluate the current services, and at the same time observe the ability of local people in order to identify means to develop attractions. To do this, semi-structured interviews with tourism development stakeholders groups' B, C and D (see section 6.5) sought mainly to identify the character of the proposed attractions and evaluate them from an expert point of view.

The character of the attractions: Activities were divided into four main categories. *Firstly,* activities depending on nature which need specific experience and skills such as sea activities include swimming, snorkeling, sealing and fishing in addition to desert activities such as safari and bird-watching, where tourists and tour guides occasionally use local community experience and techniques (see Box 7.2). *Secondly,* outdoor activities related to cultural traditions, which do not need particular skills, such as preparing Bedouin food and beverages, or camel riding. *Thirdly,* activities linked to handicraft products, which are supported by a group of locals. *Finally;* retail activities selling including snake and crocodile skins obtained from Sudan, plus mountain honey, herbs and grocery form the fourth category. The groups surveyed were asked to evaluate

and rank these activities in the settlements of Quala'an, Abou Ghosun and Shalateen for the purpose of linking attractions and local communities. Figure 8.10 shows the output analysis diagram for this study.

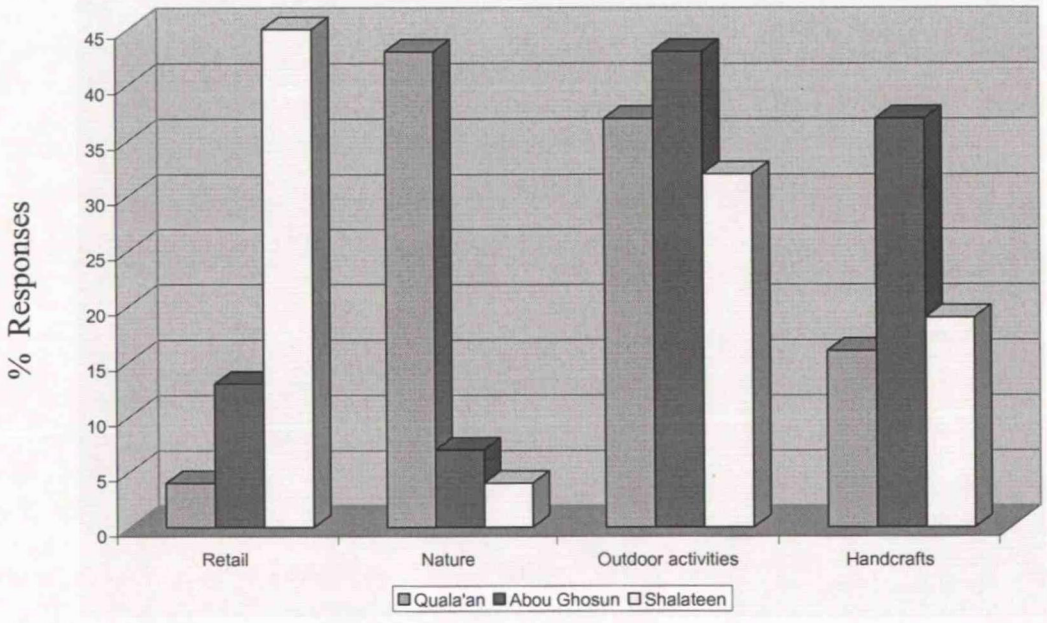


Figure 8.10: Ranking by non-local stakeholders of attractions in the three settlements (n = 26).
Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

It is obvious that attractions depend on the characteristics of different destinations. On the one hand activities in Quala'an, which involve nature and need particular skills, were ranked as the highest level 43% followed by the outdoor activities 37%, and then handicrafts and retail were ranked as lesser attractions. On the other hand in Abou Ghosun outdoor activities and handicrafts were ranked as the highest attractions whilst nature 7% and retail 13% activities were ranked as the least popular attractions. In contrast in Shalateen retail activities possessed the highest attraction rating - 45%, followed by outdoor activities 32% and handicrafts 19%.

Attractions evaluation: Building on the previous analysis, specific destinations have particular attractions; however, more analyses were made in order to understand the weaknesses and strengthen of these attractions. Accordingly the non-local stakeholders were asked to evaluate issues related to the community attractions. This evaluation shows the distribution of opinions of non-local stakeholders about the various types of attraction

such as; the uniqueness of attractions and availability and adequacy of the provided information, and the tour guiding. Figure 8.11 shows the tourism attractions evaluated by tourism development stakeholders groups' B, C and D.

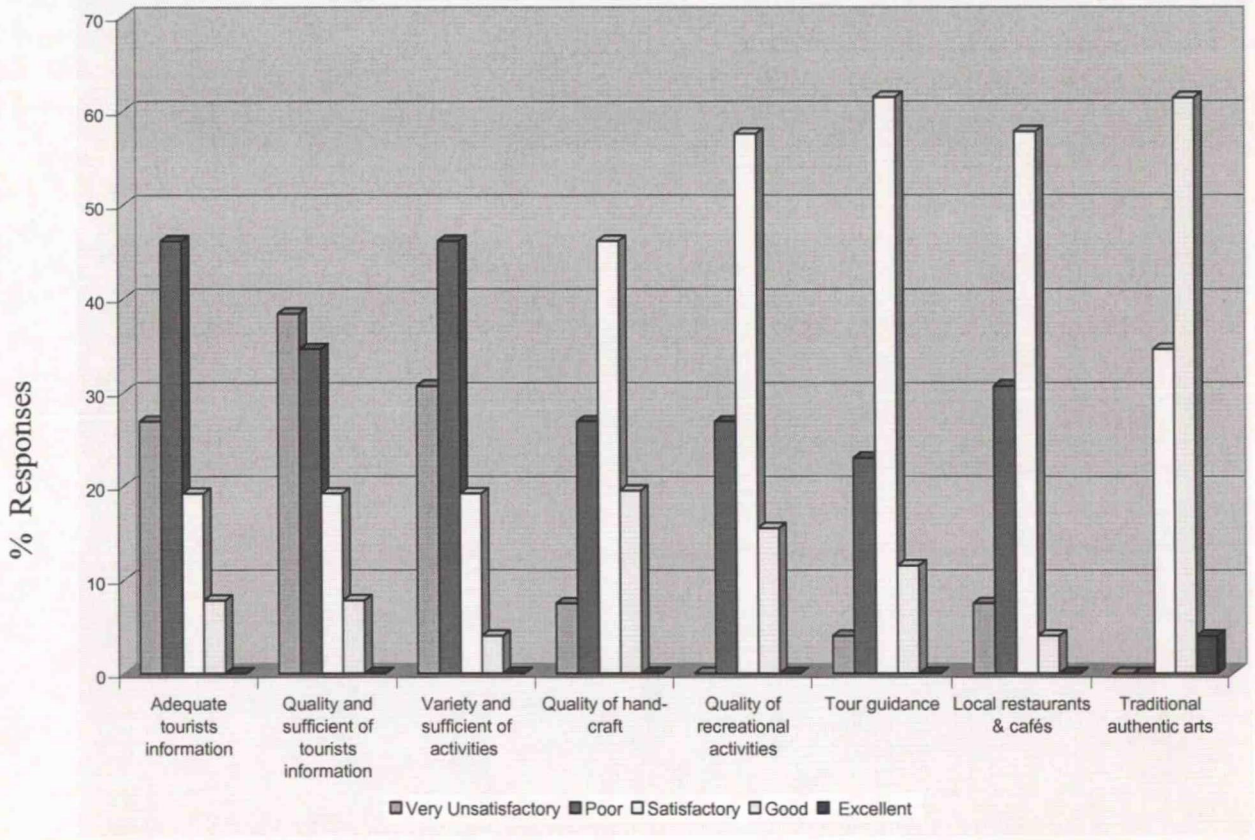


Figure 8.11: Evaluating local communities' tourism activities (n = 26)
Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

The majority of the interviewees agreed that local community traditional authentic arts are excellent 62%; however, the attractions particularly the outdoor activities and handicrafts are considered satisfactory by 58% and 46% of non-local stakeholders respectively. Tour guiding which ranked as satisfactory by 62% in terms of the quality of the guidance does not include the relationship between tour guides and the local community. On the other hand the availability of information given to the tourists linked to the surrounding local communities and its quality is considered as unsatisfactory by 46% and 38% respectively. Furthermore interviewees point out that the variety of the attractions is limited, therefore tourists need to visit more than one community to satisfy their interests (see Annex H).

Attraction impacts: As attractions are perceived differently among tourists, accordingly particular activities might be expected to meet different levels of enthusiasm among tourists, but also to have different impacts in terms of enhancing the quality of life of local communities. Consequently, activities that may satisfy tourists and enhance the local community is quality of life were investigated and discussed with this group of stakeholders. The research outputs for each activity were compared against each other as a route to identify the ideal form of attraction that may achieve both objectives. Figure 8.12 shows comparisons between activities that enhance local communities' quality of life with others that satisfy tourists. Nature-based activities particularly sea activities, are ranked as the attractions that most satisfy tourists (the opinion of 96% of these stakeholders) followed by the desert activities and safari 81% (see Annex I); in contrast those activities are found to be supportive in enhancing the local community's quality of life. It is highly likely that both activities are managed by professionals with experience and need expensive equipment which cannot be afforded by local people. Furthermore those people who benefited among the local community are relatively few. On the other hand, retail is seen to be not very attractive for tourists since they are not familiar with herbs and other products brought from the mountains (65% are neutral on this). Furthermore tourists are being served within the resorts with accommodation and shopping facilities.

An important argument here is that *"the quality of the packing and marketing of local community products is very important. It costs about EGP 40 for one kg of mountain honey, which is cleaned manually and repacked in 100gm jars. A jar is purchased for 10 Euros"* said one of the bazaar's owners. Since tourists not only like to buy artisanal products but also are keen to learn about the outdoor activities and handicrafts; these are seen to be satisfactory for tourists (65% and 67%) respectively and also support local communities - 69%. Stakeholders recommend when talking about local community enhancement that a distinction be made between outdoor activities that are provided by a group of local people and recreational activities such as cafeterias or coffee shops owned by outsiders. This latter is coupled with retail since the revenue benefits the outsider

owners. Accordingly, in-depth analyses for discussions with local community about specific options and potentials are elaborated in the following sections.

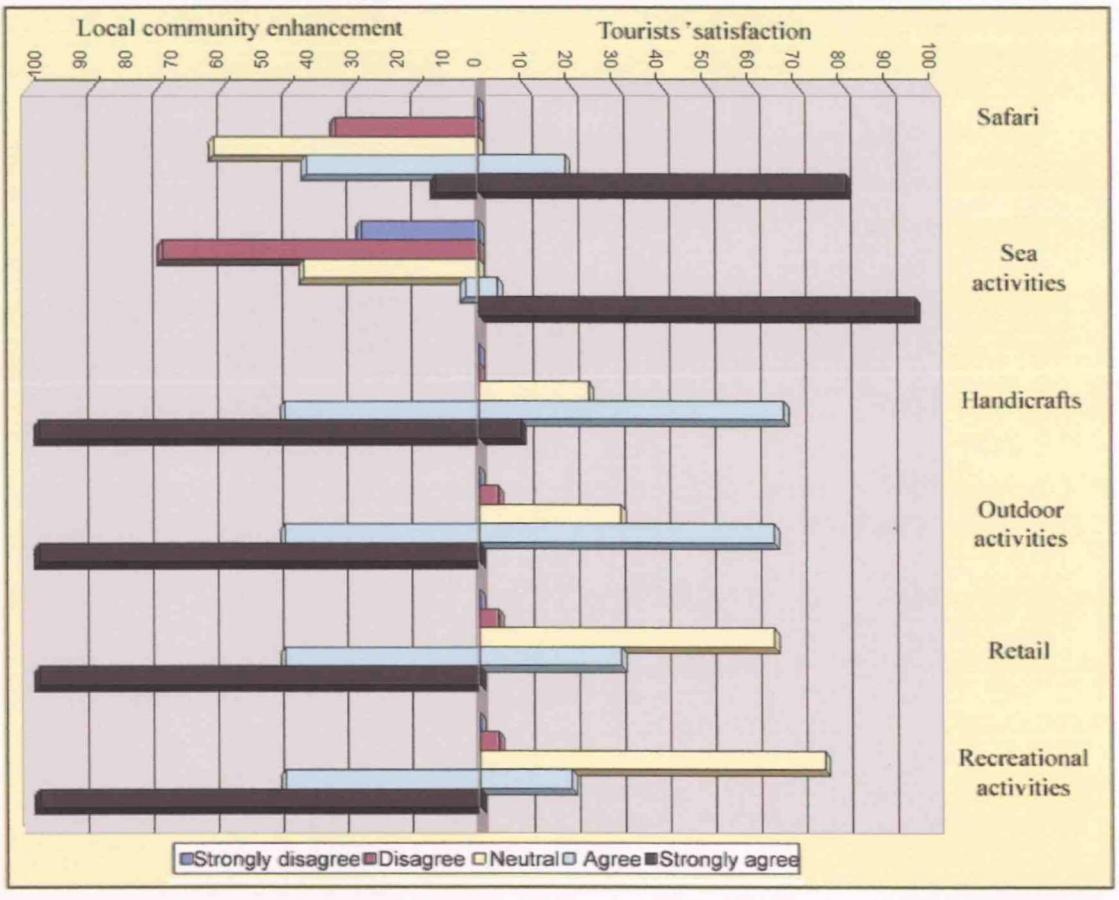


Figure 8.12: Comparison of activities that enhance local communities' quality of life with others that satisfy tourists (n = 26)
Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

8.5.1 Handicrafts

Among the sample, different people were identified as being involved in the production of crafts. The majority of the deep-range interviewees indicated that most of them are involved in the handicrafts business; and, a considerable number of interviewees living in coastal settlements also specified involvement in the handicrafts business, particularly women. The markets used to sell the goods are found in the settlement itself or elsewhere (see 7.4.3). Sometimes products are sold directly from homes but only when tourists

come to their area or ask local people directly. Five craft items can still be found namely: *Kelim*, made from natural wool of sheep and from camels and goats as well as being made from old cloth fabrics; also, bead work; baskets made of straw and or thread; leather work; and shell jewellery. The last two items are produced by men, while the others are produced by women.

Most of the women participating in the focus group discussions, especially the younger ones, mentioned that they have acquired the skill from their mothers, while the elder ones mentioned that they have taught themselves. Field research suggests that women and girls are the real artisan entrepreneurs of the local community population. Beads are obtained through a variety of ways. One common way is through traders who sell them to the Ababda at EGP 5 per cup. Another way is to purchase beads from Aswan or Shalateen. It is estimated that a necklace may take up to three and a half days of work and consumes on average three cups of beads, depending on the degree of sophistication and size and this is normally purchased at EGP 30 – 40. Nevertheless it is noticed that obstacles faced were primarily related to the availability of raw material and marketing. This is of course related to the remoteness of the Ababda in the region from markets where raw material can be obtained or their products can be sold. In addition, failure to market the products is also related to product quality and their ability to communicate with the tourists. When asked about their need for enterprise support services, there was a reluctance to obtain credit for working capital fixed capital. The local community in general seems to shy away from loans. However, they were more receptive to the idea of receiving training and technical assistance or partnership with professional private sector.

8.5.2 Outdoor activities

In-depth research suggested that local communities might be able to interact positively with the visitors which future tourism development will bring to their area. Local communities proposed suggested including tourists in activities that they already perform, or using skills they already have, or using resources found in their immediate surroundings. For example, local residents showed interest in arranging various outdoor

activities such as visits to *wadis* or "*nomad nights*". Some residents would like to host tourists who are interested in learning about their customs and traditions; they believe they could entertain these visitors by providing them with traditional food such as locally caught fish, or by baking traditional bread and serving traditional coffee. The knowledge and skills they wish to offer are based on living in close proximity to nature and on their tribal upbringing (see Box 8.3). In addition to working as desert guides or with diving groups, interest was shown in playing traditional musical instruments and singing traditional tribal songs. One hotel manager in the area indicated that *"the booming of the tourism development will change the composition of the tourist demand. It is expected that we will increasingly have non-diving tourists and families that would be very much interested in activities that are not related to diving, such as walks, visits to local villages and communities and in nature exploration activities".*

Box 8.3: Example for attraction based on locals customs

A member of the local people said "A few months ago, one Egyptian tourist guide approached us to organize local catering. We agreed on preparing grilled fish and tea at a fixed price per head for his tourist group every Wednesday. The arrangement worked well for two months, and the guide informed us in advance of the number of visitors. They reported that the visitors looked very happy. They worked according to the instructions of the guide for cleanliness and hygiene. Just after the Iraq war, the routine was broken. We prepared the fish but when the group came the guide indicated that they had already their lunch. It meant a big loss for us and the relationship turned down.

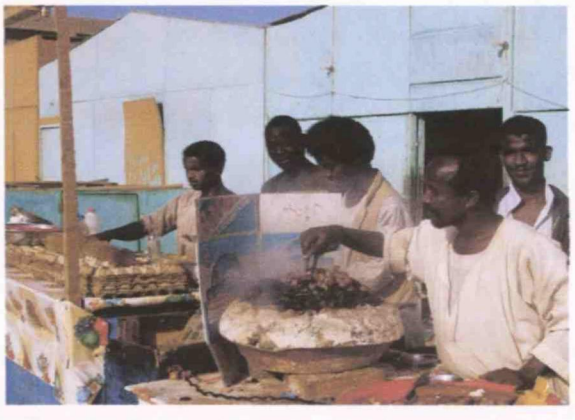


Figure 8.13: Oriental food provided by locals

"Since then the guide has been coming back with visitors but does not want any fish and there is no benefit for us" he said. Interviewees expressed their wishes and interest to maintain or re-establish this kind of arrangement. Several members of the community had participated and benefited. One interviewee indicated that the payment they received for the fish was a lot higher than what they could get from the fish traders they had earned up to EGP 100 per week, nearly tripling the revenues they had received from regular marketing of the fish.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

8.5.3 Boat services

The survey of local community participation in sea-based activities indicated that there are some local people and fishermen working with diving centres at different destinations in the surrounding area, or helping on the boats. Local people say that they prefer to participate in tourism activities in the area rather than taking up a job outside unless it comes during the low fishing season. They could take tourists to the nearby reefs on their fishing boats, where they could snorkel or go fishing. Fishermen have demonstrated their willingness and capability to participate in that their previous experience with tourism services was viewed as a positive one. The income is good and the benefits were well distributed among the members of the community. Asked about their opinion with regards to the communication problem, and the attitude and appearance of the visitors local people indicated that it does not represent a problem to them so far. They would like to continue and organize themselves better. They would like some help to set up an agreement with tourist resorts. Several study participants indicated that they would like to build a shelter or a tent on the beach where they would serve refreshments and fish. They were opposed to the idea of receiving overnight tourists in tents due to family and tribal customs. Nevertheless marketing still is the main problem that hinders them; these participants indicated that they have no access to tourists in hotels and resorts.

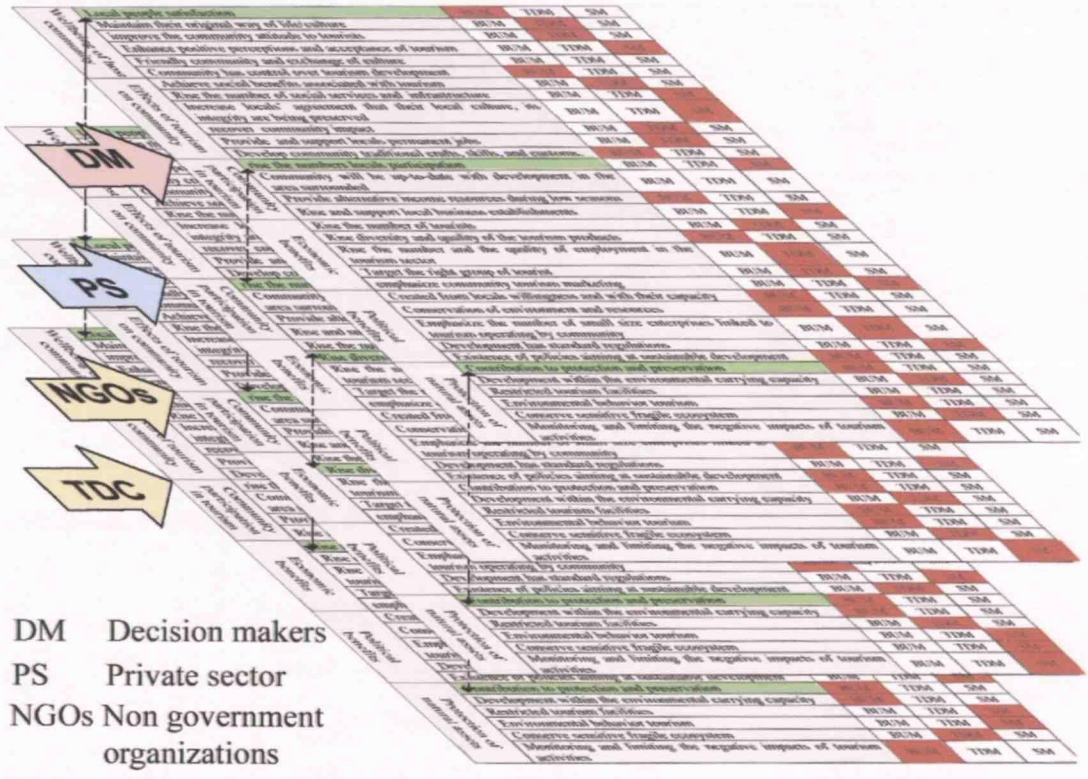
8.6 Management strategy and organization structure

Alternative management strategies for integrating local communities within the tourism development and the preferred form of organization structure were investigated with stakeholders group b, c and d. **Firstly, the management strategy;** statements by non-local stakeholders' were evaluated, to understand their point of view and outline perspectives linked to local communities' development and STD integration. Therefore, the bottom up (BUM), top down (TDM) and shared management (SM) strategies were explained for participants to rank which strategy may support particular statements linked to the aim of the research (see section 6.6). These statements were categorized under six main categories, in terms of the strategies' effects on the well-being of local

communities; positive and negative impacts; local communities' empowerment and participation; and the prospective benefits gained to protect the natural assets. As was explained previously, stakeholders have different agendas within the study area. On the one hand, the TDA seeks to develop the area for the benefit of the national economy according to the official development agenda (see section 5.6.2). The EEAA target is to conserve natural resources particularly marine life and coral reefs (see section 5.6.3). The RSG endeavors to control urban development and manage the infrastructure in the settlements in addition to providing communities with essential services (see section 5.6.4). On the other hand the private sector aims to gain fast, secure and sustained benefits for its shareholders. NGOs pay attention to profitable schemes apart from minor community associations (see section 5.6.6). To understand different perspectives, the example statements responses from different stakeholder groups were compared against those of other groups in the light of each stakeholder's background and responsibilities (see Figure 8.14).

For instance, to identify the recommended management strategy, statements focus on emphasizing community tourism products; the private sector opinions were analyzed (in the light of their experience) and compared, with tourism development facilitators (who recognize more the ability of local people) this take into consideration the decision-makers perspective (to understand how applicable the recommended strategy). Stakeholders indicated different responses since, on one hand; the management strategies investigated (BUM, TDM and SM) have different impacts among local communities and on the other hand stakeholders expected possible conflict in connection with the sustainability of the industry. Tables 8.4, 8.5 and 8.6 gather and summarize the results of the analysis which show that both generally positive and negative opinions were held by each stakeholder group. Decision-makers indicated that the top down management strategy could secure both local community rights and national objectives. In addition it provides systems that preserve the tourism resources and assess any changes in order to compensate for any losses. Nevertheless officials from the EEAA indicated that local communities have the ability to secure their benefits and preserve the tourism attraction

resources if they are given appropriate powers. Protocols between decision makers, private sector and local community could ensure this.



DM Decision makers
PS Private sector
NGOs Non government organizations
TDC Tourism development consultants

Figure 8.14: Diagram illustrates the recommended management strategy analysis technique.

Furthermore the private sector denies that local communities have a right to participate as partners in tourism development projects because of their level of experience; however, they recognize the villagers' right to benefits. Nonetheless it is clear from the responses that non-local stakeholders identify shared management as the best strategy for developing and sustaining community tourism projects. Significantly, the decision-makers support the idea of community involvement while the private sector suggested tourism should be controlled by experts. "*It is unrealistic to visualize that local communities have the ability to market, manage and operate tourism schemes even if capacity building programmes are applied to them*" noted one of the private sector interviewees. According to the tourism development facilitators, changes to civil society rights laws were considered as the cornerstone of any sustainable development.

Table 8.4: Summary of the decision makers' perspective

	Decision Maker
Perceived advantages	**Bottom Up Management** ▪ A bottom up management strategy may support and maintain local communities' way of life since they are able to settle products that match their cultural traditions. ▪ It enhances positive perceptions and acceptance of tourism furthermore it definitely allows community to have control over tourism development. ▪ Community will be up-to-date with the development in the area surrounded. **Top Down Management** ▪ Raises the number of tourists and the tourism development products within integrated development vision. ▪ Development has standard regulations and policies aiming at sustainable development. ▪ Development is kept within the environmental carrying capacity. ▪ Restricted tourism facilities. **Shared Management** ▪ The tourism products will be created from local people's willingness and within their capacity. ▪ Development will contribute to protection and conservation. ▪ The development benefits will be employed to raise the number of social services and infrastructure. ▪ Targets the right group of tourist.
Perceived disadvantages	**Bottom Up Management** ▪ Limited number of and alternatives for tourism product will be developed since local people have no access to the international and national markets. ▪ Locals will have no control over the land use development in terms of the pattern of the development. ▪ More slums will be added to the area, which may destroy natural resources and adversely affect development in the surrounding environment. **Top Down Management** ▪ Negative social and cultural impacts may be incurred. ▪ Inappropriate location of community tourism development facilities. ▪ Providing job opportunities and source of income alternatives is not an imperative target. **Shared Management** ▪ Private sector will share local communities' tourism development benefits. ▪ Lengthy drawn out procedures and process which may hinder development. ▪ Will not compensate for negative impacts on the community.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Table 8.5: Summary of the private sector perspective

	Private sector
Perceived advantages	**Bottom Up Management** ▪ Achieves social benefits associated with tourism development. ▪ Provides alternative sources of income during low seasons. ▪ Local communities will have control over the development. ▪ Local communities will be friendlier with tourists. **Top Down Management** ▪ Development has standard regulations. ▪ Existence of policies aiming at sustainable development. ▪ Contribution to protection and conservation of natural, historical and cultural resources and monitoring and limiting the negative impacts of tourism activities. ▪ Development within the environmental carrying capacity. **Shared Management** ▪ Improve diversity and quality of the tourism products by collaboration of ideas. ▪ Increase and support local business establishments and increase the number and the quality of employment in the tourism sector. ▪ Development will match with locals' willingness and with their capacity. ▪ Profitable and more economically stable and supported development.
Perceived disadvantages	**Bottom Up Management** ▪ Given local people's lack of business experience and education in addition to the communication issues, obstacles will arise and sustained tourism development would not take place. ▪ Local communities may lose their unique cultural traditions if they are involved totally in the tourism business. ▪ In an open market only those local people who have ability and skills will have permanent jobs; and without a social security system poverty will be spread. ▪ It is not sure that it will preserve local communities' cultural tradition. ▪ Compensating for impacts upon the community is not guaranteed. **Top Down Management** ▪ Routine and bureaucratic processes hinder community development and deter direct local community benefits. ▪ Social, cultural and economic negative impacts. **Shared Management** ▪ Local communities need intensive capacity building programmes that allow them to acquire skills in negotiation.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Table 8.6: Summary of the tourism development facilitators' perspective

	Tourism development facilitators
Perceived advantages	**Bottom Up Management** ▪ The bottom up management strategy will enhance local communities' positive opinions and acceptance of tourists and it may lead to gradual friendly communications and exchange of cultures. ▪ Community will be up-to-date with development in the surrounding area and will be able to provide alternative sources of income during low seasons. ▪ The communities' attractions will be created with locals' support and they will match with local capacity for engagement. **Top Down Management** ▪ The top down management strategy may secure local communities' rights in terms of basic needs. ▪ Development will be within the environmental carrying capacity and the development will have standard regulations. ▪ Monitors and limits the negative impacts of tourism activities. **Shared Management** ▪ Increases the number of small size enterprises linked to tourism operating by community and raises the scale of participation by local people. ▪ Targets the right group of tourist and emphasize community tourism marketing. ▪ Makes a contribution to protect and preserve natural, historical and cultural resources. ▪ Development takes place within the economical carrying capacity. ▪ Explores local communities' unseen potential and enhances their skills.
Perceived disadvantages	**Bottom Up Management** ▪ Discrimination and competition between local communities may change their behaviour and affect local relationships between those communities. ▪ Negative social and environmental impacts may take place given the lack of local monitoring and assessment programmes. ▪ Community products may be set in wrong locations due to the lack of communities' education and experience. **Top Down Management** ▪ Hinders local communities' participation and integration with the tourism development leading to resistance by them. **Shared Management** ▪ Different procedures may obstruct the development. ▪ Without serious changes of the civil society rights laws, this strategy will secure private sector benefits and hinder the government from protecting local communities.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Secondly, the preferred organizational structure for future enterprises which would match with the local community circumstances and the characteristics of each tourism development was investigated. The non-local stakeholders were asked to rank small size enterprises that were owned, managed and operated by local people, local people-private sector enterprises and government enterprises. Figure 8.15 shows the majority of the non-local stakeholders consider that small enterprises may achieve desired goals for local communities and tourism development. Nevertheless the local people-private sector enterprise was ranked as the second option achieving 43% of votes. The responses given are in line with the previous outcome and conclusion.

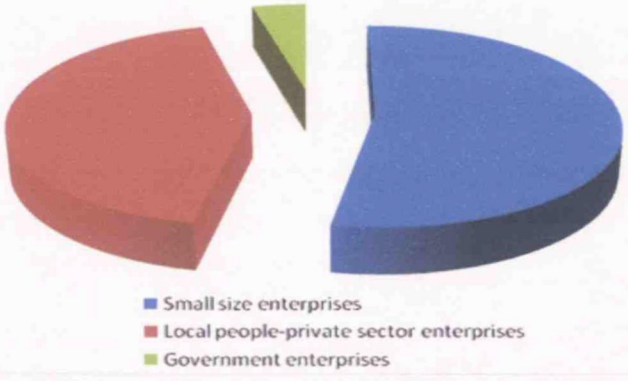


Figure 8.15: Non-local stakeholders' preferences for organizational structure.
Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

8.7 Identified Problems

The following section portrays which problems are seen as having highest priority for local communities by both men and women respondents. Thus it illustrates problems that have been discussed with local communities through focus group discussions, semi-structured interviews and observations. Some issues have been examined according to gender in order to comply with the nature of people's living circumstances; as clear a picture as possible of the situation is given. Moreover particular problems are linked with particular communities. Therefore all interviewees were asked about the problems they face in their daily lives in addition to issues named by the researcher. All problems were ranked according to importance and frequency. As a result numerous problems were noted, and these are presented in Figure 8.16. It is understood that land ownership and job opportunities are of prime concern for both men and women (36% and 27% of

respondents listed these, respectively). These are followed by the conditions of settlements and housing upgrading (23% of respondents); electricity availability and problems related to water quantity and quality are also of vital concern.

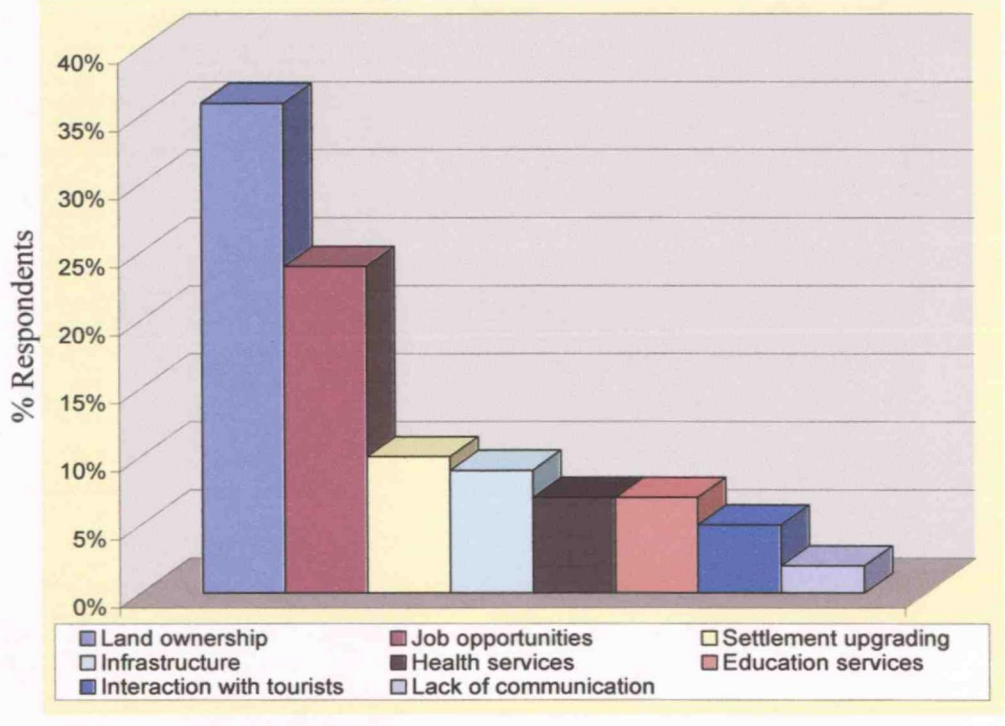


Figure 8.16: Significance of local problems within local communities (n =22)
Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

Education is considered a problem for both men and women but is more so for girls as was observed (see sections 7.2.1, 7.3.1), due to prevailing traditions favouring the education of boys and families' refusal to send "unaccompanied" young girls to distant schools. In fact, it is not only the distance to the school but also additional education expenses that prevent parents from sending their children to school. In some cases, traditions as well act as barriers to the enrolment of girls at school and hence there is a preference to send boys to school rather than girls. In some cases there are not enough schools in the area particularly secondary schools as in Quala'an and Abou Ghosun settlements, thus it is not straightforward to pupils to continue their education. Health is the second most important issue after education faced by local communities due to the lack of facilities in almost all areas. The only available hospital in the area is the one in Marsa Alam, where *"doctors are young and inexperienced; they prescribe the same treatment to everybody regardless of their cases. There are also no medicines available*

and the hospital closes at 1:00 pm" noted one of the local people. The health unit in Shalateen is very poorly equipped and under-staffed (see section 7.2). Women respondents also complained of the lack of women doctors and hence they faced an extra obstacle to health care.

Furthermore, women interviewees ranked the problem of marketing for handicrafts high, while men interviewees gave a high score to lack of employment opportunities. Fishing as an activity is shared by both men and women who do different tasks as members of the household as was mentioned in section 8.3.2 on the gender division of labour, yet it is also mentioned among the men's problems since each licence is obtained in the name of a man. The main complaint concerns the difficulty faced when attempting to obtain licences; each licence obtained is only valid for five days. Anybody caught fishing after those five days is considered a criminal and is subject to penalty. Other problems were identified by different communities; for instance Quala'an local community believes that visitors' driving off road within the area is a real problem since it encroaches upon their privacy.

However, the Shalateen local community ranked pollution and over-crowding as other problems that concerned them in the time since boats have started coming to the area and leaving their waste behind. Abou Ghosun community believes that the lack of refrigeration facilities is a serious problem. Furthermore local communities also voiced their concern about the invasion of the new culture foreign to their own. Their concern is primarily for the younger generation who are confronted with the new and very open manners and behaviour of the tourists. Social isolation is sometimes a problem, as pointed out by one woman who lives in the desert. Participants were also asked to rank the previous problems according to which most hinder local community development. In the light of local people views obstacles that hinder their development were summarized in table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Summary of the obstacles hindering local communities' development identified by local communities

Obstacles hindering local community development
▪ Lack of electricity generator and lack of telephones lines. ▪ The settlements lack water, sewage systems ▪ Schools are not providing a good quality of education that supports local people's knowledge with regards to the tourism industry. ▪ High illiteracy rate among the population. ▪ Lack of communication with tour leaders ▪ Social isolation ▪ Lack of trust between local inhabitants and other stakeholders in general. ▪ Desert inhabitants are separated by very large distances from each other, which increases the cost of planned initiatives.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

8.8 Local communities' development needs

Landownership issue and settlement upgrading are considered as the highest priority needs for developing local communities. The desire to upgrade the housing units and public services of the settlement is very strong. Some of the young men indicated that they would like to end the feeling of being different from other communities. They would like to live in masonry or cement houses as relatives do in Marsa Alam. Some of the young women complained about the lack of electricity supply. Elderly residents did not express their opinion on the status of the housing but they articulated a strong interest in improving the condition of the settlement. Another important constraint is lack of financial resources. Respondents do not have the means to finance the construction of a new house. They have no experience of borrowing from a bank or a cooperative as they do not have surety. They highlighted that their earning from fishing is unpredictable (see section 7.4.3) and they do not have any valuable assets to provide as guarantee. Communities in small settlements have a strong sense of responsibility among the residents toward each other which gradually decreased in medium and large settlements. Table 8.8 ranks the top ten needs of local communities, as highlighted by their residents.

On the other hand and in regards to community capacity building, some interviewees indicated that they have no particular further personal needs and in fact feel happy with their situation apart from their communication needs (see sections 6.2.3 and 6.3.4). In

Table 8.8: Summary ranking of the top ten needs for local communities identified by local communities

Rank	Needs
1	Legal status for settlement and title for land ownership.
2	Services comprising, basic infrastructure particularly electricity and water supply, housing improvement, sanitation services, and social services.
3	Improvement of health services especially for women, provision of medicines and equipment.
4	Job opportunities and benefits from tourism.
5	Capacity building, skills improvement and education facilities.
6	Means of transport, telephones and communication facilities.
7	Supervise and work out problems with tour leaders.
8	Markets and outlets for agricultural products (vegetables and fruits).
9	Improve fishing conditions, fishing permits and veterinary service.
10	Preventing pollution of beaches and introduction of a strict regulatory system for that purpose.

Source: Fieldwork survey (2007)

contrast with what was mentioned (see section 8.4.2) the interviews with one of the managers of a tourism establishment indicated, *"the staff is happy with what they are doing. I do not think that they want to change position or further develop as they also still lack a proper understanding of how they could gain benefits. They have no long term vision yet"*. Local communities that interact with tourists have picked up some English language skills. Local people who work with diving centres are also able to understand the English written diving tables that indicate how many people go on which dives on a particular day. Diving center managers indicated the need for better language skills. *"Local people often need a long time to understand work processes and need to learn in small steps. When you try to teach them too many things at one time they do get confused; however, they become professional and accurate when they learn"* indicated a diving center manager. In agreement with this view one of the local people who works as technical assistant points out that he has been working in diving for many years and he *"already knows how to dive and would like to become a certified dive master so as to be able to advance in this career"*. Those who have a longer experience in diving indicated they would like to complete diving training and become dive masters.

On the other hand, other tourism development stakeholders agreed that local people currently cannot properly participate in and benefit from tourism development as they lack education and general skills. Accordingly first priority should be given to basic education, mobile health and communication facilities; access to essential infrastructure is a basic public services. Services such as improved health services and communication facilities would not only benefit the local inhabitants but also tourists and visitors in cases of casualties and emergencies.

8.9 Summary

This chapter shows that there is not only marginalization of local communities, but also there is a serious conflict between tourism development and local communities as the tourism industry is targeting local communities' areas and they are being excluded from their sources of income. The economic functioning in the region has been influenced and transformed by tourism development and there are negative social, economic and political impacts already being experienced. It is obvious that residents are forced to rely on extremely insufficient resources and opportunities in order to survive. The characteristics of three local communities were analyzed in the light of their level of integration with tourism development. Stakeholders' perspectives on local communities' involvement with tourism development were examined; the character of attractions and ways to market them were examined, and this made it possible to categorize what options are available. These options could be put in place to serve the integration and provide direct benefits for local people. A 'shared management' strategy was clearly preferred as a strategy that secures benefits for local people and tourism stakeholders. This viewpoint was supported by exploring stakeholders' opinions among forms of organizational structures, which match with characteristics of both local people and tourism development form and achieve the aims of both local people and tourism development.

Basic infrastructure in the village settlements is limited and poverty takes different dimensions among local communities. Socio-cultural, physico-ecological and politico-economic impacts were assessed. Furthermore the potential and options of local

communities were investigated in addition to which management strategies and forms of organization would be preferred by non-local stakeholders. Finally local communities' needs and problems were identified by members of local communities. Major problems confronted by inhabitants include access to education, access to health, access to electricity and the effects of existing tourism activities. Interviewees made several suggestions on how to rectify these problems. Among these are the improvement of basic services, improvement of opportunities to produce and market handicrafts, the possibility of cooperating with hotels in tourism activities, the availability of language training, and the opportunity to acquire skills related to tourism, marketing, and environmental awareness. Local communities have not benefited substantially from tourism development in their region. Individuals are in a disadvantaged position compared to Egyptians from other places in terms of direct employment by large hotels because they lack the capabilities and skills. Consequently the next part of the research discusses approaches to securing local people's living conditions. Through identifying options for their involvement within tourism development based on selected criteria that were derived from the literature review and in the light of local communities' strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and constraints.

PART FOUR:
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER NINE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

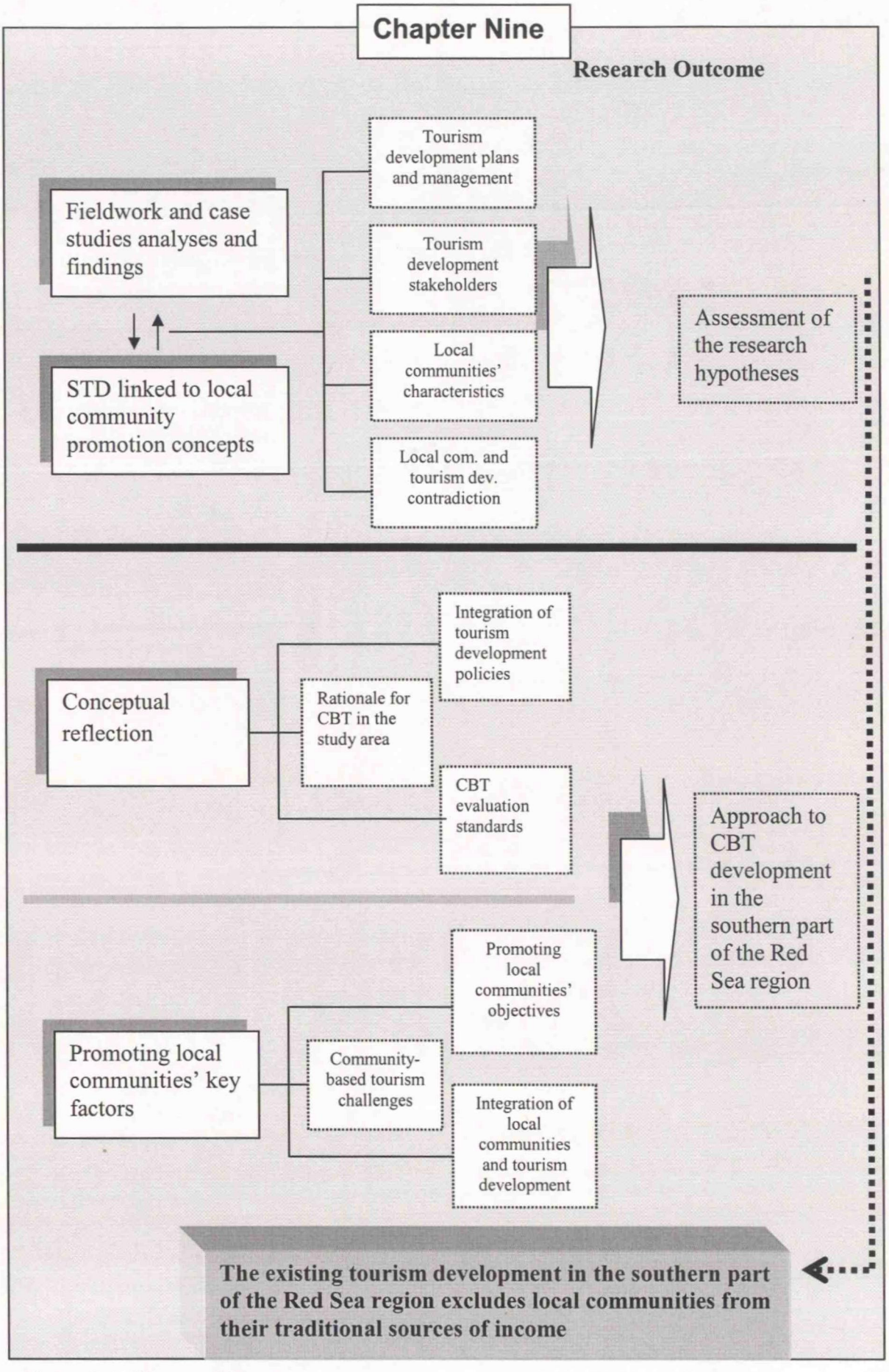


Figure 9.1: Chapter Nine structure

9.1 Introduction

This study has sought to investigate how tourism development in the new tourism destinations in the southern part of the Red Sea exclude local communities from their traditional sources of income and to identify how such development could be more effective in terms of enhancing local communities' quality of life and promoting their participation in tourism. Therefore in-depth analyses were conducted to understand the following issues:

- The recent system of tourism development including its stakeholders, development plan and style of management, types of attractions to be found locally and the future development strategy;
- The local communities' current situation including the social, cultural, physical, economic and political aspects; of local people as well as their living condition and life style; their problems, needs and aspirations;
- The current interaction between local communities and the surrounding tourism development.

Accordingly, the profiles of tourism development and local communities have been outlined on the basis of an understanding of the management of tourism development in the study area and by exploring present and the likely future development plans. Furthermore local communities' problems, needs, potentials and the future they hoped for have been identified; examining the current interaction between the tourism industry and local communities. Issues hindering sustainability in terms of local communities' integration have been explored and an understanding was gained of the existing roles of different stakeholders together with potential future stakeholders. Also, the potential of people in the local community, in terms of income-generating abilities has been explored.

In the light of the adopted methodology, three case studies were selected (Chapter Six). Quala'an, Abou Ghosun and Shalateen represent rural, semi-urban and urban settlements respectively. The previous two chapters outlined the national, regional and local circumstances and the characteristics of the local communities and tourism development.

An in-depth analysis was carried out, identifying the existing and the possible future relation between them (Chapters Seven and Eight). The main objective of this chapter is to bring together the research findings and the concept of sustainable tourism development (STD) linked to enhancement of local communities. Consequently the chapter is divided into two parts (see figure 9.1). **First**, in section 9.2 the research findings are compared in terms of the actual status of tourism development in the study area using criteria selected for sustainable tourism development linked to improving the local community. These criteria were derived from the literature review. Accordingly research findings on tourism development plans, stakeholders, and management process are identified and how all of these affect the local communities. The contradiction between local people and tourism development is compared against local communities' living conditions, traditions and norms in order to explore their options for involvement within tourism development and so minimize the likely negative impacts. Local communities' strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats and constraints are presented based on the findings. **Second**, in the light of the literature review, Three and Four, approaches to improving local communities' circumstances are explored. In section 9.4 key factors, objectives and structure for promoting local communities are explored. The foundations needed to establish the concept of promoting local communities via tourism development in the study area are discussed in the light of local communities' characteristics, such as what might be their limit of acceptable change, the seasonality of economic activities focusing on tourism activities and capacity building. These criteria for promoting local communities' participation in tourism development provide the essential building blocks for establishing community-based tourism development.

9.2 Review the research findings

In the wider context, Egypt is one of the oldest tourism destinations particularly in the Middle East; however, tourism development policy has vacillated. The Egyptian tourism industry has witnessed different policies during the last fifty years; including: the centralization of tourism development projects within particular areas and products managed by the public sector, but then, late, decentralization and fragmentation of

tourism development projects and these entirely developed by private sector investments. Recently a number of development scenarios were prepared by the government to provide the country with a reasonable global tourism market share (see section 5.5) and tourism development plans and priorities action areas were designed in accordance with these. The government has successfully doubled the number of hotels rooms and tourists nights within the last fifteen years, and this has provided a considerable number of jobs and a good share of GDP. The government has sacrificed long-term sustainability in order to gain urgently needed foreign exchange by promoting and approving around 10,000 hotel rooms annually. Tourism development plans have led to concerns for the natural environment, whilst local communities' rights have been denied.

Local communities suffer from marginalization by all tourism development stakeholders. The majority of local communities experience poverty at different levels. Most people live in illegal settlements referred to as slums, due to the condition of the houses and land tenure. The government pays attention to particular settlements mostly for political reasons. However, the majority of the inhabitants of the coastal settlements and all the deep-range inhabitants have no access to essential services. The local authorities are trapped between local communities' requirements at local level and the national goals. Because local communities are being excluded from using their traditional sources of income by the resort developments, they have attempted to benefit from the nearby tourism; but they are faced with exploitation by brokers and tour-guides. In addition the government has restricted any local development or upgrading particularly of small settlements, for the purpose of protecting the tourism industry and the national treasures.

9.2.1 Tourism development overview

In the national tourism development plan the Red Sea region takes a priority - where new tourism destinations with unique natural settings and a proven ability to generate foreign exchange - as tourism have been improved as embodies the holiday aspirations of European tourists. The research literature acknowledges that sustainable tourism development requires local communities' involvement in terms not only of benefiting

from the industry but also deciding for themselves and acting as development partners. According to Barton (2000) environmental, social and economic aspects are unquestioned principles for sustainability. Furthermore the WTO (1996) accepts as true that the fulfillment of communities' willingness to meet natural environment conservation standards and to achieve economic, social and culture benefits is in line with the spirit of sustainability. Communities' self-reliance and their political freedom - in addition to the satisfaction of basic community needs - are the main requirements for sustainable development (IUCN, 1991). Nevertheless the present research findings have identified that, although the southern part of the Red Sea region is considered as a promising new tourism destination for the country, its tourism development plans have missed the main principle of sustainability. Tourism development in the area pays no attention to local communities and exists primarily for to the benefit of private sector stakeholders.

9.2.2 Tourism development plans

Butler (1993) emphasizes that physical, cultural, social and economic aspects are considered as the fundamental components to achieve sustainability in any development plan. The Red Sea region study area is receiving attention due to current tourism development, but the tourism development plans have ignored the existence of local communities. Since the natural environmental assets are the central attraction in the study area, most attention has been given to conserving these resources. Tourism development plans are prepared at the regional level, in line with national objectives and they have totally disregarded local needs. In contrast the UNEP (2002b) indicates that providing initiatives to support local communities may secure the development goals for short-, medium-, and long-term plans. As local people recognize the importance of natural resources and they recognize traditional methods to conserve them, and as local people are involved, it is then that they will help to protect these resources. Furthermore JCP (1988) clarifies that a regional level of planning could play a fundamental role once it is linked with the local planning level (see sections 2.5.3 and 4.2.1). Integration between different levels of planning is an essential condition for achieving the aims of

sustainability (see section 2.5.4). The current state of tourism development planning at the regional level not only ignores the land use details in terms of their conflict with local communities' traditional activities, but also does not provide alternative income opportunity, nor does it propose policies to integrate local communities.

Consequently, little of the revenue created by tourism reaches local communities who inhabit the area although they represent a vital and rich human resource. Local people cannot be adequately integrated into the changing economy and they have not benefited substantially from tourism development in their region. Such tourism development is characterized by substantial sustainability leakages because of high dependence on mass-tourism and the tendency of the industry to employ labour from outside the governorate, especially in tourism related jobs. In addition it is expected that if this sort of tourism development is pursued, serious cultural and social negative impacts will take place in the southern part of the Red Sea region due to the commercialization of traditional societies. The nature of tourism development needs to be reviewed in order to ensure that the local community is enabled to improve in a manner and scale that is compatible with available human and physical resources and is sensitive to pertinent environmental and social aims.

9.2.3 Tourism development stakeholders

The previous chapters has shown that there are three main official parties who share accountability for supervision and development of the area; two of them act at the national level namely the Tourism Development Authority and the Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency; then, the Red Sea Governorate has a regional level of authority. The TDA takes the leading role in development since it is responsible for the implementation of the national tourism development plan. This gives authority to the TDA to control about 80% of the area in the southern part of the Red Sea (see sections 5.6.1 and 5.6.2). Identifying priority development areas, devising development plans, carrying out tourism development projects appraisal and monitoring procedures are the main tasks for the TDA. On the other hand the EEAA's responsibility is restricted to protecting marine parks such as the corals reefs and mangroves in addition to the

hinterland national parks which located in specific areas along the coast and in the deep-range (see 5.6.3). Finally the RSG acts as a regional authority among settlements and local communities who live in the government territory (see Figure 5.11). Settlement councils are responsible for managing local settlements under the RSG umbrella. The limited budget given to the councils influences the roles they play among local communities.

The private sector contains national and international investors who are targeting mass-tourism activities. In the light of the difficult development conditions (lack of facilities, infrastructure and the unstable global tourism market in addition to the increased cost of building materials) the private sector has valuable experience for managing tourism development in the study area. Around 2000 hotel rooms have been developed during the last few years and have an estimated occupation rate of 75% annually. The private sector aims to provide all comprehensive programmes that satisfy tourists and this reduces tourists' need to go outside the resort territory. Accordingly the numbers of tourists visiting the local communities and interacting with them are low. Civil society is restricted to particular activities and NGOs have more interest in nature conservation than in the rights of communities. The lack of public awareness and the poor communications among stakeholders has minimized the role of NGOs (see section 5.6.4). Nevertheless local community development associations try to play a useful role to develop the local communities.

9.2.4 Local communities living conditions

Urban, semi-urban and rural settlements are the three official categories given by the RSG for the settlements in the area which in turn is reflected in the size of the settlements, accordingly living in large, medium and small settlements (see section 5.8.2 and Tables 5.7 and 5.8). The deep-range shelters are the commonest kind of dwelling. On the one hand, some attention has been given to the large settlements mostly for political reasons and this has led to a limited enhancement of public services and infrastructure. The settlements have been experiencing a demographic breakdown due to the immigrants

from the northern part of the Red Sea region and from the Valley (see sections 5.9.4 and 7.4.1). Medium and small settlements suffer from lack of services and infrastructure. Although the government claims that there are a number of schemes which support local communities promotion such as the TNRMA and Orban (see sections 7.2.3 and 7.4), the majority of local people lack adequate social, health and education services, infrastructure, food and water supply. This is less true of the large settlements (see sections 7.2.2, 7.3.2 and 7.4.2).

Lack of job opportunities and the spread of poverty are major problems that hinder community development. Generally speaking all communities experience poor communications with decision makers. A sense of being threatened by incoming migrants, being cut off from opportunities and marginalization are common feelings among local communities (see sections 8.2.5 and 8.3.3). Local communities have particular customs among themselves and with others. The original customs are maintained and could become tourism attractions. Potential activities linked to handicrafts, fishing, and other economic activities were identified in the research; these are divided by gender (see section 8.2.3). As in Nepal case discussed in the literature review, women share responsibility with men (see section 4.3.2). Similarity between these cases could also be seen in the fundamental role played by women, due to their skills particularly in handicrafts, husbandry, catering and household activities all of which could play a role in improving local communities.

9.2.5 Tourism management

The research established that TDA, EEAA and RSG are the main players in the study area. TDA and MOT own the land and have power and rights to monitor tourism projects in the construction and operation stage. The TDA oversees the quality of tourism facilities, tourists' security; programmes, entertainments and recreational activities provided for the tourists in terms of maintaining order, constructing discipline and quality control. In addition environmental maintenance procedures are applied regularly by TDA and EEAA to control tourism impacts. Accordingly a number of guidelines were

developed in this study to confirm stakeholders' roles in conserving natural resources, particularly the coral reefs and the setback area. Stakeholders cooperate to develop environmentally sound tourism projects. Initiatives such as environmental impact assessments, land use management plans, control of setback areas and coral reef monitoring programmes have been launched but these have completely disregarded the requirements of local communities.

No specific roles or policies for TDA or EEAA exist to support local communities apart from the local authority which belongs to RSG. Local authorities in turn consider local communities to be nomadic and their houses as temporary houses with no legal status. The tourism management and operating systems are left completely to the private sector. Existing tourism facilities in the area are mass-tourism developments by national and international firms. All-inclusive accommodation packages prevent tourists interacting with local communities, as programmes, food, beverages and even local handicrafts are provided by the resorts and the attached facilities. On the other hand, local communities lack communication skills and this hinders their ability to interact with visitors. In addition, the quality of local people's products and their lack of marketing experience minimize the local communities' opportunity to benefit from tourism – which further raises the profits of tour guides and brokers.

9.2.6 Stakeholders and local communities

The previously described contradiction between stakeholders (see section 9.2.3) casts its shadow over the tragedy of local communities'. On one hand the RSG divided the Red Sea based on the existing settlements which were identified according to their size; categorizing them as small, medium and large settlements. The capital city possesses the majority of the Red Sea population, financial resources and development schemes. The other cities suffer from the lack of public services and infrastructure, apart from particular cases such as Shalateen. On the other hand, the TDA has divided the Red Sea region into five main sectors, further dividing them into a number of tourism development centres depending only on the natural characteristics. Finally EEAA manages the protection of

the setback areas, and coral reefs and mangrove areas in which has particular roles for environmental conservation.

In view of the fact that local communities' rights are not upheld by the law, the private sector has limited interest in providing local communities with jobs, apart from those individuals who have skills. Generally speaking public participation is very limited in Egypt and small number of NGOs acting on local community improvement is small; however, CDA is the most highly regarded structure looking after locals' issues (see sections 5.6.5 and 5.6.6). there is no established ways in which for non-local stakeholders might support local communities' development, and local communities are faced with fragmentation between different stakeholders. The research findings showed that tourism development stakeholders have different agendas in the areas where the mass-tourism is characterized by its non-local orientation, leakage of opportunities from the community and the emphasis put on commercialization of natural, social and cultural resources to meet the tourists' demands. Consequently a new form of cooperation between stakeholders is required, one that would secure the promotion of local communities. An example of such cooperation would be developers and government setting sustainability objectives in the light of local communities' requirements.

In contrast, local communities' involvement is definitely the cornerstone of sustainable tourism -as was explained in the first and the second Parts of this dissertation. Local communities should be represented by local committees elected by locals to share all development procedures (see sections 2.5.4, 3.4). The positive global experiences analyzed in Chapter Four such as Bali, Phuket and India not only put emphasis on local communities' empowerment, but also the local people there have been consulted about nearby development in line with their experience (see section 4.2.1). A similar approach has been taken in the Namibian CBT case discussed in section 4.3.3. Wearing and McDonald (2002) recommend that successful tourism development should not only involve local people through the use of their natural resources and support them financially but also maintain their cultural traditions.

In the long term this approach will sustain the tourism industry because local people will understand the importance of tourism and support it. The Mountain Institute (2000) clarifies that the less the involvement of local communities in the surrounding areas, the more threats the industry will face by losing its potential. CBT schemes are those which provide local communities with their rights. Such schemes have to secure regular and local channels of communications between communities and development stakeholders. The decision makers' roles are supposed to entail providing tourism development schemes that would be oriented toward the needs of local communities and which would no longer focus on economic and technical necessities alone. This development approach highlights the demand for much greater consideration of local communities' needs where the Community Development Association and local mechanism can be employed to outline locals' aspirations.

9.2.7 The contradiction of local communities and tourism development

The fringing reef acts as a barrier for both local communities and for tourism activities. Bays and natural lagoons are significant potential assets, which could be used for safe access by local fishermen and developed as unique tourism projects; however locals have been barred from using these sites because the fishermen are not supported politically and economically by the government, as happens with those who invest in tourism. However, tourism development not only influences the local fishermen, but also negatively affects all other local groups such as camel traders, mining workers and husbandries (see section 8.4.3). Unlike the Nusa Dua and Bali cases (see section 4.2.1) there is no official intent to change the situation of the local communities in terms of allowing them to share natural resources with the tourism facilities. This is apparent from the regional development plans and the local circumstances. Furthermore in view of the fact that small settlements are considered as illegal settlements, local people are threatened with eviction for the benefit of tourism due to the importance and the value of land in the area they are settling.

The problems faced by local communities are typical of those described by Shah and Gupta (2000) (see sections 4.2 and 4.3); local communities are not supported in the national and regional development plans and no other sites for local communities' resettlement will satisfy their needs (see section 4.2.1). An important argument here is that if the government does not take into account local people's circumstances then frustration openly expressed by local communities and visitors will be seen as a cause of their problems (see section 2.7 and 4.3.4). Local people are in a disadvantaged position compared to Egyptians from the Nile Valley in terms of direct employment by resorts, hotels and tourism facilities because they lack the capabilities and skills needed in large-scale luxury tourism establishments. It can be seen that the existing planning system operates without socio-economic assessment and there is a lack of clarity and consensus about what is to be sustained. Unacknowledged trade-off of competing values, lack of meaningful involvement of local communities and a lack of capacity building and the setting of development policies by decision-makers, characterize the state of the study area (see sections 7.4.1, 8.4.3 and 8.6). By contrast, CBT as discussed in sections 3.2 and 3.7 offers more opportunities for the direct involvement of local communities and supports the tourism industry as well.

9.2.8 Local communities' options

Different perceptions are in place according to the character of the interaction between local communities and tourists. Tourists' behaviour with the local community in small settlements is different to that in large settlements, due to the nature and the diversity of attractions and the host community (see sections 7.2.3 and 7.4.3). Tour-guides, traders and brokers play an important role as they have the ability to deal with both locals and tourists. Although it is obvious that local communities are aware that they are being used by brokers, they keep working with them due to their lack of ability to communicate with tourists directly (see section 8.4). As has been shown in the Belize case (see section 4.3.3) local communities can be seen as patrons of a CBT approach as they are "first order resources" with their skills and experience. However, in the case study there is no integration between brokers and patrons due to the inability to communicate.

Consequently language and communication skills are considered to be the main barrier for local community improvement. Although local communities possess different potentials and experience that could be used to integrate them into the surrounding development (see section 8.5), professionals amongst the private sector stakeholders indicated that the quality of local communities' attractions is quite poor and needs to be enhanced through community capacity building. This might help to overcome exploitation by brokers.

The fieldwork survey carried out with the private sector (see section 8.4) showed that tourist operations for the traditional resorts seek to provide an attractive mix of guest services and activities that are almost exclusively located within the perimeter of the resort property. The conventional resort with its hotel facility and associated amenities essentially defines the majority of the guest experiences and thus must be designed and built to meet those consumer demands. Nevertheless, according to Li (2004) and Peace (1998) responsible tourism trends illustrated by CBT could add another attraction for tourists that in turn generates more tourist expenditure and nights (see section 3.4). Furthermore opportunities could be achieved by activating the local communities' potential assets such as those shown in the Amazon case "Posadas" (see Box 5.2 and section 4.3.1). Applying a CBT approach could avoid negative consequences as experienced in the Philippines and Greece (see section 4.4.1) or going through a process of changing and losing local character (see Box 5.1). The evidence suggests that one way to achieve the industry's aims and local communities' development goals is by integrating them with the existing industry. Local people are considered to be the cornerstone of a CBT development approach, so these approaches should not only improve local people's status, but should also reflect their values, standards, norms and also preserve these values. Accordingly a CBT approach has to be assessed in terms of local people's strengths, opportunities, weakness, threats and constraints. Table 9.1 summarizes a SWOT analysis for local communities of the Red Sea region.

Table 9.1 Summary of the SWOT analysis for CBT development approach

Strengths	**Destination assets** • Natural resources include mountains, desert, unique geology, land forms, culture heritage antiquities and geomorphology in addition to the biotic resources such as the fauna and flora including coral reefs, mangrove swamps and salt marshes surrounding local communities. • The physical assets found in the traditional built environment including local communities' shelters, meeting places, wells, tracks, husbandry areas in addition to the infrastructure available. • Local communities' livestock, fishing boats, nets, camels, daily life materials such as the Gabana and baking kits and the handicraft raw materials. **Community support** • Local communities' enthusiastic wish to be a part of the surrounding development. **Workforce** • The local communities' work force and their skills, knowledge, experience, cultural solidarity, and cultural traditions, norms, standards and life style. **Management capacity** • The existing networks, formalized groups and the community development association.
Opportunities	**Economic opportunities** • Desert activities and expeditions that attract a wide range of tourists may provide an opportunity for talented locals to be employed. • The surrounding cultural heritage antiquities could provide a considerable variety of jobs for local communities by employing them to maintain these and guide tourists through. • The physical assets may be considered as the cornerstone for developing proper CBT facilities that match local life styles. **Product and market opportunities** • The uniqueness of local communities and their originality. • The authentic handicraft markets match CBT approach. • There is a good opportunity to develop further demand for the communities' unique products. **Community enhancement** • Locals are persuaded to integrate with existing tourism development nearby; locals are able to learn and accept changes and acquire relevant skills. **Conservation** • Local communities' contribution to natural and cultural assets as well as the proposed tourism development.

Continued

Table 9.1 continued

Weaknesses	**Lack of tourist appeal** • The settlements' current conditions and the lack of infrastructure. • The products' poor quality. • Marketing limitations and local people's inability to communicate with tourists. • Poverty. **No vision** • Local people's areas not defended by law. • The ignorance of officials and lack of democracy. • Lack of social society life and NGOs cooperation. • Local communities' lack of awareness and attentiveness. • Private sector exploitation in terms of tour-guides and mistreatment by brokers. **Preparedness** • Illegal status of local settlements. • Lack of official development plans or policies linked to local communities. • The need for intensive capacity building and training programmes, lack of financial sources.
Threats and Constraints	**Environmental impacts** • Overuse of natural resources by locals and tourists. • Disturbance of natural resources to satisfy tourists. • Increased rate of water and energy consumption. • Increased amount of solid waste and lack of treatment facilities. • Expected pollution. **Cultural degradation** • Changes in the local communities' structure, constitution and solidarity. • Loss of cultural traditions, norms and standards. • Local communities' commercialization. • Dissent and conflicts among locals. **Poor quality** • Tourist dissatisfaction. • Private sector exploitation and lack of cooperation. • Lack of handicrafts quality and health standards for oriental food and beverage. **External threats** • Increased immigration rate. • Increased taxes and cost of land.

Source: The author

9.3 Assessment of the research hypotheses

The principles of sustainable development suggest that community and the natural environment are the cornerstones of sustainability (see sections 2.5, 3.5 and 4.2). One of the important objectives of socio-cultural sustainable development is to increase people's control over their lives and maintain and strengthen community identity which must be compatible with the culture and the values of the people (see sections 3.4, 4.2.1 and 4.4). Therefore community involvement in tourism development must be at the centre of the sustainability debate in this area. However, the research findings revealed that the existing national and regional tourism development plans do not consider local communities' needs and there is a serious conflict between local communities' needs and tourism development (see sections 8.2.4, 9.2.2 and 9.2.7).

Small, medium and large settlements are being affected by tourism development. The consequences of development are widely visible among local communities. Negative economic impacts can be seen not only in the low rate of job opportunities provided for local communities within the tourism sector (2%), but also in the low number of permanent jobs (see section 8.4). In the light of the problem of the limited access to the sea and the fringing reef, the existing resort-based tourism development has colonized the natural routes of access that local fishermen use to carry out their work, and that it has prevented them from utilizing those routes (see sections 7.2.3, and 8.4.3). Tourism facility managers do not even cooperate with local fishermen by purchasing their catch, due to the low quantity caught- the result of inadequate fishing equipment, storage capacity and lack of refrigeration facilities (see sections 7.3.3 and 8.2.5). Furthermore, the local mining industry has been affected: the requirements of tourism and natural conservation. Mining was seen as a source of pollution and a number of regulations have sought to prevent the crushing of the extracted phosphate and talc before it is transported for export. This has left mining investors with no feasible alternatives and mining activities ceased. Construction was considered as an alternative source of income for local people; but, it is a short-term activity. Moreover other activities such as camel trading and husbandry have been negatively affected due to requirements of tourism

development. Local communities try to benefit from the surrounding tourism; nevertheless, they are being faced with exploitation by brokers (see sections 7.2.3, 7.3.3., 7.4.3 and 8.4.3).

In terms of politics, the majority of local people are considered as customary occupiers without legal status. Housing conditions, infrastructure and utilities are insufficient apart from those in large settlements. The Orban scheme is considered as one of the main food sources for local people this scheme has no support from the tourism industry (see sections 7.3.3 and 8.4). Action by civil society is limited due to the lack of democracy and the centralization of decision making. NGOs' work with local communities is restricted to particular issues (see section 5.6.6). The high rate of immigration threatens the homogeneous nature of the local population and the traditional patterns of society. Social impacts are more tangible among women and young people due to the low level of public services, particularly education, health and social services. These in turn cause deep feelings of marginalization among local people. **The study has shown that the existing tourism development in the southern part of the Red Sea region excludes local communities from their traditional sources of income** (see section 9.2.7). This exclusion will lead to serious negative social, cultural and demographic impacts. The industry overall is shown as lacking the main principles of sustainability. A possible way forward is discussed below with recommendations for overcoming the existing negative impacts and for achieving the desired future in terms of improving the status of local communities and their living conditions.

9.4 Conceptual reflection

The research has been designed to answer the question, which is: **Can tourism development in the new tourism destinations at the southern part of the Red Sea region be more effective in terms of enhancing the quality of life within local communities and also promote their participation in development?.** The study revealed that the diverse natural resources of the region have proven to be a powerful attraction to tourists. The original facilities of tourism in the study area are the shore- and

marine-based resort facilities and amenities. Although the accelerated sequence of planning and development ignored the existence of local communities which is leading to what are obviously serious consequences, community-based tourism (CBT) can play a vital role in the region's future economic development by connecting its cultural attractions, natural attractions and traditional antiquities-based tourism with recreational activities. These connections have the potential both to increase the number of quality attractions for the tourists which in turn can improve investment profits, and enhance local communities' quality of life. Thus, the empowerment of local communities may be associated ultimately with the tourism industry and the conservation status of the region's natural resources would be maintained. In this way, national and regional strategic objectives of sustainable tourism diversification can be achieved.

9.4.1 Approach to CBT development in the southern part of the Red Sea region

For all its natural and cultural diversity, Egypt is not viewed in the international market as a community-based tourism or ecotourism destination. Having positioned its product as a traditional cultural, archaeological, sightseeing destination a long time ago, the country has successfully diversified into the mass-market beach holiday and recreational diving markets in the last decade. The Red Sea coast in particular has been the centre of this successful industry diversification and has become one of the world's foremost diving destinations, based on the extraordinary coral reefs located in this area. The unique natural resources of the area support a thriving diving industry focused currently on the towns of Hurghada and Marsa Alam and, in future, on Shalateen. Accordingly hotels, resorts and small lodging operations are provided in addition to diving, snorkeling, aqua centre and safari centres. Nevertheless, since the generally accepted image of community-based tourism destinations involves cultural heritage, natural landscapes, and natural attractions and these could meet stakeholders and local communities' objectives, they need to be designed attentively. In the light of the research findings it is obvious that although tourism development in the area targets mass-tourism and provides all-inclusive

programmes, there is a high interest and desire for mixed programmes in particular, those which offer cultural locations as well as nature-based experiences (see section 8.2.4).

The research implies that there is a need for integrated management and the adoption of a socio-economic approach which considers natural aspects. Continuous management of tourism is just as important as proper planning and development. It is essential to provide incentives for the wide involvement of local communities. There is a realistic viable relationship between tourism development from one hand and the upgrading of living standard of local communities and natural resources conservation from the other hand, and this is a symbiotic relationship. It is not enough to consider the existing conditions and provide local people with marginal benefits. Certainly nobody benefits from a conflictual relationship. Furthermore, serious negative impacts may threaten the industry itself. It is a well recognized fact that one of the highest priorities of the government is to improve sustainable economic development in the study area (see sections 5.5 and 9.2.2); nevertheless, raising the standard of living of many poor local people, who are lacking job opportunities and all types of basic services, should be seen as a condition to secure sustainable development in terms of social aspects, nature and respecting and conserving these for further generations.

9.4.2 Rationale of CBT in the study area

The literature review has shown that all alternative approaches linked to community integration consider three fundamental values associated with empowerment of local communities. These values are simply to secure sustainable economic benefits for local people; to provide regular mechanisms which secure their benefits; and to consider their needs, ambitions and experience during the planning and management stage (Li, 2004; Peace, 1998; Murphy, 1985). These values reflect local communities' economic, social and political empowerment. For instance according to Brandon (1993) ecotourism is considered as an approach which not only develops and sustains local people in terms of creating jobs and delivering economic benefits to remote communities, but also one that preserves the character of local people. Furthermore the International Ecotourism Society

defined the ecotourism approach as "responsible travel to natural areas that preserve the natural resources and sustains the welfare of local people" (Wood, 2002). Moreover IIED (1999) considers that pro-poor tourism aims to generate net benefits to the poor local people and that this in turn gains their support and involvement. If the proposed CBT is carefully managed and shared practically along with local people, lasting employment for local people could be achieved (Brandon, 1993), which would alleviate poverty in the study area more effectively than any other economic sector.

On the one hand sustainable tourism development, linked to the promotion of local communities in the Red Sea region as tourism destinations, can play a vital role in the realization of the previous values. This should enable the visitor to experience personally a variety of nature-based and cultural activities that accurately and authentically represent the natural beauty and cultural heritage of the region. The use of CBT to further diversify the region's tourism market represents a significant departure from the conventional tourism development techniques offered by the resort hotels located along the Red Sea. Both types of tourism are economically important to the region. Although they are distinctly different, they depend upon and integrate with each other. The personal experience of the tourists targeted as appropriate visitors, include some combination of environmental and cultural activities that are further reinforced by activities that accurately reflect the heritage, foods, handicrafts, and various personal services that distinctly characterize the local communities. The likely future visitors generally seek a destination where environmental conservation is improving and economic benefits are gained by the host communities, basically after a good package deal which includes accommodation, sun, diving…etc. Accordingly, serious efforts should be put into researching the CBT market in an attempt to define the type of visitors or identify a market segment that is most likely to participate in CBT activities.

On the other hand the study area is facing increasing pressures on its natural, cultural and socio-economic environments because of an on-going development (resorts) style based on short-term priorities that generate unacceptable impacts that harm society and the environment. Tourism development, at the national and regional levels, should consider

local level aspects and contribute considerably to improve the quality of life of local communities and preserve natural resources. Sustainable tourism development linked to support local communities is an absolute necessity for sustaining tourism development in the study area. Significant positive impacts could be gained by the involvement of local people (see section 3.5). All players in tourism development, particularly the decision-makers and the private sector actors, should promote the concept of encourage working in partnership with local people to improve and develop tourism experiences that demonstrate the unique characteristics of the area.

9.4.3 CBT evaluation standards

The research shows that tourism development in the Red Sea influences local communities negatively where priority is given to financial profits. The case study assessment implies that tourism development in the southern part of the Red Sea region is characterized by poor communications between tourism development stakeholders; leakage of economic benefits; negative impacts upon all domestic economic sectors; isolation and marginalization of local communities due to conflict over limited natural resources, which may lead to loss of culture and social identity (see section 8.2.5, 8.3.3 and 8.4.3). Accordingly, any proposed CBT development strategy must be designed to overcome the existing problems and achieve the desired end result. Criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of CBT development policies with the aim of promoting local communities' objectives (see section 9.4.3) can be seen as firstly, criteria linked to the natural aspects, which basically aimed to conserve the natural resources such as obtaining practical policy appropriate for the local circumstances to conserve natural resources. And address the uses of very sensitive natural resources such as mangroves, coral reefs and natural protected areas in the deep-range; plus apply regularly policies include monitoring and assessing procedures using the experience of local communities. Secondly, criteria linked to the political aspects, such as providing legal tenure and legal status for local settlements. In addition to offer the participation of local people as a part of development processes through accepted channels where the development information is available. Stakeholders' roles should be integrated together and recognized among each

group. Furthermore policies are in place which aim at social issues of employment and good relations with local people should be provided and place procedures which aim to select visitors who generally seek CBT destinations. Thirdly, criteria linked to the economic aspects; such as provide instruments for increasing tourists' visiting rates and diversify local communities' products and services. Moreover place policies which offer alternative activities for income generation during the low seasons and a reasonable distribution of economic benefits from tourism revenues. Enterprises that provide the targeted activities for tourist accurately reflect the heritage, foods, handicrafts, and various personal services should be placed. Present capacity building for local people's skills. Assess the quantity and quality of local people directly and indirectly employ in the tourism sector. Monitor for assure that poverty is alleviated continuously and the development achieves improved welfare for local people. Finally, criteria linked to the Social aspects; such as place the development policies which enhance local communities' quality of life and maintain their standards, norms and cultural traditions and upgrade local people houses conditions, infrastructures and public services particularly education and health services. Provide policies aimed to encourage local people to take an active part in nearby tourism development. Assess local community attitudes to tourism including community agreement and rationality of the industry, perceptions and acceptance of the surrounding tourism development.

9.4.4 Integration of tourism development policies

The research has shed light on the failure of communication, which is apparent not only between local communities and other tourism development stakeholders but also there is a poor integration between development polices in governmental agencies at local, regional and national levels. Tourism development stakeholders and local people are faced with bureaucratic procedures. Integration is needed to 'join up' regional development policies linked to economic sectors at national and regional government level and development agencies at local level. Moreover, tourism development plans need to be in line with the selected management strategy. The design of planning

processes that join together different local and regional development policies and their implementation in the local context would help to secure more sustainable development.

According to UNEP and the World Bank (2000), even where tourism development is considered to be the major source of income in a particular region, sectoral polices of different economic sectors should be integrated to serve both tourism development goals and the strategic development objectives. Murphy (1993) points out that "if tourism is to become the successful and self-perpetuating industry many have advocated, it needs to be planned and managed as a renewable resource industry, based on local capacities and community decision making". Furthermore Richard and Hall (2000) stress that integration of policies is essential to achieve sustainable tourism development objectives not only in terms of economic sectoral integration, but also between different local bodies in the region. Thus it is important that balanced roles between stakeholders within an integrated policies approach to plan and manage the development should be considered. This could take place within an institutional communication framework that is based on CBT; however, roles of civil society need to be emphasized in the first place through regulation and public awareness. Consequently a broad-based community development approach could be introduced aimed at resisting poverty and at enhancing local people's quality of life. In the proposed communication framework approach, local people should organize themselves as an independent body through their traditional representatives. The Community Development Association (CDA) and the fishermen's association could strengthen their negotiations to play a predetermined role with respect to other stakeholders such as decision makers, the private sector and tourism development facilitators. Each stakeholder would have his own role that is oriented to achieving the established strategic development goals. Particular principles need to be taken into consideration to secure sustainable development and to upgrade local communities. The involvement of tourism development stakeholders (including local people) is essential during the planning process, as this involvement could lead to long-term success. Local people's experience of the surrounding natural resources may provide natural, social and culture potential which is as yet undetermined. The private sector's marketing, operating and management experience could provide professional administration. However,

tourism development facilitators' experience linked to national, regional and local obligations could help decision-makers to achieve a comprehensive tourism development plan. Furthermore attention needs to be given to tourism quality and the quantity of facilities in order to achieve integration rather than opposition and competition, particularly among those types of projects which can create a full range of activities. The processes of other economic sectors - such as mining, fishing, husbandry, constructing and trading - should be taken into consideration in the planning stage so as to serve the development overall as well as the tourism industry, and to improve the economic status of local communities. This integration of economic development policies could provide a variety of sources of income and job opportunities to a wide range of local communities.

9.5 Local communities: critical underpinning for change

There is a real danger that communities living in the study area are losing interest in the possibilities of creating a CBT product which might benefit their own livelihoods. According to Richards and Hall (2000) the tourism industry that does not serve the surrounding local communities will face local resistance. Local communities then become the focus of conflicts and they refuse to go along with the industry. And this in turn accelerates the reaching of a saturation level in terms of volume accepted by local people, where the costs of tourism outweigh the benefits (Murphy, 1985). The direct benefits can simply be seen as those of providing local people with alternative sources of income. According to the research findings, the ideal alternatives should act as a bridge between local people's common skills and future CBT products in line with local communities' traditions, standards and norms. It is understandable that the study area presents a significant challenge to the CBT approach due to scarce development resources and lack of economic and social activities, as these tend to be concentrated on the coastal zone. Moreover there is limited interconnectivity between the economic, environmental, social, cultural and political spheres.

On the one hand local youths mainly in coastal settlements (see section 8.2.4) have a strong preference for working in jobs offered by the tourism sector, particularly for those

who have no assets. Reasons for preferring work in resorts are based on a comparison of occupational salaries between working in a formal tourism establishment like a resort and running a business that is owned by somebody else. The latter is seen as discontinuous work whilst a job in a resort is perceived as a real job where employees can be very selective in the types of their occupations (see section 7.3.3). On the other hand owning small, medium and micro-enterprises is seen to be a favorable solution both by local communities and other stakeholders. As in the Brazilian case enthusiasm and local communities' support are quite important assets (see sections 2.5.3 and 4.2.3). Accordingly it is critically important to identify local peoples' potential that could form the foundation for CBT products.

The CBT approach defines responsible travel as which consists of travel to specific areas that provide a unique and satisfactory experience to tourists whilst ensuring conservation of the environment and helping to sustain the well-being of local people (see section 3.6). Ashley (2006) points out that the pro-poor tourism approach emphasizes the role of tourism in contributing to poverty eradication by employing cultural and environmental assets, thus generating net benefits to poor local communities (see section 3.7). There are opportunities for local capture of tourism revenues, including entrance fees or special tourist taxes; furthermore local employment in service establishments such as restaurants and hotels may provide a part of local communities' involvement and participation. However, making use of human potential of local communities i.e. labour and skills, etc. could provide sustainability and consensus for the development approach. This would mean that the whole community could benefit.

Forms of participation such as entrepreneurship in hospitality, guiding services and transportation require capital and assets, command of foreign languages and other prerequisites. The theoretical analysis emphasizes such forms of cooperation and this was found to be the case in the tourism projects based on community-skills in Namibia, which achieved the aims of both local communities' and tourism development (see sections 3.5.2, 4.3.1 and 4.3.3). Accordingly potential of local communities should be supported at least within the initial steps and developed through capacity building courses. For

instance, the existing network has to be developed to represent the interests of the local community. A local community forum consists of elected members from local communities; NGOs for entrepreneurs that are linked to local communities should be established using this network. The objective of this body would be to preserve the rights and coordinate the efforts of its members as well as to mediate between the local communities and the other partners in the tourism sector. Its members should be from the local communities which work in or are interested in participating in tourism. In order to further local communities' understanding of the potential benefits and consequences of tourism, capacity building programmes have to be provided.

9.6 Promoting local communities' key assets

The remote study areas in the coastal settlements or in the deep-range have many problems that hinder community promotion such as: poor accessibility; a limited market nationally and internationally due to locals' lack of other languages and networks; weak institutional organization; and lack of infrastructure and funding resources. However, community integration and development in the area is constrained fundamentally by cultural and social issues such as land tenure systems, local customs and cultural standards for operating businesses, gender relations, and generally tourism awareness and the willingness of the community to be involved in tourism. Accordingly it is critical that stereotyped and "one-size-fits-all" approaches should be avoided when developing criteria for local community improvement. Furthermore, from the research findings the preferred approach should adapt to site or area-specific conditions to develop solutions that are appropriate to local problems (see Chapter Eight), and which are supported by the various experiences worldwide (as described in Chapter Four). The approach should be improved by a wide range of supplementary key assets to be used in particular community development based tourism situations. Effective key factors should be to reflect the site, the current situation and future outlook and the specific context of the locality under development.

In view of the fact that a CBT approach achieves its uniqueness through the originality of the host communities, which vary from one place to another, it is difficult to standardize a development strategy or adopt policy even for the case studies (see section 3.5.2). Nevertheless, developing indicative and general strategy for local communities' participation in the study area is necessary as a fundamental step to provide the proper social, financial and political conditions among all stakeholders. As Sindiga (1999) points out stakeholders should understand and be persuaded to take on appropriate roles after the basic conflicts of compensation payments and profits sharing have been sorted out. Accordingly the proposed multi-stakeholder partnership between communities, NGOs and the private sector - under governmental supervision - could provide a wide range of resources that can facilitate the tourism business overall (UNDP, 2002).

The development approach considered here attempts to discuss particular issues for improving local communities' participation, and is based on an understanding of the local social, political, economic and cultural attributes, as explored previously. These issues confirm local communities' potential for tourism and identify their participation structure through categorizing stakeholders' roles (see Annex K). Section 3.6.2 outlined three types of CBT. Types two and three consisted of enterprises involving local communities' proposals and joint ventures between local communities and outside business partners being developed. The approach discussed here aims to take advantage of an existing tourism development scheme and overcome its weaknesses for the benefit of local communities and for other stakeholders, by integrating these second and the third types of CBT. This approach would acknowledge that tourism can be an important component of the local communities' development only if the communities become involved in the industry. It is crucial that tourism development at the southern part of the Red Sea region as a CBT destination is supported by a promoting strategy. This strategy, which would take into consideration the network of complex interrelationships between stakeholders, should provide an opportunity to assess the effectiveness of the tourism development plan linked to local communities.

9.6.1 Local communities integration

Although the natural environment is the main tourism attraction in the study area, potential of local communities may become used by tourism that makes them a main part of a development formula. CBT is a viable way to create several types of economic benefits for local communities. These benefits include jobs, income, improved standards of living, conservation of culture, and environmental conservation and restoration. To provide a CBT product, a number of aspects must be taken into consideration to meet the likely future demand (see section 3.4 and Figure 3.3). In view of the fact that actual interaction with the environment and local communities is increasingly the consumer benchmark of a high quality visitor experience (see section 3.6.2), the ability of CBT in the study area to provide a variety of activities appears adequate. These activities could be provided within and across the range of settings in the natural-cultural resources in the area. The combination of many environmental and cultural characteristics has the potential for providing genuinely unique CBT experiences. However, the targeted product has to be established within the limit of acceptable change of the local communities and without compromising the integrity of the individual settings. On the one hand, the method of travel, group size, and the way that locals and tourists interact and the extent of physical skill required means that all stakeholders need to play a role in shaping the demand and targeting the appropriate type of tourists. On the other hand CBT product schemes need to be outlined to meet the expectations of the tourists.

The study area possesses abundant and diverse attractions that are largely unknown to tourists or guides, where visitors can explore places that match their expectations, using local communities' experiences; these include activities dependent on nature (see section 8.5), for instance the stunning examples of rare and unusual life in *wadies*, the offshore fringing reef systems and ecological communities in the mangrove areas. Along with the antiquities tourists are able to witness ancient town sites, fortresses, roadways, sentry posts, tombs, shrines, and mines. In the light of the findings (see sections 8.2.4 and 8.5) activities that meet visitors' satisfaction and enhance local communities' quality of life need to be offered. Activities that provide a broad positive impact for the majority of

local communities need to be enhanced via capacity building programmes (see section 9.4.7). It is understood that each community can offer different attractions (this has been analysed in sections 7.2.3, 7.3.3, 7.4.3 and 8.4.3) and the impact of these activities on different local communities varies. Accordingly, activities that are supplied by local groups and satisfy the mainstream of tourists have to be provided by small and medium enterprises (see section 8.6). For instance; local communities can enrich tourists' experience with their knowledge and their customs. Outdoor activities such as the traditional practices of roasting coffee over coals or baking bread in an oven buried in the ground provide people with an indication of the ways in which people have adapted to this land. Art work and handicrafts activities in the form of textiles, jewelry, weaving, bead-work and leatherwork are to be admired and may be purchased from local artisans. Local fishermen take pride in displaying their skills with their nets and boats that enable them to harvest abundant and diverse marine life. Finally, shopping activities could achieve both parties' objectives if goods are labeled as the products of local communities. Nevertheless importantly, there are issues that might hinder this desired integration and fail to maintain sustainability. For instance; the quality of the products needs to be enhanced through capacity building programmes. As in Thailand, local communities' experience marketing problems with their products due to their lack of networks. Furthermore NGOs and civil society are limited and unable to provide local communities with marketing assistance. Accordingly it is desirable that the private sector (under the government and local authority umbrella) could collaborate in ways that improve benefits for both the private sector business and local communities. Further details linked to CBT development organization, local communities' carrying capacity and the seasonality of activities are discussed below.

9.6.2 Community-based tourism (CBT) challenges

On the one hand the nearby tourism development influences local communities within the study area near the Red Sea region, and different impacts are taking place. Local communities have experienced negative impacts of tourism, particularly negative economic impact. Although local communities consider exclusion from their traditional

sources of income as a significant impact, other impacts needed to be explored also. These impacts are felt in different levels and to different extents according to the location and background of each local community. The impacts have been categorized as physical, social, political and economic impacts (see sections 8.2.5, 8.3.3 and 8.4.3). In point of fact these impacts are considered as the foremost challenge facing CBT; accordingly procedures which manage the negative impact caused by tourism development should be taken into consideration as an essential part of a development strategy.

Essential needs have to be provided for local communities to overcome existing problems such as providing motorized boats and ice (see sections 7.2.3, 7.3.3 and 7.4.3), furthermore capacity building programmes are needed which enable local people to negotiate by supporting formal and informal organizations to identify their priorities - as in the Bangkok case discussed above (see section 4.4.3). For example, this might be training for board members to improve their performance in their management of cooperatives and to inform them of problem-solving techniques. Another possibility would be training in networking among the stakeholders and local authorities such as CDA (see Annex K). Immediate action needs to be applied to get to the bottom of urgent problems as a fast track approach that is applied by the government agencies with the assistance of NGOs. For example problems related to education highlight a need to organize English courses for young people and for women and to provide education facilities for young people who have passed school age; also, to provide clubs that help them develop new talents and skills. Women's clubs need to be established where women can be introduced to various themes such as legal awareness (women's rights), general knowledge of women's health, political awareness, and best practices for children's upbringing. Furthermore, concerning problems related to economic activities, different solutions have to be introduced to local communities and these may be in connection with marketing handicrafts and fishing, thus supporting women and children financially. Moreover proper health services should be provided such as hospitals, a pharmacy, ambulances, offices for registration of birth and death.

On the other hand the beauty and recreational opportunities offered by the remote, wilderness character of the southern part of the Red Sea region also present substantial challenges for CBT. The primary challenge is the need to safely provide recreational experiences. The hyper-aridity and harsh conditions of this region require: specialized recreation service delivery techniques; with appropriately training, working practices and hosting facilities; and highly trained personnel in order to provide CBT experiences which are both safe and enjoyable. However it is obvious that these challenges need specific cooperation between stakeholders, particularly private sector and NGOs, etc. The scarcity of water, infrastructure, emergency services, suppliers and service providers, telecommunication, and emergency transportation services represent significant management challenges.

The research findings indicate that most tourists visiting the study area come on the basis of "all-inclusive" packages that include a preset itinerary and programme. Accordingly, there are few opportunities for buying food or beverages unless they are considered unique and original 'local' products. At present these activities suffer from being informal and so it will be difficult to fully offer them to tourists. Incorporating them under the umbrella of an NGO or within an official entity such as CDA might constitute a viable way through. Formal agreements, where needed, can be made between the NGO and the private sector. Furthermore severe heat, occasional flash flooding, and sand storms provide insecure conditions for the likelihood that these developments can survive over time and present other operational challenges (see sections 5.8.3 and 5.9.2). With careful planning and consideration, all of these challenges can be successfully addressed.

9.6.3 Promoting local communities' objectives

The vision of improving local communities in the southern part of the Red Sea region through an established CBT approach is to safeguard local culture, conserve environmental integrity, and introduce economically feasible opportunities for local people. Accordingly it is essential the government, NGOs and tourism development

investors to provide specific principles and objectives in line with the development approach, as follows.

- Make positive contributions to local communities at the southern part of the Red Sea understand their unique cultural environment (particularly small and deep-range inhabitants) through the institution of positive working relationships between tourism industry stakeholders and local communities.
- Contribute to poverty alleviation and create sustainable income opportunities particularly for deep-range inhabitants and generate continuing economic benefits for local communities through the tourism opportunities and the traditional activities of local people.
- Upgrade informal settlements and so contribute to a general improvement in the quality of life in the southern part of the Red Sea region.
- Stimulate a CBT market in the region focusing on the study area (i.e. enhance tourists' experience of the southern part of the Red Sea natural and cultural resources).
- Encourage wider use of sustainable technologies and the promotion of environmental planning, design, management, and marketing in the new tourism development destinations in the southern part of the Red Sea region.

9.6.4 Seasonality

A combination of different sources of income may secure sustainable and longer-lasting economic benefits for local communities. Accordingly it is critically important to accurately define the seasons of economic activities in the study area maximizing seasonal use of CBT facilities which should then contribute to increase the return on the local communities' investment. The high season in the southern part of the Red Sea region extends from approximately November to April (see section 8.2.4). The most popular month for tourism in the region has historically been November because of the favorable weather conditions and the greatest abundance of wildlife (see section 5.8.3). The season for offshore, marine based recreational activities in the region could

conceivably extend all year. Currently, the high season for tourism marine activities is approximately January through November.

It is understood that the very brief shoulder seasons would be springtime, and early autumn. These time periods may be particularly attractive to landscape and nature-based tourism clients who wish to take advantage of the extraordinarily pure light, tolerable temperatures and the absence of other people in the area. Such tourists appreciate local communities' and accordingly local people who have skills in trekking and hiking could benefit. In contrast, as a result of the extreme heat and hyper-aridity during the late spring and throughout the summer months, it would be extremely dangerous to conduct tours through the mountains for safari activities and in upland of regions generally. The high deep-range zone is a particularly dangerous location to conduct tours during the summer months. Furthermore it was indicated that this period is considered as low season in the coastal resorts. Therefore fishing and traditional economic activities are appropriate at this time. Local communities with brokers and suppliers could sustain the stock of handicrafts. Finally, it is very important to note that evening tours can be conducted throughout the entire year. Well-planned evening tours represent excellent opportunities for tourists to enjoy the wilderness area and for tour operators to expand their market potential.

9.6.5 Local communities' Limit of Acceptable Change

It should be recognized that the community carrying capacity (CCC) in the study area and the limit of acceptable change (LAC) could not be defined through a particular formula that can set a specific number of tourists. However, CCC and LAC frameworks are considered as essential techniques to integrate local communities into broader tourism planning, development and management steps which have to be applied to avoid further negative impact. It is important to introduce policies that can protect the character of local communities and preserve the natural and the cultural resources. These policies should take into consideration the actual and predicted impacts (see sections 3.2 and 3.3). CCC and LAC methods include the management parameter and the impact parameter and

the standard evaluation could be obtained by using figures discussed above. For instance investigation measures (see section 6.3) and the indicative framework for improving local communities participation provide the basics for recognition of local community satisfaction and for analyzing any changes in the behaviour of local people and understanding the interaction between locals and tourists.

Furthermore the existing circumstances of local communities and tourism in the surrounding area and the desired interaction should be outlined. The level and the type of "appropriate" tourist should be categorized according to the designated and modified CBT products. In another words, following a CBT-based style of development will also mean controlling the number of visitors and the type of tourists. Accordingly the CBT product mechanism and planning considerations should be taken into consideration in designing development strategies that match local communities' limits (Saveriades, 2000; Glasson, 1995; Murphy, 1985). Two approaches to identify carrying capacity should be taken into consideration; the physical carrying capacity and the social carrying capacity. The physical carrying capacity may be defined as the number of tourists that can be accommodated satisfactorily within the settlements by the local community, who can provide desired levels of satisfaction with respect to tourism activities and experience for the tourists and in circumstances that can be profitable for them, without causing negative physical impacts or overuse of available resources. Moreover social carrying capacity is linked to the ability of the local society to receive tourists without social negative impact. However, it should be recognized that carrying capacity varies among local communities and should be designed on a case-by-case basis.

9.6.6 Persuade local communities to become involved

As social and cultural components are considered as the foundation of the proposed CBT development, which is quite sensitive due to the changes which may occur among local communities, it is essential to introduce procedures that encourage and persuade local communities' to participate actively. These changes may lead to negative social impacts that mean local communities lose their attractiveness. It was indicated that there is a fear

of changing local communities' standards, particularly among men and young people because of the interaction with tourists (see section 8.2.5). Although local communities have a considerable number of problems that may hinder their participation and whilst the private sector denies that local communities have any ability to integrate because of their lack of experience and communication skills, the lack of trust between local communities and non-local stakeholders is a further serious problem that may hinder local people's active participation. Furthermore the analysis of experience worldwide has indicated that significant goals could be achieved if local community participation procedures are applied appropriately (see sections 4.3.3 and 8.4.2).

Clearly, if local people participate there is a far better chance that adverse impacts can be reduced. A policy which encourages communities to participate ought to not only provide active participation, but also should avoid culture clashes between local communities and tourists and prevent changes beyond the limit of acceptability (see section 2.6.3.2). As this policy may convince local people to feel "ownership" - which in turn may lead them to reflect on their values within the proposed development - negative impacts should be minimized (see sections 3.6.1 and 4.3.1). Local people should feel that they have responsibilities in the proposed development. Thus local communities' participation needs to be planned and managed to enable them and other tourism development stakeholders to participate in appropriate ways. In-depth attention needs to be given to the selected policy that persuades local communities to participate actively. Initiatives need to be designed to extend the level of local communities' discussion locally and with other stakeholders so that they can develop an understanding of the challenges they face.

It is understood from the research findings that by consulting local communities' traditional leaders (who represent a wide range of different groups within local communities) and the suitable organizations such as CDA may help to build local trust. This consultation needs to be done through the conventional pathways within local communities. Local communities will definitely need to be allowed access to information, and this could be secured by opening regular channels between development stakeholders and local communities. This might be helped with the provision of

professional assistance for local communities to help them conduct appropriate discussions and make appropriate choices (see section 3.6.2). The objectives of proposed development should be explained to locals. These objectives should contain clear measures for empowerment of local communities at least within the settlement's territory and the surrounding tourism development for coastal settlements and for the area of influence for deep-range inhabitants. Local communities' experience could help to modify tourism development plans and enable developers to add new tourism attractions. Although, local communities' circumstances in terms of poverty, condition of houses, infrastructure, etc may hinder the proposed development approach, it could be used as basis for this development and could be enhanced with government support (see Table 9.1). However, it is important that different groups in the communities, as well as individuals, should benefit from the development. In addition local people will retain access to their traditional resources. Accordingly, local communities will be encouraged to actively participate and to enhance their skills through the capacity-building programmes provided by other stakeholders. Such programmes ought to be formulated in this phase to help community members gain negotiation skills, evaluation skills and monitoring abilities.

9.6.7 Capacity building within local communities

Given that tourism is likely to be the only form of economic development available in the area and in view of the fact that CBT requires a high degree of human interaction, local communities' involvement ought to be based on good public relations skills for hosting tourists. Particular programmes need to be designed, and given the highest priority, to explore communication and empowerment issues and to deliver high quality services (see sections 3.5.2). Capacity building programmes aim to provide local communities with skills to choose for themselves and help them monitor the development consequences that are known as a basic challenge in sustaining tourism destinations. Local communities need to be able to present their potential assets in such a way that tourists understand and appreciate local cultural norms, values and standards. Nevertheless, in the absence of existing qualified communication skills, it is recommended that NGOs take responsibility

to monitor the tour-guides' performance in the destinations being visited in order to ensure that locals are treated properly and the cultural tourism experience is of a good quality. The proposed capacity building programmes have to be experience-based programmes, which means that these business oriented programmes are based on what local communities have and what will they need: emphasizing their skills; improving their ability to solve problems using their traditional approaches; developing cross-cultural understanding; programmes interdisciplinary in nature; focused on product quality. In the light of the various roles of stakeholders and the research findings, the private sector may provide such programmes under the supervision of government and local authorities and facilitated by NGOs.

Local communities' capacity building courses have to be introduced to enable locals to work in tourism activities. Also, communications and literacy courses are considered as the cornerstone of the capacity building programme. However, provision of courses to introduce and upgrade handicraft skills will enable locals to enhance the quality of the products. New designs and shapes for the handicrafts should be introduced which make these goods more appealing for the market. Local communities cannot effectively participate in the developing tourist industry without building up a pool of skilled workers. In order for local residents to effectively participate in a tourist economy, adequate language skills are necessary for communicating with foreign visitors. English skills are particularly useful as many travellers speak English as a first or second language. Courses addressing this need would be highly beneficial. It is important for local communities to understand that visitors may exhibit behaviour different from that to which they are accustomed, and tolerance of diversity is the most advisable policy. Thus, courses stressing acceptance for cultural differences may also be advisable. Vocational training and technical assistance could produce adequate qualifications to handle the necessary maintenance and repair of tourist facilities.

Furthermore these capacity building programmes may target various segments of the communities: men, women and young people should get a chance to learn first-hand the satisfactions, limitations and opportunities of different kinds of CBT income-generating

opportunities within the settlement space. These programmes should provide a working platform from which to impart the personal skills critical to providing quality services and to raise standards within deep-range or coastal settlements as tourism destinations. Particular skills need to be stressed such as hospitality etiquette; operational aspects of small-scale tourism businesses skills run by communities and practical training on taking part in a range of CBT small enterprises. The experience-based programmes ought to offer an opportunity for interaction with tourists. This might help to overcome local communities' isolation from the wider world and also respond to issues related to tourists' visits, customs and expectation, and covering attitudes and awareness of tourism, possible opportunities and existing experience, concerns and levels of interest. Local communities should be enabled to acquire some native handicrafts skills and practical training that can upgrade and enhance their indigenous knowledge in areas like pottery, textiles, weaving, and building techniques and the arts in general.

In view of the fact that local communities have no regular exposure to CBT businesses, such programmes ought to provide the fundamental understanding about their future. The research findings conclude that the majority of the participants have no previous exposure to the basics of the tourism industry. Accordingly experience-based programmes may provide local communities with more understanding about tourism benefits and consequences. It is considered as an important training ground for incorporating community businesses and human development needs into the process of transforming the local settlements in the study area into CBT destinations. This should help to put forward direct guidance on how a distinctively CBT approach can be linked to the livelihoods of local communities while gaining their full participation. Specific skills could be obtained such as skills to:

- Adequately cater to visitors to receive and look after visitors with the utmost courtesy, hospitality, and understanding of their needs.
- Prepare attractive products using a variety of different and locally available handicrafts or foodstuffs with the goal being simple but higher quality and varied products.

- Undertake basic planning and forecasting to arrive at good decisions regarding key areas of the small scale enterprises operations.
- Understand the importance of bookkeeping and improve inventory control to ensure satisfying tourists.
- Improve salesmanship skills in order to improve CBT establishments and products.
- Build the capabilities of the local communities to understand visitor satisfaction and the planned services. Give local communities leaders who have no comprehension of what CBT is, direct experience to see for themselves.
- Adopt and adhere to standard health requirements.

Appropriate social, environmental education and local communities awareness-building among other stakeholders need to be taken into consideration. Accordingly, the private sector and tourists should help to improve responsible actions to reduce adverse impacts; however, the government should establish policies that support local communities. Frequently, negative social and ecological impacts caused by tourists result from the fact that tourists have little or no understanding of the local culture. It is important to increase public awareness of local communities' issues among customers, decision makers, tourism development facilitators and private sector education. It is understood that the private sector has the ability to interact both with local communities and tourists, thus adoption of consumer education campaigns through the private sector can support this process. The government can further improve social and environmental goals through general awareness-building campaigns targeted at hotel owners, tour operators, government offices, tourists and tourism development consultants. Education for tour-guides should include specific examples of a region's socio-cultural aspects and its particular life style. Education campaigns for the tourism sector should include an ethical mandate, in the sense that tourism needs to benefit the natural and social environment, improving and investing in social and public infrastructure, as well as endeavouring to eliminate local poverty.

9.7 Research strengths, limitations and criticisms

This section discusses and evaluates the research methods used in the study. In summary, those research methods were:

1. Investigating theoretical approaches to STD linked to local communities' development such as development methods and sustainable tourism planning structure,
2. Exploring practical techniques and measures that may control tourism development by analyzing global tourism development cases.
3. Designing investigation measures that serve the research aims and
4. Analyzing the research findings in order to provide direct benefits for local people from the surrounding tourism development and minimize negative impact upon them.

The research has different strengths and limitations which are for instance; the in-depth case studies in very underdeveloped and remote area of Egypt; interview approaches in difficult context such as interviews with women and inhabitants of the deep-range. The tailored questionnaires for particular groups covered different aspects linked to each group and there was critical examination for the fieldwork survey data. Nevertheless the nature of the case studies and the diversity of the tourism development stakeholders reduced the volume of the samples. More information is given below on the particular strengths, contributions and limitations of the research:

<u>The research strengths and contributions:</u>

- The research adopted particular methods to enrich the study such as, the investigation measures and criteria for case studies selection.
- The questionnaires were designed according to different needs in surveying different stakeholders.
- These questionnaires were revised according to pilot surveys with different stakeholders
- The gathered data was managed using particular tables for each stakeholder groups to visualize the overall survey data, for the reason that build bridges with reconstructed notes obtained from different methods used at field work.

- Since most of development references discuss communities' development thoughts in the absence of up to date statistics and other information of developing country circumstances, it might be helpful to give more attention to developing countries' development literature. It was noticed during the fieldwork that civil society's activities are limited and far from providing local communities with their rights and in some cases their rights were denied by officials and investors. Nevertheless, establishing a solid theoretical background was essential to clarify criteria which might be used in developing controlled tourism schemes oriented towards providing benefits for local communities.
- The research showed that different perceptions exist among local communities. These perceptions depend on the nature of the place, the size of the community, the volume of development and tourists' characteristics.

The research limitation and criticism:

The survey work undertaken first in Cairo with officials from TDA and EEAA showed that there is profound ignorance of local people's needs and in some cases officials do not realize local communities' existence in the area particularly small settlements and deep range inhabitants. There are serious differences between declared official objectives and the implementation of policy that support local people's rights by national and regional governmental bodies. Although community welfare and natural resources conservation are the main objectives of different governmental bodies, the actual performances show different objectives linked to particular agendas which depend on the background of each decision maker. The study shows how decision makers' power is exercised at national and regional level, how it influences people at local level and how issues of public concerns at provincial level are explained at higher level.

- It would be more useful to begin the fieldwork survey in the Red Sea region with local people and officials and tourism managers at local level in order to discuss their thoughts with decision-makers and developers. Local communities' way of life, area of influence, norms and standards which were obtained in the field work might help officials at regional and national level to realize how their decisions affect people at local level.

- In a similar way, although the study targeted the highest level of decision-makers the vision for integration of local communities was generally not specified and was obscure.
- The research with private sector companies, particularly tourism facility owners, showed that there has in the past been a failure to communicate with decision-makers and they are unaware of local communities' problems. Therefore it would be valuable to provide decision-makers with ideas sourced from local people, and if that were done then officials at local levels and tourism facilities managers who had concerns about local communities could give more practical ideas and realistic solutions.
- Private sector and decision makers' both demonstrated an appreciation of the semi-structured interview procedures applied, and particularly the ethics approval measures. Nevertheless these measures were a source of inconvenient procedures among local communities who saw them as excessive. Local communities' mistrust of the private sector and pas exploitation by decision makers influenced their perceptions of the research. In view of the fact that local people have not seen any progress that enhances their living standards and their level of education, they consider research to be as a pointless activity, particularly before starting the survey. Nevertheless gatekeepers such as older people and CDA members provided help to persuade local people to take part in the research. Moreover the pilot survey, which changed the original questionnaire and the focus group discussion's agenda according to local people's perceptions, convinced local people to participate.
- It is understood that social relationships among local people particularly women in small and medium settlements are much stronger than in large settlements. In large settlements particular groups such as fishermen, camel traders and husbandries can be distinguished; furthermore Ababda, Bisharin, Rashaayda people and Egyptians of the Nile Valley are quite distinct. Accordingly the survey attempted to address particular issues that would be of concern to all groups reached by the pilot survey.

- Generally speaking local people preferred to express their needs through focus group discussions. On the one hand it is possible that focusing on particular settlement size - principally on small settlements - instead of investigating different categories, may achieve more understanding of those communities which face serious threats. On the other hand focus group discussions with local people (instead of semi-structured interviews) would be more helpful in developing an understanding local people's thoughts. However, managing several interests in focus group discussion needed a well-designed agenda and a restricted schedule (see section 6.8.1).

9.8 Opportunities for future research

This research sets the stage for further research on regional development of the southern part of the Red Sea region and reveals that there is a need for further research in particular areas, for instance:

- The relationship between the Egyptian national strategic tourism development plan in terms of the proposed number of rooms and the actual global market share and its effect in terms of economic benefits. In other words, how to attune the pattern of development with the national share of the world market for tourism and how this will affect the economic benefits from the tourism facilities at regional and local levels. It is understood that on the open market the value of the supply (e.g. of tourism opportunities) is influenced by the quantity and quality of.
- Since the fringing reef is vital for marine wildlife and as it is seen as an obstacle to both tourism development and local people's activities, further research is required to investigate methods for using the reefs and surrounding area and the reefs' relationship with tourism development plans at local level. A strategy should be established for tourism operations linked to coastal and sea activities with monitoring of cumulative impacts.
- Cultural heritage, antiquities and natural resources should be thoroughly researched and documented, given that a number of archeological sites exist in the area, in addition to the natural resources in the deep-range.

- Further research is required to explore methods for monitoring future development of the area particularly in relation to the role of the local community and the distribution of the benefits and costs of development. In addition to investigate in detail of implementation of funding and organisational mechanisms for resourcing the local community.

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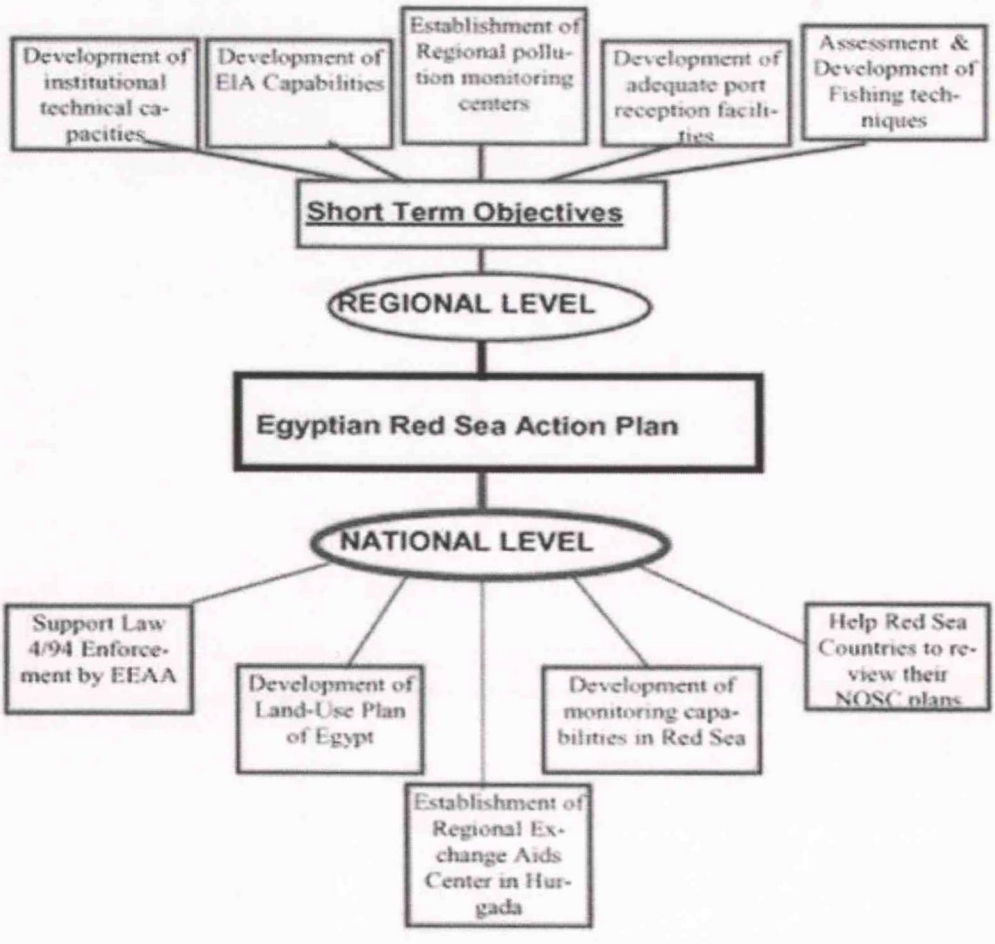
Annex A: Proposed priority actions needed for the Red Sea

The Proposed Priority Actions Needed for the Red Sea Area			
Environmental Issue	**Priority Action**	**Scale**	**Emphasis**
Legislation	Review and update existing regulations for the protection of natural resources	National Local	Legislative framework
Legislation	Review and update existing pollution control regulations	National Local	Legislative framework
Institutional strengthening	Training programmes for strengthening institutional capacities of agencies involved in management of Red Sea coastal areas	National Local	Capacity building
Institutional strengthening	Establishment of water pollution monitoring units for Red Sea linked to the national level	National Local	Management information Capacity building Technical development
Environmental Management	Development of National Coastal Zone Management Plan for Red Sea coast, including the Gulfs of Aqaba and Suez	National Local	Legal framework Management information Management programme
Environmental management	Strengthened enforcement capacity of Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency	National Local	Capacity building
Habitat conservation	Effective enforcement of Law 4/94 for protected areas	National; Local	Capacity building Enforcement
Living marine resources	Review and update of current fishery legislation	National Local	Legal framework
Living marine resources	Establishment of a stock assessment data base	Regional National	Management information Capacity building
Living marine resources	Development and adoption of improved fishing techniques	National Local	Capacity building Technical development
Living marine resources	Establishment of Marine Protected Areas at priority sites	Regional National Local	Preventive action Capacity building Technical development
Navigation risk	Development and implementation of sub–regional vessel traffic systems for the Gulf of Aqaba and Gulf of Suez	Sub–Regional National Local	Preventive action Capacity building Technical development
Navigation Risk and Pollution Control	Establishment of a Regional Emergency Aid Center in Hurghada, with Egypt providing the land and infrastructure	Regional Sub–Regional National Local	Preventive action Capacity building Technical development
Navigation Risk and Pollution Control	Provision of adequate reception facilities for oily wastes in Egyptian Red Sea ports consistent with MARPOL (1973– 1978)	Sub–Regional National Local	Preventive action Capacity building Technical development
Petroleum development and transportation	Development of an Oil Spill Contingency Plan	National Local	
Petroleum development and transportation	Preparation of guidelines for the use of dispersants for use in oil spills given the ecological vulnerability of the Red Sea	National Local	Technical development
Urban and industrial development	Development of an evaluation of point source pollution from urban and industrial sites	National Local	Environmental information Capacity building
Urban development	Development of a National Plan for Solid Waste Management in coastal cities in the Red Sea	National Local	Planning studies Capacity building Technical development
Urban development	Public awareness programme for recycling of wastes in coastal areas	National Local	Feasibility studies Capacity building Technical development
Environmental Issue	Priority Action	Scale	Emphasis
Urban development	Shoreline profiling programme and identification of "hot spots"	Local	Technical studies

Urban development	Evaluation and implementation of flood control measures to protect coastal zone and marine environment	Local	Management information Capacity building Technical development
Urban development	Establishment of flood prediction and warning centers	Regional Local	Capacity building Technical development
Urban development	Support for the expanded use of flood water in agriculture	Local	Capacity building Technical development
Environmental Information	Creation of an inventory of land resources of the coastal areas as an element of a National GIS Data	National Local	Management information Capacity building Technical development

Source: UNEP and the World Bank (2000)



Flowchart showing the proposed plan for Egyptian Red Sea Coastal area
Source: UNEP and the World Bank (2000)

Annex B: Summary for the Tourism Development Authority planning, design and development Guidelines

1. **Development Guidelines**
   - 1.1 Guide Development to Reduce Pressure on Resources & Increase Visitor
   - 1.2 Carrying Capacity Guidelines
   - 1.3 Conservation Strategy for Public and Common Areas & Resources
   - 1.4 Networks Guide for Pedestrians, Bicyclists & Horseback Riders as well as Motorists.
   - 1.5 Economically Vibrant Commercial & Service Centers Guide
   - 1.6 Guide for Infrastructure components
   - 1.7 Guide for Environmental Awareness
2. **Marine Recreation Development**
   - 2.1 Guide for identify Zone Marine Areas to Ensure Safe Water Sports Use and Protect Sensitive Natural Area
   - 2.2 Guide for Protect Coral Reefs by Providing for Vessel Mooring & Anchoring
   - 2.3 Design Environmentally Appropriate Access for Use & Enjoyment of Marine Ecosystems Guidelines
   - 2.4 Design Artificial Beaches to Increase Recreational Opportunities & Avoid Environmental Impact Guidelines.
   - 2.5 Artificial Lagoons design Guidelines
   - 2.6 Guide for design Jetties & Marine Structures to Minimize Impact on Marine Ecosystems
3. **Coastal Setback Use & Development**
   - 3.1 Maintain Public Access to Coastal Amenities Guidelines
   - 3.2 Guidelines for Establish an Attractive Coastal Trail System
   - 3.3 Guidelines for Provide Light Structures Only Within Setback Areas
   - 3.4 Guidelines for Manage Irrigation Wastewater to Protect the Marine Environment
4. **Land Use Management**
   - 4.1 Guidelines for Encourage Access to and Protection of Birds and Other Wildlife Habitat
   - 4.2 Guidelines for Encourage Development of Ecolodges as a Complement to Conventional Development
   - 4.3 Guidelines for Manage Undeveloped Uplands to Create Tourism Attraction
5. **Environmental & Landscape Design**
   - 5.1 Guidelines for Use Building Forms and Colors that Blend with the Natural Landscape
   - 5.2 Maintain Views of the Sea and Mountains Guidelines
6. **Infrastructure & Support Facilities**
   - 5.1 Guidelines for Design and Manage Facilities to Conserve Energy & Water Resources
   - 5.2 Guidelines for Collect & Properly Dispose of Solid Waste
   - 5.3 Guidelines for Recycle and Reuse Wastewater & Properly Dispose of Brine from Desalination Plants
   - 5.4 Guidelines for Locating Water Treatment and Wastewater / Sewage Treatment Facilities in Environmentally Appropriate Locations
7. **Construction Impact Management**
   - 7.1 Guidelines for Implement Construction Impact Mitigation Measures Identified in the
   - 7.2 Project's EIA Guidelines
   - 7.3 Reclaim and Restore All Disturbed Areas Guidelines
8. **Environmental Management**
   - 8.1 Guidelines for Prepare Environmental Management Plan and Conduct Environmental Audits
   - 8.2 Guidelines for Monitor Key Environmental Indicators
   - 8.3 Guidelines for Promote Environmental Awareness

Source: TDA and PMG (1998).

Annex C
QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY
LOCAL COMMUNITY

Please take 10 minutes to fill in this questionnaire. This estimation survey forms part of my PhD research on local community partnership in tourism development in the south of the Red Sea. Qualaan, Abu Ghusun, and Shalateen will be my case studies. It is mainly to investigate your opinion as a tourism development stakeholder. This questionnaire form has been prepared particularly for local community members. Another questionnaire will be submitted to tourism facilities owners/managers local authority, consultants and NGOs.

I. COMMUNITY SATISFACTION

1. Does tourism provide any job opportunity for you or anyone of your family?
   ○ Yes ○ No
2. If yes - In which business
   ○ With the government
   ○ With private sector
   ○ Private business
3. What are the major advantages of tourism for your community?

   .....

   .....
4. What are the major disadvantages of tourism for your community?

   .....

   .....
5. Do you agree/ disagree with the following statements?
   A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
   D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

I am satisfied with tourism development	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism development provides jobs for locals	A	B	C	D	E
It generates money more than any other business	A	B	C	D	E
Resorts and hotels exploit locals	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism provides services for community	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism development causes crime	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism development harms local moral standards	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism harms the natural environment	A	B	C	D	E
Exclude locals from their income resources	A	B	C	D	E
Helps to create local crafts	A	B	C	D	E
Locals have ability to influence tourism	A	B	C	D	E
Tourists support local economy	A	B	C	D	E
Government pays attention to locals rights	A	B	C	D	E

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PhD student

6. Would you want more or less tourists in future?
   ○ Much Less ○ Less ○ Same
   ○ More ○ Much More
7. How do tourists pay for services?
   ○ Direct to local people ○ a tour operator
   ○ Via local organization ○ Other

   .....
8. Do you think visitors should pay more for services provided by local people (eg. safari guide, oriental food and drinks)?
   ○ Yes ○ No

II. THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

9. How do you rate the involvement of your community in tourism development?
   ○ Very Unsatisfactory ○ Poor ○ Satisfactory
   ○ Good ○ Excellent
10. Do you agree/ disagree with the following policies?
    A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
    D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Tourism development should involve locals	A	B	C	D	E
Local authorities should control tourism	A	B	C	D	E
Private sector should manage tourism activities	A	B	C	D	E
Management procedures should applied to minimize the locals negative impact	A	B	C	D	E
Private sector should provide job for locals	A	B	C	D	E
Capacity building for local people should be provided by private sector	A	B	C	D	E
Local authority should provide locals capacity building/training program/ awareness/ skills	A	B	C	D	E
Local authority should support locals rights	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism could contribute to natural and cultural heritage	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism should preserve social and cultural environment	A	B	C	D	E
Government should support local people enterprises	A	B	C	D	E
Government should develop collective income sources such as fees, revenue shares, equity dividends, donations, etc	A	B	C	D	E
Government should explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations (food suppliers, etc) and those that sell to tourists (craft producers, guides, etc	A	B	C	D	E

III. THE CHARACTER OF ATTRACTIONS

11. What should these settlements do to be identified as a distinctive tourism destination, well worth visit?

○ Settlement upgrade ○ Local people tourism services capacity-building
○ Tourism infrastructure ○ Other

.....

12. How much do you expect tourist could pay for services provided by local people (safari guide…) when it becomes distinctive?

○ The same amount of money ○ 50% more
○ 25% more ○ Double ○ Other

.....

13. Put in order the best tourism attractions in your community

○ Shopping (Handcrafts) ○ Outdoor activities (Safari)
○ Culture activities
Any other please specify .....

.....

14. The main tourism strengths in these area are

.....

.....

15. The main tourism weaknesses in these areas are

.....

.....

IV. PERSONAL DATA

16. Age .....

17. Gender ○ Male ○ Female

18. How long have you lived in this area?

○ Less than 3 years 3 to 6 ○ars
○ 7 to 15 years m○re than16 years

19. Education

○ Vocal Training ○ Read & Write ○ None

20. Employment ○ Yes ○ No

21. Source of income

○ Tourism ○ Somehow linked to tourism ○ Other

.....

.....

22. do you own your house ○ Yes ○ No

23. Do you agree/ disagree with the following statements?

A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Visitors off road driving within the area is a problem	A	B	C	D	E
Lack of Fresh water	A	B	C	D	E
Lack of sanitation and sewage system	A	B	C	D	E
Land ownership	A	B	C	D	E
Air pollution from the road and from solid waste burning and dust	A	B	C	D	E
Lack of job opportunities	A	B	C	D	E
Public health services are sufficient	A	B	C	D	E
Education services are sufficient	A	B	C	D	E
Improving the physical and urban condition	A	B	C	D	E

V. ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

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.....

.....

Annex D
QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY
PRIVATE SECTOR

Please take 10 minutes to fill in this questionnaire. This estimation survey forms part of my PhD research on local community partnership in tourism development in the south of the Red Sea. Qualaan, Abu Ghusun, and Shalateen will be my case studies. It is mainly to investigate your opinion as a tourism development stakeholder. This questionnaire form has been prepared particularly for businessmen and tourism facilities managers. Another questionnaire will be submitted to participants from the local community, local authority, consultants and NGOs.

I. TOURISM VOLUME AND MODE

1. How many tourists on average visit your resort/hotel host monthly?
   .....
   .....
2. Which months are the lowest season
   .....
   .....
3. Which months are the high season
   .....
   .....
4. What are the percentage tourists at your resort/hotel wish to visit (Qualaan, Abu Ghusun, Shalateen)?

	Less than 20%	21% to 40%	41 to 60%	More than 60%
Qualaan				
Abu Ghusun				
Shalateen				

5. What is the main problem caused by this kind of tourism?
   .....
   .....

II. THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

6. Do you agree with the following statements?
   A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
   D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Tourism development should involve local people	A	B	C	D	E
Community tourism should be managed by locals	A	B	C	D	E
Private sector should manage tourism activities	A	B	C	D	E
Locals have rights to control the tourism targeting them	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism development should support local economy	A	B	C	D	E
Fees should be paid to host community	A	B	C	D	E
Private sector should provide job for locals	A	B	C	D	E
Capacity building for local people should be provided by private sector	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism could contribute to natural and cultural heritage	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism should preserve social and cultural environment	A	B	C	D	E
The government should support local people's micro enterprises	A	B	C	D	E
Local authorities should manage tourism	A	B	C	D	E
Local authority should support locals rights	A	B	C	D	E
Local authority should provide locals capacity building/training program/ awareness/ skills	A	B	C	D	E
Explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations (food suppliers, etc) and those that sell to tourists (craft producers, guides, etc	A	B	C	D	E

7. Do you provide any training program for local employees?

   ○ Yes ○ No

   If yes, what kind of policies please specify
   .....
   .....

8. Are there activities in your business aiming at improving social issues for local communities?
   If yes, what kind of activities please specify
   .....
   .....

III. THE CHARACTER OF ATTRACTIONS

9. Put in order the best attractions in community tourism destination?

	Shopping	Nature	Outdoor activities	Handcrafts
Qualaan				
Abu Ghusun				
Shalateen				

Any other please specify .....
.....

10. The main tourism strengths in these area are
    .....
    .....
11. The main tourism weaknesses in these areas are
    .....
    .....

12. Which of the following enhance quality of life for local people?
Please circle your response
A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Activities	Enhance locals Quality of life				
Recreational activities	A	B	C	D	E
Sea activities	A	B	C	D	E
Hand crafts	A	B	C	D	E
Safari guide	A	B	C	D	E
Traditional restaurants & cafés	A	B	C	D	E
Local activities (events, celebration	A	B	C	D	E

13. Which of the following satisfy tourists?
Please circle your response
A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Activities	Visitor satisfaction				
Recreational activities	A	B	C	D	E
Sea activities	A	B	C	D	E
Hand crafts	A	B	C	D	E
Safari guide	A	B	C	D	E
Traditional restaurants & cafés	A	B	C	D	E
Local activities (events, celebration	A	B	C	D	E

IV. ATTRACTION EMPHASIS

14. How do you evaluate the following tourism services?
A- Very Unsatisfactory B- Poor C- Satisfactory
D- Good E- Excellent

Availability of tourists information is adequate	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of tourists information is sufficient	A	B	C	D	E
Variety of tourists activities is sufficient	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of hand-craft products is good	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of recreational activities is good	A	B	C	D	E
Tour management and guidance is good	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of local restaurants & cafés is good	A	B	C	D	E
Traditional authentic arts is good	A	B	C	D	E

15. Which practical form of organizational structure do you think could be useful?

- ○ Small size enterprises
- ○ Local people-private sector enterprises
- ○ Government enterprises
- ○ Other

16. What should these settlements do to be identified as a distinctive tourism destination, well worth visit?

- ○ Settlement upgrade
- ○ Local people tourism services capacity-building
- ○ Tourism infrastructure
- ○ Other

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PhD student

17. How much do you expect tourist could pay for this trip when it becomes distinctive?

- ○ The same amount of money
- ○ 50% more
- ○ 25% more
- ○ Double
- ○ Other

V. MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

18. Which is the best approach achieve the aims below?
According to Bottom Up Management (BUM), Top Down Management (TDM) and Shared Management (SM),

Wellbeing of host community	Local people satisfaction	BUM	TDM	SM
	Maintain their original way of life/culture	BUM	TDM	SM
	improve the community attitude to tourists	BUM	TDM	SM
	Enhance positive perceptions and acceptance of tourism	BUM	TDM	SM
	Friendly community and exchange of culture	BUM	TDM	SM
	Community has control over tourism development	BUM	TDM	SM
Effects of tourism on community	Achieve social benefits associated with tourism	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise the number of social services and infrastructure	BUM	TDM	SM
	Increase locals' agreement that their local culture, its integrity are being preserved	BUM	TDM	SM
	recover community impact	BUM	TDM	SM
	Provide and support locals permanent jobs	BUM	TDM	SM
	Develop community traditional crafts, skills, and customs.	BUM	TDM	SM
Community participation in tourism	rise the numbers locals participation	BUM	TDM	SM
	Community will be up-to-date with development in the area surrounded	BUM	TDM	SM
	Provide alternative income resources during low seasons	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise and support local business establishments	BUM	TDM	SM
Economic benefits	develop the number of tourists	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise diversity and quality of the tourism products	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise the number and the quality of employment in the tourism sector	BUM	TDM	SM
	Target the right group of tourist	BUM	TDM	SM
	emphasize community tourism marketing	BUM	TDM	SM
Political benefits	Created from locals willingness and with their capacity	BUM	TDM	SM
	Conservation of environment and resources	BUM	TDM	SM
	Emphasize the number of small size enterprises linked to tourism operating by community	BUM	TDM	SM
	Development has standard regulations	BUM	TDM	SM
	Existence of policies aiming at sustainable development	BUM	TDM	SM
Protection of natural assets	Contribution to protection and preservation	BUM	TDM	SM
	Development within the environmental carrying capacity	BUM	TDM	SM
	Restricted tourism facilities	BUM	TDM	SM
	Environmental behavior tourism	BUM	TDM	SM
	Conserve sensitive fragile ecosystem	BUM	TDM	SM
	Monitoring and limiting the negative impacts of tourism activities	BUM	TDM	SM

Annex E
QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY
DECISION MAKER

Please take 10 minutes to fill in this questionnaire. This estimation survey forms part of my PhD research on local community partnership in tourism development in the south of the Red Sea. Qualaan, Abu Ghusun, and Shalateen will be my case studies. It is mainly to investigate your opinion as a tourism development stakeholder. This questionnaire form has been prepared particularly for local authority and Red Sea governorate. Another questionnaire will be submitted to participants from local community, private sector, consultants and NGOs.

I. THE CONTROL OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

1. Does the current tourism development plan define a role for the local community?
   ○ Yes ○ No

If yes pleas specify .....

.....

.....

2. Does the existing tourism development plan provide any support for local community?
   ○ Yes ○ No

If yes pleas specify .....

.....

.....

3. How do you rate the involvement of locals in tourism development?
   ○ Very Unsatisfactory ○ Poor ○ Satisfactory
   ○ Good ○ Excellent

4. Are local people informed about developments in their areas?
   ○ Yes ○ No

If yes pleas specify .....

.....

.....

5. What is the main goal linked to local community in the south of the Red Sea tourism development plan .....

.....

OXFORD BROOKES UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT

Bassem M. Fahmy
PhD student

II. THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

6. Do you agree/disagree with the following statements?
   A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
   D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Tourism development should involve locals	A	B	C	D	E
Community tourism should be managed by locals	A	B	C	D	E
Private sector should manage tourism activities	A	B	C	D	E
Locals have rights to control the tourism targeting them	A	B	C	D	E
Management procedures should applied to minimize the locals negative impact	A	B	C	D	E
The current tourism development policies	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism development should support local economy	A	B	C	D	E
Fees should be paid for host community	A	B	C	D	E
The government should support local people's micro enterprises	A	B	C	D	E
Private sector should provide job for locals	A	B	C	D	E
Capacity building for local people should be provided by private sector	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism could contribute to natural and cultural heritage	A	B	C	D	E
Tourism should preserve social and cultural environment	A	B	C	D	E
Local authorities should manage tourism	A	B	C	D	E
Local authority should support locals rights	A	B	C	D	E
Local authority should provide locals capacity building/training program/ awareness/ skills	A	B	C	D	E
Explore opportunities which provide services to tourism operations (food suppliers, etc) and those that sell to tourists (craft producers, guides, etc	A	B	C	D	E
Develop collective income sources such as fees, revenue shares, equity dividends, donations, etc	A	B	C	D	E
Increase flow of information and communication between stakeholders to lay the foundation for future dialogue	A	B	C	D	E

III. THE CHARACTER OF ATTRACTIONS

7. The main tourism strengths in these area are.....

.....

8. The main tourism weaknesses in these areas are.....

9. Which of the following enhance quality of life for local people?
Please circle your response
A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Activities	Enhance locals Quality of life				
Recreational activities	A	B	C	D	E
Sea activities	A	B	C	D	E
Hand crafts	A	B	C	D	E
Safari guide	A	B	C	D	E
Traditional restaurants & cafés	A	B	C	D	E
Local activities (events, celebration	A	B	C	D	E

10. Which of the following satisfy tourists?
Please circle your response
A-Strongly Disagree B-Disagree C-Neutral
D-Agree E-Strongly Agree

Activities	Visitor satisfaction				
Recreational activities	A	B	C	D	E
Sea activities	A	B	C	D	E
Hand crafts	A	B	C	D	E
Safari guide	A	B	C	D	E
Traditional restaurants & cafés	A	B	C	D	E
Local activities (events, celebration	A	B	C	D	E

IV. ATTRACTION EMPHASIS

11. How do you evaluate the following tourism services?
A- Very Unsatisfactory B- Poor C- Satisfactory
D- Good E- Excellent

Availability of tourists information is adequate	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of tourists information is sufficient	A	B	C	D	E
Variety of tourists activities is sufficient	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of hand-craft products is good	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of recreational activities is good	A	B	C	D	E
Tour management and guidance is good	A	B	C	D	E
Quality of local restaurants & cafés is good	A	B	C	D	E
Traditional authentic arts is good	A	B	C	D	E

12. Which practical form of organizational structure do you think could be useful?
○ Small size enterprises ○ Local people-private sector enterprises
○ Government enterprises ○ Other

13. What should these settlements do to be identified as a distinctive tourism destination, well worth visit?
○ Settlement upgrade ○ Local people tourism services capacity-building
○ Tourism infrastructure ○ Other

14. How much do you expect tourist could pay for this trip when it becomes distinctive?
○ The same amount of money ○ 50% more
○ 25% more ○ Double ○ Other

V. MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

15. Which is the best approach achieve the aims below?
According to Bottom Up Management (BUM), Top Down Management (TDM) and Shared Management (SM),

Wellbeing of host community	Local people satisfaction	BUM	TDM	SM
	Maintain their original way of life/culture	BUM	TDM	SM
	improve the community attitude to tourists	BUM	TDM	SM
	Enhance positive perceptions and acceptance of tourism	BUM	TDM	SM
	Friendly community and exchange of culture	BUM	TDM	SM
	Community has control over tourism development	BUM	TDM	SM
Effects of tourism on community	Achieve social benefits associated with tourism	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise the number of social services and infrastructure	BUM	TDM	SM
	Increase locals' agreement that their local culture, its integrity are being preserved	BUM	TDM	SM
	recover community impact	BUM	TDM	SM
	Provide and support locals permanent jobs	BUM	TDM	SM
	Develop community traditional crafts, skills, and customs.	BUM	TDM	SM
Community participation in tourism	rise the numbers locals participation	BUM	TDM	SM
	Community will be up-to-date with development in the area surrounded	BUM	TDM	SM
	Provide alternative income resources during low seasons	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise and support local business establishments	BUM	TDM	SM
Economic benefits	Rise the number of tourists	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise diversity and quality of the tourism products	BUM	TDM	SM
	Rise the number and the quality of employment in the tourism sector	BUM	TDM	SM
	Target the right group of tourist	BUM	TDM	SM
	emphasize community tourism marketing	BUM	TDM	SM
Political benefits	Created from locals willingness and with their capacity	BUM	TDM	SM
	Conservation of environment and resources	BUM	TDM	SM
	Emphasize the number of small size enterprises linked to tourism operating by community	BUM	TDM	SM
	Development has standard regulations	BUM	TDM	SM
	Existence of policies aiming at sustainable development	BUM	TDM	SM
Protection of natural assets	Contribution to protection and preservation	BUM	TDM	SM
	Development within the environmental carrying capacity	BUM	TDM	SM
	Restricted tourism facilities	BUM	TDM	SM
	Environmental behavior tourism	BUM	TDM	SM
	Conserve sensitive fragile ecosystem	BUM	TDM	SM
	Monitoring and limiting the negative impacts of tourism activities	BUM	TDM	SM

Annex F: Field work survey Itinerary

Duration:

Cairo	From 02-04-07	To 14- 04-07
Red Sea	From 15-04-07	To 18- 05-07

Field work Itinerary

	Stakeholder		Location	Duration From	Technique To	Technique
Decision makers	Tourism development authority		Cairo	03-04-07	05-04-07	Questioner Interview
	Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency		Cairo	09-04-07	12-04-07	Questioner Interview
			Red Sea	15-04-07	16-04-07	Questioner Interview
	Red Sea central government		Red Sea	17-04-07	18-04-07	Questioner Interview
Local Community	Qualaan	Fishermen village (Group)	Red Sea	From 19-04-07	To 18-05-07	Interviews, Participation Observations, Focus Group Discussion
		Wadies & Valley (individuals)	Red Sea			Interviews,
	Abu Ghusun	Fishermen village (Group)	Red Sea			Interviews, Participation Observations, Focus Group Discussion
		Wadies & Valley (individuals)	Red Sea			Interviews
	Shalateen	Fishermen village (Group)	Red Sea			Interviews, Participation Observations, Focus Group Discussion
		Wadies & Valley (individuals)	Red Sea			Interviews
Privet sector	Owners		Cairo	07-04-07	08-04-07	Questioner Interview
	Managers		Via email	04-07	06-07	Questioner
	Tour Operators					
	Consultants					
	NGOs					

Annex G: SPSS output showing data from semi-structured interviews

Table No.1

Case Processing Summary (a)

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Gender	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Age	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Number of Children	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Education	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Employment	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Source of income	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Household	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Property Area	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Monthly Income	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Healthcare	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
communication with tourism	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
How do you find the tourism business?	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%
Do you like to be employed in the tourism sector?	22	100.0%	0	.0%	22	100.0%

A Limited to first 100 cases.

Case Summaries (a)

A Limited to first 100 cases.

	Gender	Age	Number of Children	Education	Employment	Source of income	Household	Property Area	Monthly Income	Healthcare	communication with tourism	How do you find the tourism business?	Do you like to be employed in the tourism sector?
1	Male	35	2.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	1.00	200.00	.00	.00	5.00	.00
2	Male	34	1.00	1.00	1.00	6.00	.00	1.00	450.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	1.00
3	Male	64	2.00	.00	.00	2.00	.00	1.00	200.00	.00	1.00	4.00	2.00
4	female	42	2.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	2.00	350.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00
5	Male	38	1.00	2.00	1.00	6.00	.00	1.00	450.00	.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
6	Male	36	2.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	350.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
7	Male	62	1.00	3.00	1.00	7.00	.00	3.00	850.00	1.00	.00	5.00	1.00
8	female	58	2.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	1.00	200.00	.00	.00	5.00	1.00
9	Male	40	3.00	2.00	1.00	6.00	.00	2.00	750.00	.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
10	Male	44	2.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	.00	1.00	350.00	.00	1.00	5.00	1.00
11	female	29	2.00	.00	1.00	4.00	.00	1.00	200.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00
12	Male	31	.00	.00	1.00	6.00	.00	1.00	550.00	.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
13	Male	38	1.00	2.00	1.00	6.00	.00	2.00	850.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	1.00
14	Male	41	3.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	1.00	200.00	.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
15	Male	35	2.00	.00	1.00	3.00	.00	1.00	350.00	.00	1.00	2.00	1.00
16	Female	39	2.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	2.00	200.00	.00	.00	4.00	2.00
17	Male	71	3.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	.00	1.00	550.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00
18	Male	45	3.00	2.00	1.00	6.00	.00	1.00	750.00	1.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
19	Female	29	.00	.00	1.00	4.00	.00	2.00	350.00	.00	.00	5.00	.00
20	Male	31	1.00	2.00	1.00	4.00	.00	1.00	350.00	.00	1.00	5.00	2.00
21	female	35	.00	.00	.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	350.00	.00	1.00	5.00	1.00
22	Male	37	2.00	.00	1.00	6.00	.00	1.00	450.00	.00	.00	5.00	1.00
Total	N	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22

Questionnaire survey
Semi-structured interview statistical analysis using SPSS

Descriptive statistics for the interval / ratio variables

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Education	22	.00	4.00	1.1429	1.49284
Employment	22	.00	1.00	.6667	.48305
Household	22	.00	1.00	.8095	.40237
Property Area	22	15.00	45.00	20.4762	6.72026
Monthly Income	22	200.00	850.00	421.4286	217.69901
Valid N (listwise)	22				

Education

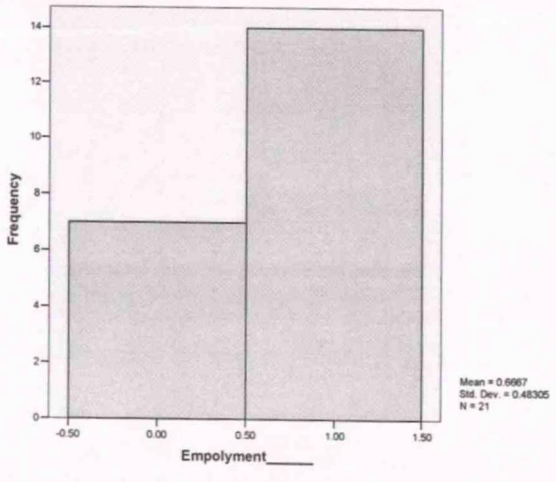
The illiteracy rates of the case study12 persons out of 22 are illiterate. The illiteracy rate of the female population in the case study is 63%. 2 out of 6 illiterate interviewers are female.
Interviewers who Read & Write, Vocal Training, University education are equal in the sample 14.2%

Std. Deviation = 1.49284
Mean = 1.1429

Employment

15 out of 22 which equal 68% of the sample is employed the histogram show that the employed are twice of the unemployed.

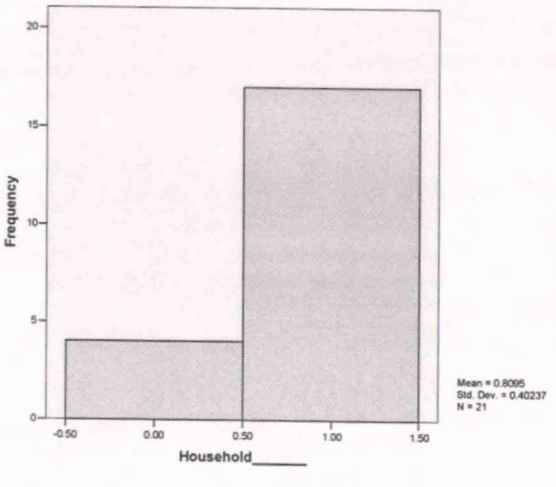
Std. Deviation = 0.48305
Mean = 0.6667



Household

81% are live with no legal land ownership for their houses, when 19% have legal ownership.

Std. Deviation = 0.40237
Mean = 0.8095

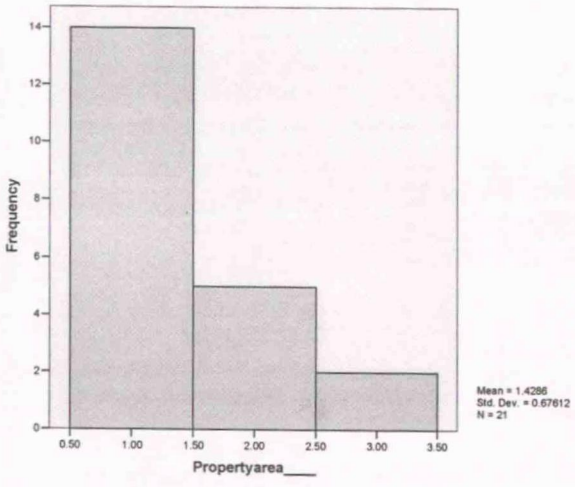


Questionnaire survey
Semi-structured interview statistical analysis using SPSS

The size of the property

15 out of 22 have less than 20 m2 as a property area with an average 17.5 m2 which mean that less than 35% only of the sample lives in more than 20 m2.
Only one interviewer has 45m2 as a property area.

Std. Deviation = 6.72026
Mean = 20.4762



Frequency tables for each of the nominal / ordinal variables

Source of income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	3	14.3	14.3	14.3
	1.00	3	14.3	14.3	28.6
	2.00	1	4.8	4.8	33.3
	3.00	2	9.5	9.5	42.9
	4.00	3	14.3	14.3	57.1
	5.00	2	9.5	9.5	66.7
	6.00	7	28.6	28.6	95.2
	7.00	1	4.8	4.8	100.0
	Total	22	100.0	100.0	

Healthcare

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	17	76.2	76.2	76.2
	1.00	5	23.8	23.8	100.0
	Total	22	100.0	100.0	

Communication with tourists

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	8	36.3	36.3	36.3
	1.00	14	63.7	63.7	100.0
	Total	22	100.0	100.0	

How do you find the tourism business?

Questionnaire survey
Semi-structured interview statistical analysis using SPSS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	.00	3	13.6	13.0	13.00
	1.00	.00	.00	.00	13.00
	2.00	1	4.5	4.5	17.50
	3.00	.00	.00	.00	17.50
	4.00	2	9.1	9.1	26.60
	5.00	16	73.4	73.4	100.0
	Total	22	100.0	100.0	

Annex H:
Evaluating local communities' tourism activities

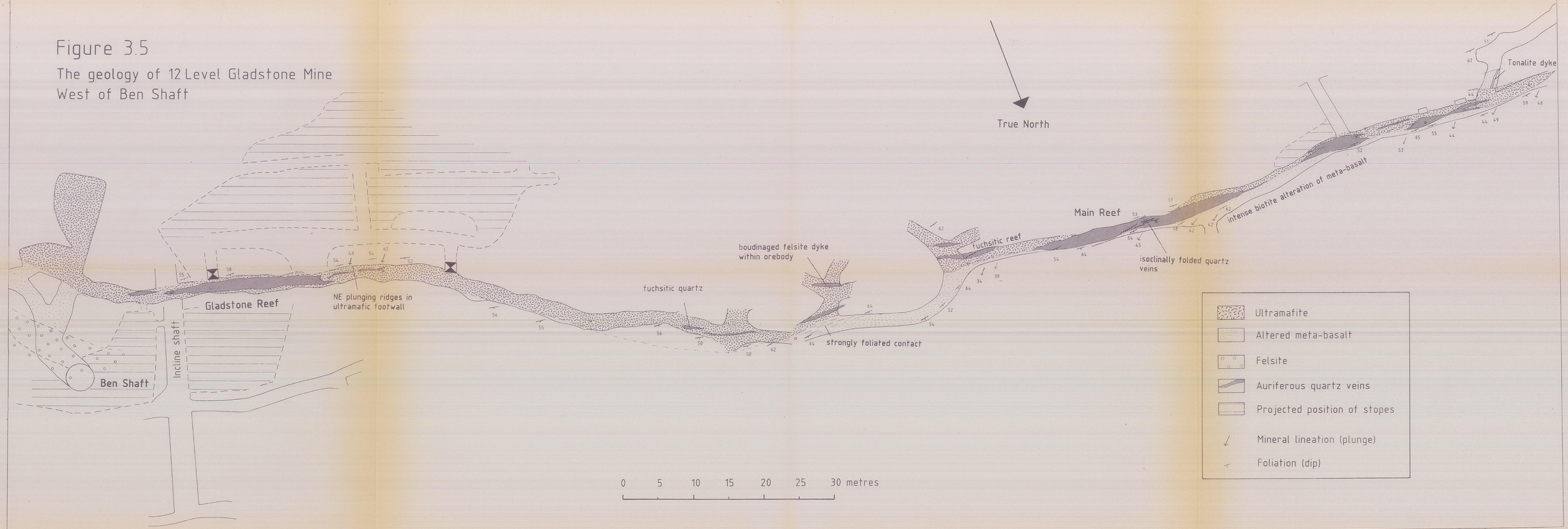
	Very Unsatisfactory	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent	Total
Adequate tourists information	26.9	46.1	19.2	7.8	0	100
Quality and sufficient of tourists information	38.4	34.6	19.2	7.8	0	100
Variety and sufficient of activities	30.7	46.1	19.2	4	0	100
Quality of hand-craft	7.5	26.9	46.1	19.5	0	100
Quality of recreational activities	0	26.9	57.6	15.5	0	100
Tour guidance	4	23	61.5	11.5	0	100
Local restaurants & cafés	7.5	30.7	57.8	4	0	100
Traditional authentic arts	0	0	34.6	61.4	4	100

Annex I:
Local community enhancement and Tourists satisfaction

Local community enhancement						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Safari guide	0	23	42	27.5	7.5	100
Sea activities	19	50	28	3	0	100
Hand crafts	0	0	0	31	69	100
Outdoor activities	0	0	0	31	69	100
Shopping	0	0	0	31	69	100
Recreational activities	0	0	0	31	69	100
Tourists satisfaction						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Safari guide	0	0	0	19	81	100
Sea activities	0	0	0	4	96	100
Hand crafts	0	0	24	67	9	100
Outdoor activities	0	4	31	65	0	100
Shopping	0	4	65	31	0	100
Recreational activities	0	4	76	20	0	100

Figure 3.5

The geology of 12 Level Gladstone Mine
West of Ben Shaft



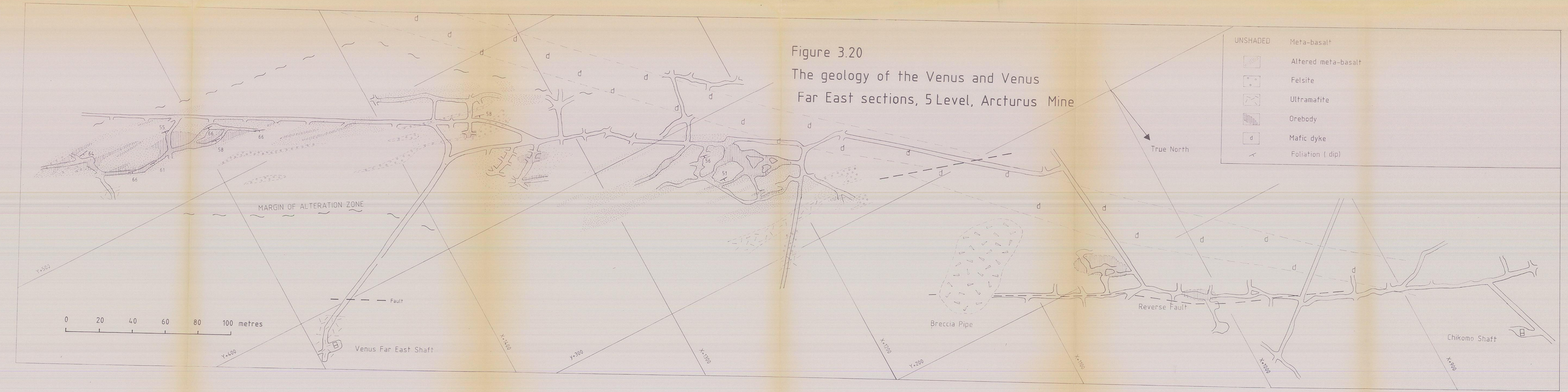


Figure 3.20
The geology of the Venus and Venus Far East sections, 5 Level, Arcturus Mine

Annex K: Promoting local communities – an indicative framework and stakeholder involvement role and programme

Promoting local communities – an indicative framework

Promoting local communities and their integration by means of tourism development requires adopting a development plan structure and realizing a framework to target pro-community objectives (see section 9.4.3). Current circumstances were explored within the research findings, building on the literature review and the international experience analyzed. The "limit of acceptable change" definition that has been suggested for local communities (see section 9.4.5) is one whereby visitor-resident tension reduction is taken into consideration. Five main phases are recommended for securing effective community participation in the tourism development in the new tourism destination at the southern part of the Red Sea region as follows:

Phase one: Site investigation and diagnosis

Full investigation:

- Tourism development: the existing interaction between tourism and the local communities should be identified; characteristics of tourism in terms of numbers, seasonality, volume, and mode etc. should be confirmed.
- Characteristics of the local community within the following: satisfaction of local communities with physical, economic and demographical conditions, local communities' skills, attitudes, potentials could be employed as attractions and the existing management system.
- Stakeholders' roles and relations with local communities should be explored; in addition to the control of tourism development, both existing and future tourism development plans at governmental and private sector level should be identified.

Analysis of available data:

- Available data and information gathered from fieldwork survey should be analyzed; connections between different investigation methods should be outlined; local community leaders should be consulted to identify and explain major issues arising within the research; there should be an understanding of the level of local community interest, and the most likely stakeholders.

- Outline politico-economic, physico-ecological and socio-cultural conditions with regard to existing conditions and the desired future scenario.
- An assessment of social, physical and economic impacts of tourism development plans should be conducted and the local community carrying capacity and limits of acceptable change should be identified.
- Objectives for local communities' involvement should be determined.

Phase two: Initial planning

- Understand interrelationships between local communities and the surrounding natural environment.
- The existing interaction between tourism development and local communities should be evaluated to identify stakeholders' opinions and local communities' standards. Also, strategies for managing negative impacts upon local communities need to be selected.
- Local communities' development needs and requirements should be explored for the existing conditions and for likely future aims, within the analysis of the long-term tourism development plan and the communities' growth.
- Objectives need to be categorized in the light of the specific character of each settlement (coastal sites and deep-range); in particular, objectives that reflect understanding of the local culture should be aimed to community integration focusing on small groups, ethnics groups and women.
- Determine what assets and resources within the local communities could attract tourists, and explore the possibility of integrating local communities with the existing tourism development system.
- Identify tourism development stakeholders' roles, responsibilities and contributions according to their activities over time and specify the government agency and private sector development process.

Phase three: Design local communities' participation agenda

- Determine local community participation procedures. Any conflicts of interest between tourism development stakeholders and local communities should be identified and resolved.
- Recommend development strategies: Seek to provide sustainable sources of income for local communities. These might be reflected in tourism development strategy and plans

in order to secure their area of influence in addition to supporting alternative sources of income that are appropriate in view of the seasonality of particular enterprises.

- Plan for innovation through network management and internal bodies representing local communities; such bodies should be established using the existing local committees. Also, develop a practical enterprise system that represents local communities.
- Furthermore development priorities, which should be matched with the concept of capacity, should be organized according to the development policy indicators.
- Guidance to be provided to increase the role of communities' development in the allocation of project resources for the long-term plan and the measures that assess the development stages and management procedures.
- Methods of stakeholder involvement and roles should be designed.

Phase four: Implement the development programme

- Community participation and development programme to be carried out.
- Local communities' capacity building programmes to be launched.
- Such programmes should consider language, communication, marketing skills and practical and financial issues that provide smooth knowledge transfer between individuals.
- The nature of small enterprises should be formulated according to local communities' traditional organizational approach, and techniques should be proposed to encourage communities' participation, support and agreement.
- Design and apply specific programmes for monitoring local communities' involvement.
- Secure local communities' access to the sea as a source of resources
  Socio-economic benefits associated with local community skills should be diversified as much as possible.

Phase five: Monitoring to secure sustainability

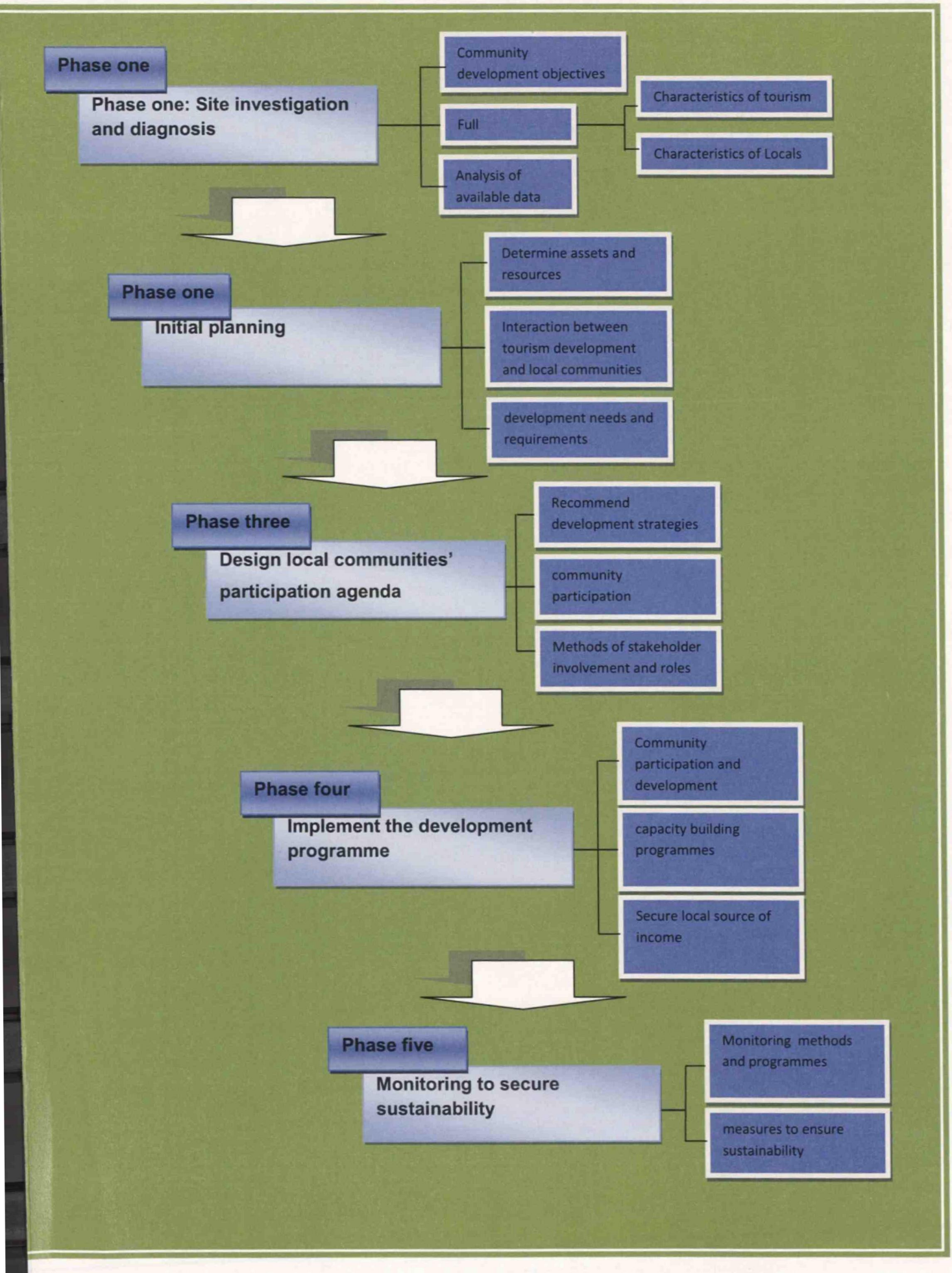
- A method to monitor post decision requirements should be developed. And Procedures that sustain communication between local communities and tourism development stakeholders should be maintained, for instance notification to local communities of decisions affecting them and provision of techniques which project their aims and objectives within regular meetings or channels using local liaison mechanisms.

- Set up courses of action for implementation of local communities' developments defined by stakeholders' roles, with details of roles to be played by all involved.
- Design standardization of procedures for project implementation under community control and supervision.
- Introduce measures to ensure that an equal share of influence among stakeholders is maintained within the planning process in future tourism development plans.
- Technically the active participation of all stakeholders in tourism is considered as the cornerstone to achieve successful CBT development in the study area.

Stakeholder involvement role and programme

Although different opinions were expressed by stakeholders in the study area with regards to what management strategy would be preferred for integrating local communities within the surrounding tourism development, there was agreement about the shared management strategy as the most appropriate strategy that matched with the local circumstances. Furthermore there were concerns linked to bottom up management due to the level of education in the local communities, as well as their lack of communication and business experience. Moreover small enterprises owned by local people and local people-private sector enterprises were chosen as the best organizational structure for tourism enterprises and this would be conditional upon changing the civil society rights laws to provide active participation and a reasonable division of profits among all stakeholders (see section 8.6). In view of the fact that CBT requires meaningful interaction between local people and tourists in a way that satisfies tourists' requirements and emphasises local people's quality of life, local people have an important role to play in maintain the level of benefits they achieve. Nevertheless local people's lack of communication and marketing skills may hinder their contribution. Thus capacity building programmes applied to local people should be business oriented and aim towards local management objectives. Short and long-term plans should be designed to support the industry. Accordingly schemes with flexible organizational structures have to be considered under the shared management strategy, which should provide realistic profit shares among stakeholders. The trust between local people and tourism development stakeholders should be repaired, particularly with respect to decision-makers who have disappointed local communities for a long time. Such trust depends on local communities' empowerment to articulate their needs and wishes for themselves. Decision makers, private sector and tourism development facilitators can hold key to promoting local communities' empowerment (see sections 7.6 and 8.6). Accordingly social, financial and political empowerment could be achieved by allowing local people to participate in decisions linked to

them; maintaining local people's ability to decide for their future; controlling of immigrants from the Nile Valley and other regions outside the Red Sea region. Furthermore local people should be shown alternative CBT activities that match their skills, standards and norms. Capacity building courses that enhance local people's abilities should be launched and local values, customs and solidarity have to be confirmed. It is understood that although the TDA has a controlling hand in the area, any initiative to develop the local community or develop tourism approach activities with people's participation will require prior agreement among all stakeholders to ensure smooth implementation of the activities and a sustainable benefit to local people. These compromises should take place within a predetermined programme that identifies each stakeholder's role in order to secure full support by different stakeholders. Support is required in the areas of: planning, implementation, management and technical, legal, financial and marketing matters, in order to develop and sustain a CBT approach which should be attained with full consultation of all development stakeholders. The fundamental roles should be played by people in local communities. Local people's options and potentials need to be identified, for instance trekking guides, safari guides, catering providers, foodstuff producers, fishing and sea activities contributors, handcraft manufacturers, entertainment and activities providers. This might help to classify particular groups which are considered as the building block for forming economic units. The roles of these units is to identify the CBT products for each product or service that local people will offer, to determine product quality and levels of service standards, to develop and improve new products, to recommend new members, and supervise their preparation and training, to arrange capacity building programmes for unit members and to negotiate with other stakeholders. Decision-makers have an extremely important role as the empowerment of local communities' will be acknowledged through official permitted procedures. This will be in addition to their job of securing local people's area of influence, access to natural resources and preventing exploitation of local people. Decision-makers ought to manage consensus-building techniques, apply appropriate upgrading methods, establish sufficient additional infrastructure and to manage public awareness programmes regarding local cultural traditions and native wildlife as well as visitor management methods. Nevertheless, private sector stakeholders who act as tourism facilitators by identifying tourists' requirements, have the particular task of seeking to guarantee sustained economic benefits. Additionally, in view of the fact that CBT requires a comprehensive understanding for interpretation of cultural traditions, formal relationships should be established between regulated tour guides and local people. Furthermore guidebooks, pamphlets, maps and other marketing materials should be provided. In addition customer requirements should be taken into consideration when designing and creating CBT products.


Phase one
Phase one: Site investigation and diagnosis
Community development objectives
Full
Characteristics of tourism
Characteristics of Locals
Analysis of available data
Phase one
Initial planning
Determine assets and resources
Interaction between tourism development and local communities
development needs and requirements
Phase three
Design local communities' participation agenda
Recommend development strategies
community participation
Methods of stakeholder involvement and roles
Phase four
Implement the development programme
Community participation and development
capacity building programmes
Secure local source of income
Phase five
Monitoring to secure sustainability
Monitoring methods and programmes
measures to ensure sustainability

The recommended stakeholders' roles and the prospected results

Stakeholder	Roles	Aims
Local community	• CBT uniquely source of income once the majority of local people support it, thus they should be persuaded to see it as development alternative. • Local communities should become organized in their transformation towards a CBT economy. CBT in the coastal settlements should be developed in a way that allows local people to become more organized among themselves and united in their safeguards against the pitfalls of tourism mass culture such as competition, monopoly of common resources or businesses, and putting up infrastructure that facilitated industrialization of indigenous resources or dominance by outsiders. • CBT should take place with minimum cultural and social impacts accordingly collabouration between local communities and other stakeholders such as NGOs to assess the development process could provide a successful partnership model. This collabouration could attune the development pattern and address the latest local communities' needs.	• Gradual transformation of government initiated cooperatives into self-reliant, member-controlled and member-financed organizations.
	• Social mobilization of local community to form an integrated CBT destination in terms of community combination, while a wide range of community groups ranging from individual sellers, tour-guides, shop owners and particular CBT services providers should form economic units which worked in a diverse variety of forms to act in unison, and the settlement as a whole functions as one integrated destination.	• Development of local people's organizations and of their interactive processes with government institutions.
	• Local communities should offer a wide range and diversification of CBT products. The sophistication of CBT products in the coastal settlements and deep-range inhabitants depends on community-based initiatives in the form of households managed to offer basic services such as fishing, catering, safari tours, handicrafts and hospitality services. • Local communities should enter into the CBT market to benefit from understanding how to commercialize their products to avoid over-saturation and exploitation by brokers.	• Creating opportunities for income from the development of micro-enterprises.

Continued

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Private sector	Roles	Aims
Owners **Managers** **Tour operators**	• Develop closer relations with a range of non-governmental organizations and promotion of collabouration initiatives in strengthening NGOs networks. (Managers) • Equip tour-guides and tourists with information about local communities' tourism products. (Tour operators/Managers) • Provide intensive training courses for tour-guides so they can understand the value of the cultural traditions and develop better communications with local people. (Managers)	• Raising the tour-guides' and tourists' awareness for the local communities in the area.
	• Develop financial resource allocation procedures to enhance local people-private sector partnership and people's participation in development. (owners) • Provide starting point to local communities on a soft finance or joint venture basis so they can support their enterprises. (Owners/Managers) • Finance and manage business advisory unit to assist local communities to launch small entrepreneurs. (Managers) • Provide local people with job opportunities within the established tourism facilities. (Managers) • Assist to overcome constraints and obstacles impeding CBT facilities. (Owners/Managers) • Provide different collabouration scenarios that appropriate with local people circumstances and applicable with different groups. (Owners/Managers) • Support the marketing of the production through linkages of other outlets. (tour operators/Owners/Managers)	• Establishment of small, micro enterprises and provision of alternative economic resources.
	• Help and support local people to improve the quality of handicrafts, arts and in marketing techniques and finance capacity building programs for local communities. (Managers) • Support and finance capacity building programs for local communities. (Owners/Managers) • Monitor the quality of tourists' facilities provided by local people and mange to develop services that consider customers requirements and avoid socio-cultural commercialization. (Tour operators/Owners/Managers)	• Revival of indigenous folkloric heritage.

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Decision makers	Roles/Activities	Aims
NG **RSG** **TDA** **EEAA**	• Declaration of local communities' rights and obligations of citizens and apply the meaning of social justice and the concepts of state and civil society. (NG/RSG) • Consider local communities' area of influence in the tourism development plans and integrate these plans with the prospected CBT approach. (TDA/RSG) • Social, financial and political empowerment producers should be identified and applied. (RSG/TDA EEAA)	• To empower local communities.
	• Provide assistance and training with the purpose of emphasising public awareness with local communities. (NG/RSG) • Prepare and provide training modules for officials focusing on the practice of democracy for affecting decision making policy linked to local communities' promotion. (NG)	• To expand general awareness of local inhabitants on their contextual status.
	• Conduct training programs for officials working at local level and members of local associations to enhance their communication techniques, language ability and monitoring capability. (RSG/TDA/EEAA) • Establishment of awareness program for the tourism facilities' owners and staff concerning the tourists' practices and the performing culture tradition. (TDA)	• To ensure active participation by the people in the development process.
	• Establish regular channels between development stakeholders. (TDA/RSG) • Develop participatory monitoring and evaluation systems to assess progress in people's participatory approaches to sea, rural and agricultural development as alternative sources of income.(TDA/RSG) • Enable the participation of representatives from local people's organizations in national and local level training activities related to information exchange, policy dialogue and design and implementation of participatory rural development projects. (NG/RSG/TDA/EEAA) • Encourage participation by representatives of local organizations together with government officials, in workshops, expert meetings, consultations and conferences on rural development policies, procedures, programs and projects. (RSG/TDA)	• Encouragement and assistance of governments' officials and local people's organizations in promoting participatory activities.

NG National Government RSG Red Sea Government

TDA Tourism Development Authority EEAA Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency

Continued

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Tourism development facilitators	Roles	Aims
NGOs **Consultants**	• Assist in collecting, processing and disseminating information on people's participation, using indicators adapted to local communities' circumstances. (NGOs/Consultants) • Improve of increased dialogue and technical collabouration between decision makers, private sector and local communities. (NGOs/Consultants)	• Enhance community-based management of natural and cultural assets.
	• Provide more guidance so that local people know who to speak to, when and what about. (Consultants) • Manage capacity building programs for local communities focus on: communication skills, language, and assessment of their needs and identification of their ability; team-work and team spirit; financial management and transparency; how to build coalitions and contacts with other stakeholders; how to run micro-businesses; quality production and marketing. (NGOs)	• Support local communities' capacity building.
	• Monitor in-depth, short and long-term impact assessments of local people's participation projects which highlight the benefits of participation. (NGOs) • Facilitate the participation of local people's organizations for information exchange and for policy dialogue on participatory with the decision-makers and private sector. (NGOs/Consultants)	• To establish local people's self awareness of CBT benefits and consequences.
	• Monitor the relationship between tour-guides and local people to avoid exploitation and disrespect. (NGOs) • Provide suitable mechanism for local communities to self-mange development activities. (NGOs) • Develop regular communication channels, i.e. information gathering, analysis and distribution, training, institution building, promotion of dialogue, exchange of experience, as well as policy advice. (NGOs/Consultants)	• Foundation for sustainable CBT development mechanism.

Source: The author