

Master's Thesis

Community Participation in the Context of Transformation Processes:

The Case of Responsible Tourism Development in Myanmar

Katholische Universität Eichstätt-Ingolstadt

Faculty of Economics/
Faculty of Mathematics and Geography

Department of Tourism

M.Sc. Tourism and Regional Planning

Dörte Kasüske

Billrothstraße 16

18528 Bergen auf Rügen

Matr. No.: 397730

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Harald Pechlaner



October 31, 2012



Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Pechlaner, for his support, advice and scientific guidance. His support throughout the entire master's studies process paved the way for this research.

A very special thanks goes to Nicole Häusler of mas|contour, who gave me the initial idea to this thesis. Without her continuous support, professional expertise and personal trust in my work this thesis would not have been possible.

I would also like to thank the Hanns Seidel Foundation for giving me financial support to conduct my research in Myanmar.

I thank the interviewees for taking their time to answer my questions and for giving me some interesting insights into Myanmar's tourism industry.

Last but not least, I would like to thank all those who supported me during the process of writing this thesis, who helped me broaden my perspective and focus on what was most essential.

Table of Contents

List of Tables.....	iv
List of Figures	v
List of Abbreviations.....	vi
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Research Question and Aims	1
1.2 Methodology	2
1.3 Structure	2
2 General Considerations on Development, Tourism and Participation	4
2.1 Development and Transformation.....	4
2.2 Tourism and Development	6
2.3 Tourism and Sustainable Development.....	9
2.4 Community Participation in Tourism.....	12
3 Community Participation and Responsible Tourism Development	16
3.1 Methodology: Systematic Literature Review	16
3.2 State of Scientific Research.....	18
3.2.1 Economic Dimension	20
3.2.2 Environmental Dimension.....	24
3.2.3 Socio-cultural Dimension.....	27
3.2.4 Organizational Dimension.....	30
3.3 Summary: Theoretical Understanding of Development and Participation in Tourism..	34
3.3.1 Overall Objectives	34
3.3.2 Success Indicators	34
3.3.3 Concluding Implications	36

4 Myanmar: A Destination in Transformation	39
4.1 A Country Profile of Myanmar	39
4.1.1 Geography	41
4.1.2 History	42
4.1.3 Socioeconomic Factors	44
4.2 Tourism in Myanmar.....	46
4.2.1 Background: Tourism in the ‘Pre-Opening Era’	46
4.2.2 Current Status of Tourism: Facts and Figures.....	48
4.2.3 Outlook: Efforts to Promote Responsible Tourism Development	53
4.3 Summary: Interrelations of Development and Tourism in Myanmar	54
5 Stakeholder’s Perspective on Community Participation and Responsible Tourism Development.....	57
5.1 Methodology: Qualitative Case Study Research Using GABEK	57
5.2 Tourism Development in Myanmar	63
5.2.1 Evaluation of Change	64
5.2.2 Causes and Effects	65
5.3 Responsible Tourism in Myanmar	67
5.3.1 An Approach to a Definition.....	67
5.3.2 Causes and Effects	69
5.4 Community Participation in Myanmar.....	70
5.4.1 An Approach to a Definition.....	71
5.4.2 Causes and Effects	72
5.5 Selected Issues Facing Myanmar’s Tourism Industry	74
5.5.1 Capacity Shortage	74
5.5.2 Education.....	76
5.5.3 Cooperation	77
5.6 Summary: Transformation and Community Participation in Tourism in the Context of Myanmar	79

6 Conclusion.....	81
6.1 Central Findings and Implications	81
6.2 Limitations of the Study and Outlook for Further Research	84
References	xiv
Annex	xxii
Affidavit	

List of Tables

Table 1: Tourism concepts associated with sustainable development	11
Table 2: Typologies of community participation	14
Table 3: Steps of analysis with systematic literature review	17
Table 4: Implications of community participation and responsible tourism development	36
Table 5: Selected indicators of Myanmar's development in 2010.....	40
Table 6: Reasons for and against boycotting Myanmar as a tourism destination	47
Table 7: International tourist arrivals in the ASEAN region 2008–2011	49
Table 8: Structure of the interview sample	59
Table 9: Steps of interview analysis with WinRelan	61

List of Figures

Figure 1: Interrelations of community participation and responsible tourism development ...	20
Figure 2: Success indicators of community participation in tourism.....	35
Figure 3: Map of Myanmar	41
Figure 4: International tourist arrivals in Myanmar 1990–2011	49
Figure 5: International tourist arrivals in Myanmar 2011 by region of origin.....	50
Figure 6: Respondents' evaluation of past, present and target situations	64
Figure 7: Causal net graph: Tourism Development Myanmar.....	66
Figure 8: Association graph: Responsible Tourism	67
Figure 9: Causal net graph: Responsible Tourism	70
Figure 10: Association graph: Community Participation.....	71
Figure 11: Causal net graph: Community Participation.....	73
Figure 12: Causal net graph: Capacity Shortage	75
Figure 13: Causal net graph: Education	76
Figure 14: Causal net graph: Cooperation.....	78

List of Abbreviations

ADB	–	Asian Development Bank
ASEAN	–	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
BTI	–	Bertelsmann Transformation Index
CBT	–	Community-based Tourism
GABEK	–	Holistic processing of complexity (German acronym: ‘Ganzheitliche Bewältigung von Komplexität’)
GDP	–	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	–	Greater Mekong Subregion
HSF	–	Hanns Seidel Foundation
NLD	–	National League for Democracy
NGO	–	Non-governmental Organization
MoHT	–	Ministry of Hotels and Tourism of Myanmar
MTF	–	Myanmar Tourism Federation
UNWTO	–	United Nations World Tourism Organization

1 Introduction

Myanmar – a country neighbouring China and India in the heart of ‘rising Asia’ that stayed in international isolation for almost five decades; a country rich in resources, with a large proportion of its population living in poverty; a country boycotted by tourists for serious human rights abuses not long ago that has been proclaimed the ‘hot new destination for independent travellers 2012’; a country that attracts international investors who look for profit on the path to responsible tourism development.

This thesis focuses on Myanmar as a country that apparently is in a process of transformation. Due to its efforts to open up politically and economically, interest in Myanmar is enormous. Between 2009 and 2011, the number of international tourist arrivals increased by more than 25% every year, and a further increase by about 40% is expected for 2012. In these times of change, rush and international interest, Myanmar’s tourism stakeholders are making efforts towards the responsible development of the industry, the aim being “to use tourism to make Myanmar a better place to live in” (MoHT 2012b: 6) and by doing so focusing specifically on an important stakeholder in tourism that is all too often neglected: local communities.

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO 2009: 3), a growing number of local communities are participating in tourism as a result of global tourism growth, either passively or actively benefiting from tourism for their development. However, it is also evident that in reality this form of participation is primarily of a passive and manipulative nature (Ibid.: 9), contributing to communities only in terms of short-term, monetary benefits.

Given this, the present thesis focuses on sustainable tourism development and on the relationship between involvement of local communities in tourism and the transformative process of development.

1.1 Research Question and Aims

This thesis aims to explore the interrelations of transformation processes and the involvement of local communities in tourism. Therefore, the discussions to follow in this thesis address the following research question:

*How to understand the role of community participation in tourism
in the context of transformation processes?*

Because it is safe to assume that such involvement in tourism is primarily interrelated with the transformation of the industry itself, the following chapters focus mainly on this relationship. However, the thesis also addresses the questions of whether community participation in tour-

ism can benefit the transformation of a country and of how such a process of transformation contributes to local economic involvement, participation and empowerment.

1.2 Methodology

The discussions to follow reflect notions of these interrelations from a theoretical point of view. Myanmar is a country that is paving the way to transformation and whose tourism stakeholders have already made efforts towards the responsible development of the industry, so the field of research is also considered empirically.

The study begins with a systematic literature review, including strictly defined steps of narrowing down results, to build an evidence base of the scientific understanding of community participation in connection with tourism transformation. In doing so, it identifies influences, success indicators and implications of the field of research.

Data for the empirical analysis were selected during field research in May and June 2012, when the Ministry of Hotels and Tourism of Myanmar (MoHT) and the Myanmar Tourism Federation (MTF) initiated a participatory process of formulating the Responsible Tourism Policy for Myanmar which involved more than 350 tourism stakeholders. This process was guided by national and international tourism experts and funded by the German Hanns Seidel Foundation (HSF). Supported by HSF, I was given the opportunity to accompany the process and gain useful insights into Myanmar's tourism industry. I also met important tourism stakeholders and conducted expert interviews with some of them. The focus of these interviews was on the stakeholders' perceptions of and attitudes towards tourism development, responsible tourism and community participation in Myanmar.

The data gathered during the field research were analysed using the GABEK methodology. This tool and the related software WinRelan allows for the holistic processing of complexity through a systematic and traceable analysis and interpretation of qualitative research data. GABEK enables researchers "to collect, order and interpret collective existing knowledge" (Pechlaner and Volgger 2012: 4). In the present investigation, GABEK is used to analyse assessments of tourism development based on the respondents' perceptions, to construct definitions of responsible tourism and community participation and to outline causal relations in the above-mentioned aspects and in selected key issues of Myanmar's tourism industry.

1.3 Structure

The thesis is divided into two main parts. The first part discusses the field of research from a theoretical point of view. Chapter 2 considers the definitions of tourism in the context of

development, sustainability and community participation. Chapter 3 outlines key issues and success indicators involved in the participation of local communities in tourism and identifies implications for action with respect to different stages of a destination's development.

The second part of this thesis discusses the field of research with a special focus on Myanmar. Chapter 4 provides a country profile and a discussion of the development of tourism in Myanmar. The major empirical results gathered from the exploratory qualitative research in Myanmar are discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

The thesis concludes with a synthesis of theoretical and empirical findings regarding community participation in connection with tourism and transformation processes. In addition, Chapter 6 discusses the limitations of the present investigation and presents outlooks for further research.

2 General Considerations on Development, Tourism and Participation

The following sections aim to define the scope of terms and concepts used in this field of research and discuss transformation as a framework for development, tourism from a development perspective (including the paradigm of sustainable development) and the concept of community participation.

2.1 Development and Transformation

Development is about change of structures and systems and, in its broadest sense, is considered to intend “a more advanced [...] state” (Brown and Hall 2008: 840). Although a variety of interpretations and definitions of development exist in different scientific fields, “common grounds of definitions of ‘development’ today include improvement, empowerment, participation, and sustainability” (Gang 2011: 124).

For the purposes of this thesis, development is understood as a process of transformative nature as defined by Stiglitz (1998, cited in Stiglitz 2002: 164).

“Development represents a transformation of society, a movement from traditional relations, traditional ways of thinking, traditional ways of dealing with health and education, traditional methods of production, to more ‘modern’ ways. For instance, a characteristic of traditional societies is the acceptance of the world as it is; the modern perspective recognizes change, it recognizes that we, as individuals and societies, can take actions that, for instance, reduce infant mortality, increase lifespans, and increase productivity.”

Particular emphasis is put on the fact that there are two central aspects to be considered when investigating a country’s process of development: economic development, which manifests itself in increases of the per-capita gross domestic product (GDP), and social development, which manifests itself in “the ability of a country to peacefully resolve conflicts and to address amicably sources of common concern when interests differ” (Stiglitz 2002: 171).

Although the above definition focuses on the transformative nature of development, there are two frameworks for it: transformation and transition (Hall 2008). These frameworks are related but not identical and differ significantly in terms of the means and ends of change.

While, ‘transition’ is considered to be “a gradual, continuous process of societal change where the structural character of society (or a complex sub-segment of society) transforms” (Martens and Rotmans 2005: 1136), ‘transformation’ tends to emphasise more the means of develop-

ment than its ends (Hall 2008: 414). Sofield and Li (2011: 505) note that the difference between the two is that ‘transition’ aims to replace an existing economic, social or political systems, whereas ‘transformation’ aims to modify, amend or reform such systems. Therefore, a process of transformation is more likely to “respect cultures, sovereignty and peoples’ apprehensions” and “can be imbued with ideals of equity and sustainability that may be difficult to accommodate with ‘transition’” (Hall 2008: 414).

Because the term ‘transformation’ refers to the means of change and their application, three dimensions are to be considered:

- ▶ State of market economy, including:
 - ▶ Economic performance,
 - ▶ Property rights,
 - ▶ Regulatory framework,
 - ▶ Social justice (social security nets, equality of opportunity, sustainability)
- ▶ State of democracy, including:
 - ▶ Basic civil rights,
 - ▶ Free elections,
 - ▶ Stateness,
 - ▶ Rule of law (e.g., separation of powers, prosecution of office abuse),
 - ▶ Consolidated of democracy (e.g., acceptance, representativeness, political culture),
- ▶ Quality of political management, including:
 - ▶ Facilitation and steering of development by policymakers,
 - ▶ Reform policies,
 - ▶ International cooperative efforts,
 - ▶ Consistency of governments,
 - ▶ Effectiveness of resource utilisation (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012b).

Using these dimensions, the Bertelsmann Foundation regularly assesses transformation processes by the Bertelsmann Transformation Index (BTI). According to this assessment, there are 128 countries worldwide that are “on the path toward democracy under the rule of law and a market economy anchored in principles of social justice” (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012b).

According to the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD 2012), there is no established standard for the designation of ‘developed’ and ‘developing’ countries. In general, high

population growth rates, low per-capita GDP, low literacy rate, low life expectancy, poor health services, a large proportion of the population working in the agricultural sector and a polarisation of traditional and modern economic structures are regarded as indicators for a low stage of a country's development (Job and Weizenegger 2004: 629).

In common practice, Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand and Japan are considered 'developed' countries or regions; Africa, the Caribbean, Central and South America, Asia (excluding Japan) and Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) are considered 'developing' regions (UNSD 2012). 18 countries, including former Yugoslavia and Eastern Europe, are regarded as 'transition countries' because they have transitioned from centrally planned to market economies. UNSD list 48 'least developed countries', most of which are in Africa, but also in Asia and the Middle East (Ibid.).

This thesis uses the terms 'developed countries' (as used by UNSD) and 'developing' or 'transformation countries' (as used by UNSD and the Bertelsmann Foundation).

2.2 Tourism and Development

Tourism, which is considered to be the world's largest and fastest-growing industry, and its impacts on places, people, the environment and development have been discussed for decades by a variety of researchers and practitioners (Richter 1992: 36; Scheyvens 2002: 4). But, a closer look at this industry reveals that there is no one single industry or functional entity in the conventional sense because tourism involves many diverse activities and components in meeting the needs not only of tourists but also of those of the local population (Britton 1989: 95; Capó and Valle 2008: 202).

Rather, as an industry "*[t]ourism is a broad system based on the movement of people, goods, capital, and ideas, among many other things, between home regions and destinations that are linked by many routes and transit regions and associated with many other societal processes*" (Saarinen 2006: 1124). According to Brown and Hall (2008: 841), it is this global movement of a variety of things associated with tourism that "inevitably means that its impacts are going to be widely felt".

Moreover, due to its holistic nature, tourism affects many stakeholders that are diverse and have varied interests and priorities (Bramwell and Lane 2011: 411) including the public sector (national governments, local authorities), the private tourism industry (accommodation units, tour operators, restaurants, transport companies), local communities, residents in tourist destinations, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and local action groups. There are a variety

of stakeholders and variables that are affected by and influence tourism, so its nature is “highly dynamic and constantly changing” (Butler 1999: 39).

Tourism Development

For the analysis of the impacts, involvement, direction and development of tourism at a destination level over time, Butler’s Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model is widely accepted and used by scholars. This model considers tourism development from an evolutionary perspective and defines consecutive stages of development with respect to the number of visitors in a destination (Butler 1999: 38). These stages include exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and rejuvenation or decline. While early stages in the TALC model tend to be characterised by small numbers of visitors and the utilisation of primarily locally controlled facilities and resources, more developed stages usually involve external interests due to the need for additional resources (capital, expertise) or due to the attraction of external stakeholders who are looking for economic benefits (Ibid.: 44).

With respect to countries in transformation, which are the subject of the present thesis, conventional models of tourism development such as the TALC model appear inappropriate. In these countries, the industry’s development is less likely to be based on evolution and more likely on rapid changes in the wider political and economic landscape. Therefore, one must consider the contextual change of a destination when analysing tourism development in transformation countries (Saarinen and Kask 2008: 466).

This thesis refers to different stages of tourism development and distinguishes between early stages of development (small numbers of visitors, primarily local and regional interests) and more developed stages of tourism (significant numbers of visitors, increased external interest). However, the focus being on transformation processes, this categorisation does not imply the consecutive developments assumed in conventional models of tourism development.

Tourism in Developing Countries

Another point to note when considering tourism and development is the relationship between tourism and developing or transformation countries. According to Mitchell and Ashley (2010: 7f.), who focus their attention on poverty alleviation through tourism, there are three reasons for promoting the tourism industry in poor and developing countries. Firstly, in many developing countries, tourism already is an important part of the economy. This is supported by the fact that tourism is the only generator of foreign exchange for about one in three developing

countries (GTZ 2007). Secondly, there are good long-term prospects for growth to developing countries which specialise in tourism. In several developing countries (especially in sub-Saharan Africa) it is assumed that economic transition is likely to not affect the manufacturing sector at all and instead will directly transform the agricultural sector into a service sector. Thirdly, “tourism can demonstrably benefit the poor” (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 8).

However, tourism in developing countries must be considered a double-edged sword. Researchers note that tourism is of great importance for the development and growth of national economies in that it attracts foreign exchange, government revenue, income and employment (Reid 2003: 236), so the fact that tourism benefits many developing and transformation countries is undisputed (Britton 1989: 93). However, tourism “frequently also perpetuates already existing inequalities, economic problems and social tension” in these destinations (Ibid.).

The main contributions of tourism are considered to be its economic benefits for developing nations and the broader population (Capó and Valle 2008:201; Reid 2003: 236; Scheyvens 2002: 5). Employment and income in particular are seen as drivers of development. In addition, the industry’s importance for employment “is strengthened by the relatively labour-intensive nature of tourism and the limited substitution of capital in the production of tourism services” (Soukiacis and Proença 2008: 45).

In general, tourism-driven employment and income can occur in three forms: *direct* (through tourism expenditure), *indirect* (through expenditures that are necessary to create the tourism product) and *induced* (due to an increased general demand for goods and services as a result of increased tourism expenditure in a destination) (Harrison 1992: 15). Indirect benefits in particular can be improved through strategic intervention and “through the development of support services and increased opportunities in other industries ranging from food and agriculture to hardware, crafts and construction, creating diversified local economies” (UNWTO 2005: 128).

Employment and related income from tourism, by nature, can benefit a wide range of people in a destination through a trickle-down of tourism expenditure. This trickling-down through different economic sectors also implies that the greater the linkages between tourism industry and its related sectors within a destination, the smaller the leakages and the more likely this destination will be able to benefit from tourism (Soukiacis and Proença 2008: 44f.).

What is neglected in this calculation is that in reality benefits which remain in developing countries are relatively small because the industry in these countries is usually highly domi-

nated by international companies and national elite groups (Britton 1989) and thus great proportions of economic gains flow out of the destination. Another concern is that the jobs created tend to be of an inferior and exploiting nature because they often involve low wages, excessive hours or duties, seasonal or temporary employment, and a lack of possibilities for advancement to senior positions (Brown and Hall 2008: 841). Moreover, just because benefits are created it does not mean that there are no costs such as a destination's expenditures to support tourism and the possible increase in costs of living and change of lifestyles resulting from tourism development. Therefore, potential economic gains must be weighed against the costs (UNWTO 2005: 128).

The example of income and employment creation in tourism is used here to illustrate the industry's complexity in terms of its impact and influence on developing countries. Of course, the tourism system is embedded in many more contexts in a destination. To consider all of these contexts in detail would go beyond the scope of this introductory chapter. Sections 3.2.1 to 3.2.4 provide a more detailed description of the benefits and costs of tourism.

2.3 Tourism and Sustainable Development

As a result of the increased knowledge about the impacts of tourism and its limits of growth and in response to the World Commission on Environment and Development's declaration on sustainable development of 1987, sustainable tourism has sparked the interest of scholars and researchers (Saarinen 2006: 1123). Growing concerns over environmental issues, intensifying debates on the Global North/South divide and a shift in productive and consumption structures in Western societies have led to growing interest in and the necessity of sustainability in recent years (Ibid.).

Basically, sustainable development aims "to ensure that it meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED 1987: 8). The concept follows three fundamental principles – futurity, equity and holism – and refers to three integrated elements: the economic, the environmental and the socio-cultural elements (Saarinen 2006: 1123). The balancing of its integrated elements is both a prerequisite and a challenge for sustainable development, as Brown and Hall note (2008: 843): "[w]here benefits in one area do have to be traded off against costs in another, it can be particularly difficult objectively to establish whether the best balance has been achieved".

In the broadest sense, sustainable tourism is the application of the idea of sustainable development to tourism (Bramwell and Lane 2011: 412). More specifically, it may be regarded as

“a process of quality change resulting from political initiatives that include the indispensable participation of the local population and that adapts the institutional and legal framework, and the planning and management tools, in order to achieve development based on a balance between the conservation of existing natural and cultural resources, the economic viability of tourism and social equity in tourism development” (Vera Rebollo and Baidal 2003: 185).

Although sustainability is about the limits of growth and follows the “idea of the limits of touristic use and the changes in the physical and social environment to be deemed acceptable” (Saarinen 2006: 1126), it is not a contrasting concept of growth in general. Rather, “meeting essential needs depends in part on achieving full growth potential, and sustainable development clearly requires economic growth in places where such needs are not being met” (WCED 1987: 44). Consequently, sustainable tourism aims to maximise benefits whilst minimising the costs of tourism development.

However, due to its holistic nature, complexity, impreciseness and the resulting operational challenges, the concept is contested by several researchers (Bramwell and Lane 2011: 413; Saarinen 2006: 1123f.). It should, therefore, not be understood as a clearly defined form of tourism, but rather as a platform “encouraging dialogue between individuals with different perspectives about tourism and its economic, social and environmental dimensions” (Bramwell and Lane 2011: 414).

Sustainable tourism is not limited to a specific form of tourism or specific goods and services. All forms of tourism in all destinations can be sustainable (UNWTO 2004: 7). However, there are concepts of tourism that are more likely to be associated with sustainable development than others. Table 1 below provides a brief overview of the most common concepts.

Responsible tourism, a concept that also pursues the goals of sustainable development in tourism, contributes to the operational challenges of the concept of sustainable tourism by putting emphasis on stakeholders’ actions. Thus, “*Making better places for people to live in, and better places for people to visit*” is the motto of responsible tourism (ICRT 2012). More specifically, “[r]esponsible tourism is *not* a tourism product or brand. It represents a way of *doing* tourism planning, policy, and development to ensure that benefits was optimally distributed among impacted populations, governments tourists, and investors” (Husbands and Harrison 1996: 1 cited in Scheyvens 2002: 186).

Table 1: *Tourism concepts associated with sustainable development.*

Tourism Concept	Characteristics
Sustainable tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Application of sustainable development to tourism ▶ Aims at balancing economic, environmental and socio-cultural costs and benefits of tourism in an acceptable way
Responsible tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Imperative of sustainable tourism ▶ Requires stakeholders to take action
Community-based tourism (CBT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Approach to tourism development and management ▶ Significant percentage of the local population with substantial control of and involvement in its tourism development/management ▶ Majority of benefits remain within the local economy
Pro-poor tourism (PPT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Approach to tourism development and management ▶ Aims at enhancing the linkages between tourism businesses and poor people, increased contribution to poverty reduction by the tourism industry and effective participation of poor people in product development processes
Community-benefit tourism initiative (CBTI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Aims and benefits similar to PPT, but not necessarily at addressing a poor community and not necessarily involving local community members in any rights or decision-making processes
Ecotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism in natural areas ▶ Focus on combining conservation and the improvement of the well-being of local communities
Agrotourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism in rural areas, farm-based form of tourism ▶ Focus on agricultural life in the creation of tourism experiences, goods and services ▶ Provides an alternative source of income in the agricultural sector
Rural tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism in rural areas ▶ Focus on rural lifestyle in the creation of tourism experiences, goods and services ▶ Provides an alternative source of income in the non-agricultural sector
Corporate social responsibility (CSR) in tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Transfer of sustainable tourism to a micro level and integration of its vision and goals into a tourism company's corporate strategy

Source: Adapted from Häusler (2011: 16).

Although there are many different approaches to and elements of sustainable development in tourism, Mowforth and Munt (2003: 114) note that the participation of a destination's communities is an essential element of sustainable tourism development.

2.4 Community Participation in Tourism

In general, scientific discussions on community participation tend to address transformation in less developed countries since the late 1960s. They have concerned themselves with tourism as a special field of interest since the 1990s (Wang and Wall 2005: 42).

Although there are a variety of scientific discussions on development in general and on tourism development in particular, there is no common definition for two reasons. Firstly, the term ‘community’ is not clearly defined because it refers to different aspects such as local contexts, social systems, feelings of ‘togetherness’ and even ideologies (Richards and Hall 2000: 4). Secondly, the term ‘participation’ is open to a variety of interpretations and does not necessarily imply active involvement. Thus, providing strict definitions is a challenge.

The Concept of Community

Because of its heterogeneous nature, ‘community’ is a rather flexible term. A community is not considered to be a fixed and homogenous group of people. Rather, different aspects must be considered when investigating the concept of ‘community’.

The Oxford English Dictionary (2012) defines human communities as follows:

- (1) “A group of people living in the same place or having a particular characteristic in common;
- (2) The condition of sharing or having certain attitudes in common.”

The concept of ‘community’ thus tends to cover a wide range of aspects. Johnston (2000: 101) provides another definition which considers the community as a “social network of interacting individuals, usually concentrated into a defined territory”.

Richards and Hall (2000b: 1ff.) attempt to clarify the term in connection with tourism and development and pose several questions: “Whose community? How defined: in spatial/social/economic terms? Who in the community should benefit from tourism? How should the community be presented to tourists? [...] Who are the ‘locals’ in the local community? Where should one place the spatial or temporal boundaries of the ‘local’ community?”. In addition to these local contextual aspects, a number of soft factors intrinsic to communities must be considered. They may also be distinguished by a number of inherent characteristics and thus may differ in terms of existing power structures and class, ethnic and gender factors (Scheyvens 2002: 9).

In their study on tourism and development, Choi and Murray (2010: 576) stress the importance of understanding and involving communities in the tourism planning process from

the start because not only do they perceive impacts of tourism; tourism development also affects them the most.

For the purpose of the present field of research, the concept of ‘community’ should therefore consider the following aspects:

- ▶ Heterogeneous group of people;
- ▶ Common elements of community members:
 - ▶ Living in a spatial unit that is identical to the (potential) tourism destination,
 - ▶ All community members are affected by tourism development directly or indirectly;
- ▶ Distinguishing elements of community members:
 - ▶ Standards of living,
 - ▶ Access to power and control over their individual and common development.

This concept of ‘community’ benefits the investigation of community participation and tourism development because it focuses on inherent characteristics of communities, the perceived impacts of tourism development and communities’ capability to get involved in tourism development.

The Concept of Community Participation

Community participation plays a vital role in the discussion of sustainable tourism-driven development. UNWTO (2009: 4) states that community participation has earned special attention within the discussion of sustainable development because of its “linkage between the resources, development activities and the benefits sharing from development”.

Definitions of community participation are less likely to focus on the ‘who’ and more likely to focus on the ‘what’. They particularly address means and outcomes. Wang and Wall (2005: 42) describe participation in tourism as:

“one way to balance the physical and commercial orientation of tourism development with the needs and goals of local people, to enhance destination planning, to ensure the maintenance of a ‘sense of place’, to foster a better understanding of the entire development situation, to promote the formation of a common value base, to increase recognition of interdependence among stakeholders and, in these ways, to promote sustainability”.

This definition highlights some of the key terms of the present thesis and interrelates the terms ‘community’, ‘tourism development’ and ‘sustainability’. Therefore, it is regarded as the basis of all further analysis.

Community participation in terms of stakeholder collaboration has been discussed in the scientific literature for decades (Wang and Wall 2005: 42). Yet there is no definite consensus on the term's nature. Hung et al. (2011: 277) state that “community participation is not a dichotomous structure with only two forms of participation, either participation or lack of participation”. Different levels or typologies of involvement have been emphasised in discussions by academics and practitioners alike.

In particular, the differentiation of levels of participation is based on two aspects: power relations between stakeholders and benefits gained by community members. Table 2 summarises the most common approaches to typologies of community participation.

Table 2: Typologies of community participation.

Author(s)	Levels of participation
Arnstein (1969)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Levels characterised by an increase of citizen power from (1)–(8): (1) Manipulation; (2) Therapy; (3) Informing; (4) Consultation; (5) Placation; (6) Partnership; (7) Delegated power; (8) Citizen Control ▶ (1), (2): non-participatory; pursuing education and cure of community members ▶ (3), (4), (5): tokenism; passive participation by following external instructions ▶ (6), (7), (8): citizen power; active participation in decision-making
Pretty (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Levels characterised by an increase of power and control by community members from (1)–(7): (1) manipulative participation, (2) passive participation; (3) participation by consultation; (4) participation for material incentives; (5) functional participation; (6) interactive participation; (7) self-mobilisation ▶ (1), (2): communities in predetermined roles ▶ (7): communities taking initiatives independently from external intervention
Choguill (1996)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Levels characterised by an increase of power and control by community members, and an increase of government support from (1)–(8): (1) self-management; (2) conspiracy; (3) informing; (4) diplomacy; (5) dissimulation; (6) conciliation; (7) partnership; (8) empowerment ▶ Model adapted from Arnstein (1969) and applied to the circumstances of underdeveloped countries
Tosun (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Transformation of participation levels into tourism context ▶ Differentiation of three levels: (1) Spontaneous community participation in tourism development; (2) passive community participation in tourism development; (3) pseudo-community participation in tourism development ▶ (1) is the ideal model of CP because it is characterised by a high level of citizen power and control over the whole process of tourism development
Jayawardena (2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Typology based on the nature of (economic) involvement in the tourism industry, characterised by decreased involvement from (1)–(4): (1) communities investing in tourism: leading business persons and local

	<p>entrepreneurs; (2) communities of workers directly employed in tourism; (3) communities indirectly involved by benefiting from tourism: broader community of those who are involved through linkages of tourism to other economic sectors, (4) other communities: community members who live in or near a tourism destination/resort receiving no or little benefits from tourism</p>
<p>Wang and Wall (2005)</p>	<p>► Participation levels with increasing (economic) benefits and capabilities for the poor from (1)–(4): (1) impactee: person, who perceives negative impacts from tourism development but does not gain any significant benefits, outsider-dominated tourism development; (2) beneficiary: recipient of services, resources, and development interventions, one-way flows of resources and information from government to community; (3) client: community member empowered by tourism development with enhanced capabilities, confidence and resources to take part in tourism development process; (4) owner: further strengthening of capacities and resources to the highest level of self-reliant participation</p>

Source: Own elaboration, adapted from Hung et al. (2010: 277ff.);

Jayawardena (2002: 14ff.); Pretty (1995: 1253); Wang and Wall (2005: 43f.).

The diversity of approaches to understanding different levels of community participation illustrated above reflects two things: firstly, there is no general inclusive participation in the scientific and practical use of this term because it implies various forms ranging from being passively affected to being actively self-reliant. Secondly, it is very important to understand and bear these levels in mind when investigating community participation because a low degree of involvement does not necessarily result in negative or irresponsible practices, nor does a high degree of involvement necessarily lead to a positive development of the greater community.

Moreover, the range, impact and application of community participation are contested. In fact, the practical implementation of the theoretical concept of community participation in tourism development results in passive involvement and manipulative participation. Therefore, “it is still unclear that intervention on participation alone can lead to long-term sustainability of community development and to contribute to global sustainability” (UNWTO 2009: 9).

The aim of the following chapter is thus to provide detailed insights into the scientific field of research with the help of a systematic review of the literature on community participation in the context of responsible tourism development.

3 Community Participation and Responsible Tourism Development

This chapter aims to discuss the interrelations of community participation and responsible tourism development. In addition, it raises the question of whether an involvement of local citizens in tourism planning, decision-making, implementation and evaluation can lead to sustainable, tourism-driven transformation of a country.

Therefore, this study uses a systematic literature review. In doing so, it provides an evidence base of the status of scientific discussions on the field of research. Related aspects of community participation and tourism development are classified based on the review's findings, and discussed from four perspectives: the economic dimension, the environmental dimension, the socio-cultural dimension, and the organizational dimension. Finally, by outlining success factors and concluding implications for community participation and responsible tourism development these findings are summarized and synthesised.

3.1 Methodology: Systematic Literature Review

The aims of applying a systematic literature review to this study are threefold. Firstly, key scientific contributions in the field of research on community participation in tourism are identified (Hakala 2010: 5). Secondly, by critically appraising and synthesising existing literature in a specific research area a broad evidence base is provided that reaches beyond the application of narrative literature review methods or the analysis of a single study (Harden and Thomas 2005: 260). Thirdly, the findings of this review are characterized by a high degree of transparency owing to systematic traceability and the reduction of subjectivity (Hakala 2010: 5).

The study is divided into five stages and is characterized by a systematic narrowing down of the findings of the studies reviewed. Table 3 below shows these steps of analysis. The literature review starts with the identification and setting of its framework. Here scientific databases, key words, search strings and search inclusive criteria are set. The search is carried out in three scientific databases: Business Source Complete, EconLit and SpringerLink. While the latter does not generate relevant results, in total 82 articles are identified in the other databases. After a first reading of the articles' abstracts, they are evaluated regarding their relevance to the research field. Finally, the sample considered to be relevant at the end of Stage I comprises 53 unique articles.

Table 3: Steps of analysis with systematic literature review.

Stage of Literature Review	Steps of Analysis	Number of Articles
Stage I	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Identification of scientific databases: Business Source Complete, ECONLit, SpringerLink ▶ Identification of search key words: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) ‘Tourism’; (b) ‘Sustainable development’ or ‘responsible development’; (c) ‘Participation’ or ‘community participation’ ▶ Identification of search strings¹: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) (a) and (b); (2) (a) and (c); (3) (a) and (b) and (c) ▶ Application of inclusive criteria: search for keywords; including all search terms; search in abstract; scholarly (peer-reviewed) journals; academic journals; English language ▶ Review of abstracts and evaluation of relevance to the research field 	53 unique articles
Stage II	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Cursory reading of the articles taking notes on: (1) author(s); (2) publication title; (3) journal; (4) year; (5) relevance to the research question (yes/no) ▶ Evaluation of general contribution to the research field 	28 articles (relevant to the research field)
Stage III	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ In-depth review of the articles taking additional notes on: (6) relevant key words as set by the author(s); (7) main scientific focus; (8) geographic focus; (9) research question/objective of the study; (10) data type and methodology; (11) main results (relevant to research question); (12) main conclusions (relevant to research question) ▶ Quality assessment of the articles ▶ Evaluation of special contribution to the research question 	21 articles (with special focus on community participation in connection with responsible tourism development)
Stage IV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ In-depth review of the articles regarding the interrelation of community participation and dimensions of destinations (economic, environmental, socio-cultural, organisational) 	
Stage V	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Synthesis of findings 	

Source: Own elaboration, adapted from Hakala (2010: 19); Harden and Thomas (2005: 259).

¹ Every search string includes the term ‘tourism’ because the study highly focuses its attention on this economic sector. ‘Community participation or participation’ in the literatures being aligned with ‘sustainable development or responsible development’ these terms also are search words relevant to the field of research. However, database search including both keyword groups results in a large number of unspecified articles. Given this, there is no search conducted including solely these terms. Nevertheless, it is believed that the analysis of academic discussions within other sectors may have provided additional knowledge.

Based on a cursory reading of the articles, notes are taken on general aspects (author(s), publication title, year) in the second stage of review. Furthermore, it is recorded whether the study provides general contributions to the research field. As a result, 28 articles relevant for further analysis are identified.

In Stage III, the studies are reviewed in detail and notes are taken regarding scientific focus, applied methodology, main results, conclusions. After this a quality assessment addressing the validity and reliability of the research is carried out (Harden and Thomas 2005: 259). Hence, the final sample consists of 21 articles that make specific contributions to the research field and are reliable regarding their contents and research methods. Attached to this thesis Annex 1 gives an overview of the outcomes of the in-depth analysis carried out in Stage III.

The sample is analysed in Stage IV regarding two fields of interests. Firstly, findings regarding an approach to govern sustainable development (i.e. responsible development) and secondly, statements on different dimensions in connection with community participation in tourism are emphasized. The definition of these dimensions results from findings of Stage II and III of the review process. They include the economic, the environmental, the socio-cultural and the organisational dimension. In Stage V, findings are synthesised.

3.2 State of Scientific Research

In the studies reviewed a great deal of emphasis is put on developing and transformation countries. Twelve articles deal with case studies in developing countries (Booyens 2010; Caffyn and Jobbins 2003; Fauzi and Buchary 2002; Gang 2011; Jensen 2010; Kibicho 2008; Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Manyara and Jones 2007; Matarrita-Cascante et al. 2010; Murota and Glazyrina 2010; Pongponrat and Pongquan 2007; Sofield and Li 2011). However, with regard to community participation and tourism development the developed countries are of interest, too. They are considered in six articles (Choi and Murray 2010; Hung et al. 2010; Puhakka et al. 2009; Shone and Memon 2008; Tsartas 2003; Vera Rebollo and Baidal 2003). Three studies do not belong to any of these categories (Jayawardena 2002) or do not focus a geographic region (Payne and Dimanche 1996; Welford and Ytterhus 1998). Regarding interrelations of a region's development stage and its selection for case study investigations there is no definite statement to pose although they tend to focus more on transformation and developing countries.

The research designs applied for gathering primary data comprise qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods alike. Twelve studies employ qualitative methods, either solely or in

combination with quantitative techniques. There, the majority of researchers conduct expert interviews with key tourism stakeholders. Moreover, researchers apply participatory observations, field visits and focus group discussions. With regard to quantitative methods, questionnaire surveys are the technique chosen in most cases. While most methods aim to link statements of various stakeholders few authors focus on investigations of one single group of stakeholders. For instance, these include community members (Gang 2011) or local tour guides (Jensen 2010).

An application of qualitative methods is thus the dominating approach when investigating community participation in connection with tourism development. Nevertheless, the utilisation of quantitative methods is also a suitable instrument, particularly when causes and effects of tourism development are investigated in a larger geographical context.

It may be noteworthy that almost half of the relevant articles is published in the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Other identified journals are classified according their geographical context (*Asia-Pacific Journal of Rural Development*; *Coastal Management*; *Development in Southern Africa*; *European Environment*) and their socioeconomic orientation (*Environmental Economics and Policy Studies*; *Local Economy*; *Journal of Business Ethics*; *Journal of Travel Research*; *Social and Economic Studies*) respectively. The strong connection of the research field with issues of sustainable tourism development is not only reflected by the dominance of the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* as medium for publication but also by the main topics discussed in the articles.

Considering key words relevant to the field of research and additionally, the articles' main focus as investigated in this thesis it is evident that, at heart, the majority of studies deals with sustainable development, community-based processes, and issues of management and planning of tourism. They mainly investigate from a socioeconomic perspective. In addition to economic goals such as poverty alleviation and local value creation, investigation focus tourism impacts on the natural environment such as exploitation and degradation.

Based on a detailed analysis of the studies their results and conclusions are classified to four sub-segments (the dimensions: local economy, natural environment, culture and social interaction, organization of tourism) and one overall segment (sustainable tourism development). Figure 1 below illustrates this structure.

Cause-and-effect relations connect community participation in tourism with every dimension identified. Given this, elements in each dimension are affected by the degree of community participation. In addition, these aspects influence on the involvement of local communities.

Here, the dimensions are interrelated and embedded in a spatial context: the destination. Again, cause-and-effect relations connect the destination (i.e. the framework that consist of interrelated dimensions) with sustainable tourism development. Consequently, the literature review showed that community participation in tourism is associated with the specific elements of a destination. Contrary, responsible tourism development refers to the entire destination rather than to single elements.

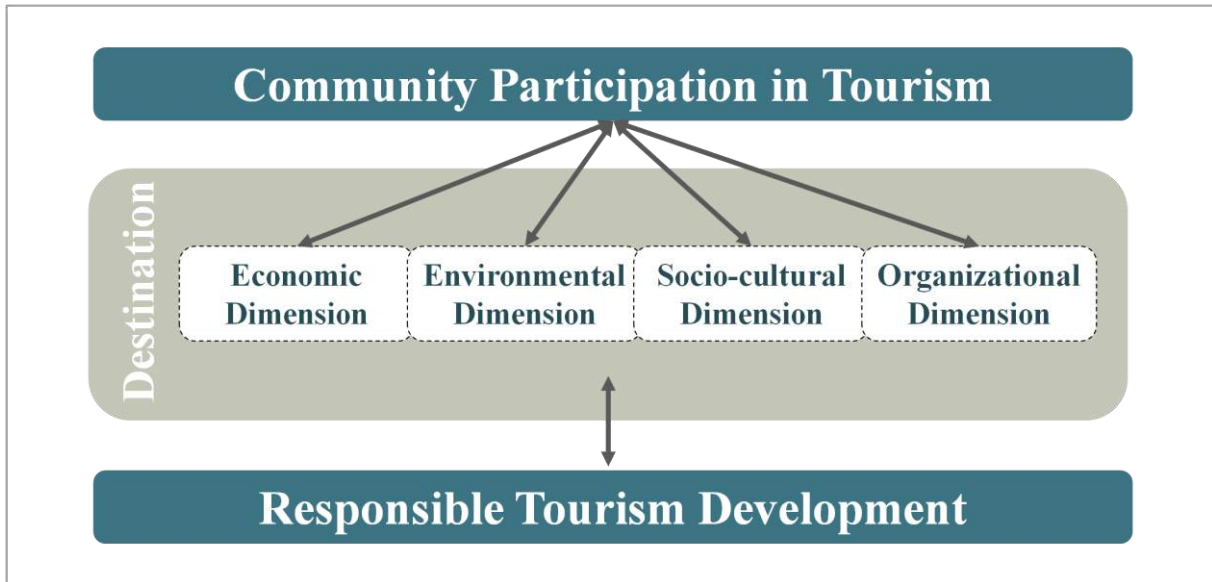


Figure 1: *Interrelations of community participation and responsible tourism development.*
Source: Own illustration, based on findings of the systematic literature review.

Sections 3.2.1 to 3.2.4 are detailed descriptions of these interrelations. They consider objectives, conditions, benefits and costs, drivers and barriers, and implications in the context of the four dimensions of a destination.

3.2.1 Economic Dimension

The first destination dimension deals with the development of local economies resulting from community participation in tourism. As previously mentioned, investigations on tourism as an economic sector, particularly in case studies placed in developing countries, aim at alleviating poverty and diversifying local economies.

Objectives

The enhancement of (economic) well-being of communities, and particularly long-term poverty reduction in developing countries are described as purposed objectives of involving communities in tourism development processes. There are various economic benefits that have the ability to contribute to poverty alleviation in short time spans. Thus, the challenge is transferring them into long-term benefits to enable sustainable community development.

Conditions

Main economic contributions of the tourism industry to the local community are identified in the generation of income and employment (e.g., Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Puhakka et al. 2009; Shone and Memon 2008). Strong linkages to other sectors such as agriculture, traditional arts, transport, and logistics characterize tourism industry itself. A growing tourism industry in diversified economies therefore potentially benefits greater communities by ‘trickle-down’ effects and multiplication of revenue.

Nevertheless, the industry is characterised by a number of inherent features that create barriers for broad involvement. These include high investment costs in the establishment of new tourism facilities, knowledge and capital intensity, or power and control of multinational tourism companies like tour operators and hotel chains (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 736 ff.).

Benefits and Costs

According to Pongponrat and Pongquan (2010: 37), benefits such as the generation of income, the creation of employment opportunities, group strengthening, and the creation of investment input are the most important tourism impacts on the local economy. In addition, other authors mention tax revenue, a diversification of local economies through development of tourism-related industries (e.g., agriculture, handicraft), equitable share of benefits throughout communities, access to financial resources and loans, the upgrading of management skills, local entrepreneurship and local enterprise development, small business development and retention as important advantages from community participation in tourism (Fauzi and Buchary 2010; Gang 2011; Jayawardena 2002; Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Matarrita-Cascante et al. 2010).

On the contrary, there is a variety of potential negative impacts on local societies including amongst others limited benefits for the poor due to dominance of multinational companies or a decreased resilience in destinations owing to the displacement of other economic sectors.

In this light, Tsartas (2003) describes negative tourism impacts in mature destinations: coastal and insular mass tourism destinations in Greece are highly dominated by tourism industry. This dominance caused a change in productive structures in these areas. There was a degradation of agriculture and today many other economic sectors are substantially dependent on tourism. This leads to decreases of destinations’ resilience to external influences and the decline of self-reliance. In addition, along with a strong growth of multi-employment and black economy the employment structures in the study sites have changed. Local residents did

no longer have one profession or job but got additionally involved in tourism businesses due to potential quick profits. Consequently, the dominance of tourism industry in the investigated destinations and the one-sided specialisation resulted in quality losses of tourism goods and services because many unskilled workers entered the market whilst a barrier arose for mutual management and marketing efforts due to increases in black markets (Tsartas 2003).

Nevertheless, employment and income are considered the key economic contributions to local communities (e.g., Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Puhakka et al. 2009; Shone and Memon 2008). There, the effects of tourism-generated income are twofold. Firstly, it contributes to employees and their households directly. From this perspective, income is not only to be seen as a short-term contribution, but as a means for long-term poverty reduction because it enables livelihood diversification, education and local entrepreneurship (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 735). Secondly, tourism-generated income benefits the greater community indirectly given that there is a flow of money from the household level to the community, and through taxes (Ibid.).

Drivers and Barriers

Economic empowerment (of individuals and of the greater community) is considered an important success indicator when measuring community participation in tourism development processes. However, economic empowerment of the greater community by a flow of income is a coin with two sides. On the one hand, Lepper and Schroenn Goebel (2010: 735) mention that broad-based economic empowerment by involvement of community members in tourism industry requires a spread of benefits from the community to the household level. On the other hand, authors like Hung et al. (2009: 279) mention a potentially growing reluctance to participate if revenues from tourism are going to the entire community rather than to individuals themselves. This implies that the absence of personally relevant benefits results in a loss of motivation for being involved in tourism activities. Therefore, to understand and balance the economic impacts on individuals and the greater community alike based on transparency and collaboration are tasks to drive local economic development. To do so, Lepper and Schroenn Goebel (2010) suggest the establishment of strong linkages of tourism industry with local and domestic economy in order to transmit economic benefits to local communities.

Implications

In order to maximize positive impacts and make use of them whilst minimizing negative influences different strategies are suggested within the literatures analysed. Various researchers

focus income and employment generation through broad-based involvement of communities in economic processes, and encouragement of local entrepreneurship and local ownership.

For instance, Jayawardena (2002) who distinguishes communities based on their (economic) involvement into four sub-segments (see Section 2.4) argues that those communities who are indirectly involved but benefiting from tourism industry, particularly must be considered when intending to spread benefits throughout local citizen levels. The author underlines the need for a holistic approach to servicing the industry and highlights the importance of the creation of linkages between tourism and local purchasing, of the encouragement for an increasing supply of local agricultural produce to tourism, and of the support for local handicrafts and arts (Ibid.).

By the establishment and maintenance of diversified economic structures within destinations earnings from tourism can ‘trickle down’ into the greater community. Given this, there is an important amount of „financial benefits that derive from economic dynamism and that materialise in local revenues“ (Vera Rebollo and Baidal 2003: 201). For this reason, effective supply chain management within destinations and the encouragement of local value creation are described as important means to steer tourism development and the development of local economies (e.g., Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 737; Sofield and Li 2011: 529; Welford and Ytterhus 1998: 200). In addition, according to Booyens (2010: 284), to require outsiders to obtain permits when operating in the community is an avenue to prevent tourism earnings from flowing past of local economies.

In diversified economies that are based on local involvement, institutions like local authorities and private sector associations need to emphasize on “local capacity-building, to ensure that community members are equipped to take up enterprise opportunities and higher-level jobs” (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 737), and to guarantee quality tourism products. Hence, they are required to assist with technical and industry expertise (Jayawardena 2002: 15ff).

The encouragement of local entrepreneurship and local ownership, and the establishment of community-based enterprises are facilitators for community control and development considered by various authors (e.g., Kibicho 2008; Manyara and Jones 2007; Pongponrat and Pongquan 2007). This approach helps addressing common problems such as an inequitable share of benefits, limited access to resources or ineffective utilisation of them, poverty and unemployment. However, it may also result in a decline of community participation in planning tourism development due to huge personal efforts necessary for maintaining one’s own business (Matarrita-Cascante et al. 2010).

Local employment, which is one of the key economic contributions from tourism tends to take place mainly in low level positions. Therefore, Payne and Dimanche (1996: 1000) suggest the establishment of regulatory frameworks by government and local authorities to ensure a provision of training and education opportunities to local community members for attaining higher level positions in tourism businesses. Lepper and Schroenn Goebel (2010: 737) also identify the encouragement of local residents working in high level positions as an opportunity to prevent tourism earnings from leaking out of destinations to national or international economies.

Finally, tourism stakeholders need to ensure inclusiveness, competitiveness, and quality of tourism products (Manyara and Jones 2008: 638). Here, reinvestment and maintenance of infrastructures have to go aligned with tourism development and community interests (Ibid.). Moreover, challenges such as the lack of tourism and management skills, poor partnerships, and limited access to financial and human resources need to be faced by involved stakeholders. A diversification of tourism products based on consumer-oriented product development and creative innovations (Booyens 2010: 285) that suit local conditions (Gang 2011: 130) is identified as an avenue of strengthening destinations' success.

3.2.2 Environmental Dimension

The second dimension of the field of research deals with the development of the natural environment and its interrelation with community participation in tourism. With regard to ecological aspects of tourism development, the natural environment is both source and outcome of tourism activities.

In general, discussions on sustainability tend to strongly emphasize on 'green issues', which results in a call for a shift of the sustainable paradigm to a more holistic approach (Caffyn and Jobbins 2003; Welford and Ytterhus 1998). However, with respect to the findings of the literature review, environmental issues are rarely discussed in the contexts of community participation and tourism development although they play a key part in discussions on sustainability in general.

Objectives

From an environmental perspective, involving local communities in tourism development processes aims, above all, to preserve the diversity of natural environment. Here, the environment is considered both, a habitat of people, animals and plants and a source of

tourism. Therefore, raising awareness among communities, public and private sectors, and tourists is purposed.

Conditions

Relations of local tourism development und natural environment are reciprocal. While an intact and scenic environment benefits tourists' attraction to a place and thus its tourism growth, development of tourism infrastructure often leads to environmental exploitation. In the environmental dimension the integration of community representatives can help balance this reciprocal relationship.

Benefits and Costs

The development of tourism, particularly the development of mass tourism, is a major source of environmental degradation in tourism destinations(e.g., Kibicho 2008; Tsartas 2003; Vera Rebollo and Baidal 2003). It potentially goes along with overcrowding, pollution and land-use conflicts (Ibid.).

On the contrary, tourism is an avenue to contribute positively to the development of natural environment at a local level. Pongonrat und Pongquan (2010: 37) point out that community involvement in different planning phases leads to highly increased management skills in resource utilisation and to enhanced preservation of nature. Accordingly, tourism development can change the locals' perception. For instance, Matarrita-Cascante et al. (2010) investigated a shift in community members' attitudes towards the natural environment from utilitarian to appreciative which "resulted from tourists who came to the area attracted by the large natural wealth present in the region and learning from those visitors how special their area is" (Ibid.: 749).

Kibicho (2008: 227) underlines this relationship of tourism development, community involvement and natural environment in stating „small scale community-based tourism projects can empower local communities [...] by giving them a sense of pride in and awareness of the importance of their natural resources and control over their development“. Thus community participation can create the opportunity to counterbalance mass tourism impacts.

Drivers and Barriers

Like tangible benefits from economic activities are of importance for community members' motivation to take part in the tourism industry, positive impacts from the sustainable use of natural resources are key to the preservation of natural (tourism) assets. The absence of sig-

nificant benefits “presents a threat to both conservation and tourism” (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 737).

With regard to developing and transformational countries there are specific challenges for environmental sustainability. According to Sofield and Li (2011: 528), cultural gaps between international and local traditional value systems represent barriers for conservation. In their study site China local economic development was highly prioritised over environmental sustainability in planning and managing tourism growth. Contrary to these investigations, Murota and Glazyrina (2010: 50) discovered inherent religious and cultural traditions in Russia as primary motivation for the local community to participate in tourism processes preserving the natural environment. Therefore, it is evident that local context needs to be considered.

Fauzi and Buchary (2002) investigate environmental degradation from a socioeconomic perspective in their study. They focus their scientific interests on the interrelation of social and ecological issues resulting from community participation in tourism development. According to Fauzi and Buchary (Ibid.) the rationale for environmental degradation is twofold. Firstly, social factors such as the absence of locals’ participation and effective communication systems result in “a lack of appreciation and ignorance of the value” (Fauzi and Buchary 2002: 177) of the natural environment. Secondly, economic factors pave the way to overexploitation of resources. Due to a lack of alternative employment opportunities particularly in rural and peripheral areas illegal or destructive fishing and hunting practices are the last resort for income (Ibid.). By addressing poverty, improving the level of formal education, and thus creating benefits, opportunities for enhanced environmental conservation arise (Ibid.).

Implications

With regard to the previously mentioned social rationale for environmental degradation different organizational strategies are suggested. According to the Fauzi and Buchary (2002), the formulation of regulations by public sector in cooperation with private stakeholder, for instance regarding the limitation of commercial utilisation of natural resources, and the enforcement of conservation laws could help avoid environmental exploitation (Ibid.: 179).

According to Sofield and Li (2008: 528) information and education among government representatives, private sector and local communities are needed to increase awareness and understanding of preserving natural environments. Moreover, the development of effective communication systems involving all stakeholders in the destination, and the establishment of ways to communicate with other communities to learn from other their success stories are

measures that are brought up to face challenges of the above mentioned social factors (Fauzi and Buchary 2002: 179).

Economic empowerment, the provision of alternative income opportunities, and balancing of benefits for individuals and entire communities are ways identified to face environmental challenges (Fauzi and Buchary 2002: 175; Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 737). Accordingly, community participation must focus consensus building on development objectives and active involvement in decision making at a local level (Ibid.). Further the encouragement of local ownership and the establishment of small scale tourism projects based in the community (see also Section 3.2.1) are suggested for promoting environmental conservation (Fauzi and Buchary 2002: 175; Kibicho 2008: 227).

3.2.3 Socio-cultural Dimension

The third dimension investigated addresses socio-cultural development in connection with community participation in tourism. Since tourism is an industry based on experiences and interactions between hosts and visitors social aspects are of importance. Therefore, several surveys pay special attention to socio-cultural aspects as drivers of and results from tourism development (e.g., Choi and Murray 2010; Hung et al. 2010; Jensen 2010; Puhakka et al. 2009; Tsartas 2003).

Objectives

In addition to the natural environment, the diversity of culture and society is a primary resource of tourism (Welford and Ytterhus 1998: 195). Given this, cultural diversity manifests itself in local ‘identity’ and ‘authenticity’, which are two key phrases in today’s tourism marketing discussions. On the contrary, staging culture for tourism purposes and the dominant presence of visitors’ culture in many mature destinations potentially result in the loss of local identity (Ibid.).

Local communities are considered the most affected by tourism development (Choi and Murray 2010: 576). Consequently, from the socio-cultural perspective an involvement of local communities must aim to preserve local identity. At the same time, it is important to create awareness and understanding on both sites (i.e. hosts and guests) for differences of cultures and changes that may occur when remote or less developed areas are visited by international tourists.

Conditions

Payne and Dimanche (1996) stress the importance of social responsibility towards employees in tourism. According to the authors, to understand tourism impacts on local culture is crucial in a service industry that employs most of its staff from the community. “Employees who feel that tourism development has had negative impacts on their culture and social lives are not likely to provide the friendliness and service quality that tourists come to expect” (Ibid.: 1000). Negative perceptions of tourism development may lead to decreases in experience quality for visitors.

Host communities can be affected by a variety of influences such as the size of tourist groups visiting and local contextual variations linked to cultural and social characteristics of different stages in the destination life cycle (Jensen 2010: 615). Consequently, the relationship between hosts and guests also depends on different stages of social, economic and political development (Payne and Dimanche 1996: 1000). Aiming to overcome these barriers to development and to balance the variety of influences Jensen (2010) identifies local tour guides as key facilitators.

Benefits and Costs

Social benefits from participation in tourism are complex. They include amongst others awareness of a changing way of life, consciousness of community rights and roles, increased promotion and preservation of local tradition and culture, social approval, strengthening of social ties and relationships, contribution to freedoms resulting from relaxed travel restrictions, and empowerment of the community to protect their own interests by education, involvement and diminution of power disparities (Jayawardena 2002; Jensen 2010; Payne and Dimanche 1996; Pongponrat and Pongquan 2007; Sofield and Li 2011). Given this, Pongponrat and Pongquan (2007: 34) consider social benefits to be the most important ones for local contribution to tourism development.

Nevertheless, various negative socio-cultural impacts are associated with local involvement in tourism development, too. For instance, these include marginalisation and enhanced elitism through communities’ elite groups as main stakeholders, acculturation, tourism harassment, crime and barriers to socio-cultural development due to dependence on external interventions (Jayawardena 2002; Manyara and Jones 2007; Puhakka et al. 2009; Welford and Ytterhus 1998).

With regard to mature tourism destinations in Greece and Spain, investigations show that tourism development causes social change (Tsartas 2003; Vera Rebollo and Baidal 2003). For

instance, this includes changing family structures through upgraded roles of women and the younger due to ‘touristification’ and alternative income opportunities (Tsartas 2003: 117), and a downgraded quality of life through health service shortage, increased traffic, and a loss of local identity caused by overcrowding (Vera Rebollo and Baidal 2003: 201).

Drivers and Barriers

Various researchers highlight the importance of community members’ motivation or willingness to participate in tourism as this is both potential catalyst and potential barrier (Hung et al. 2010; Jensen 2010; Choi and Murray 2010). Choi and Murray (2010: 575) point out that the support for tourism strongly depends on the perception of positive and negative impacts from tourism development. Hung et al. (2010: 284) underline this finding by stating “residents are more likely to support community tourism development when the perceived benefits outweigh the perceived costs”. Therefore, both the socio-cultural benefits and the costs must be considered when planning tourism development involving local communities.

The remoteness of communities, which is linked to their accessibility, the degree of social isolation, missing infrastructure and a low level of contact to contemporary society, is closely related to their willingness to establish social relationships with private sector representatives in order to gain welfare benefits from tourism (Jensen 2009: 625). Social ties play a vital role in understanding, encouraging and managing community development in connection with tourism growth. Consequently, “the emergence of trust-based relationships between people and organizations within an international tourism structure, not least within intercultural relationships, can outweigh some of the potential negative effects of asymmetric distribution of power and trigger win-win situations for actors involved” (Jensen 2009: 627).

Implications

In order to prevent developing tourism destinations from a loss of social and cultural identity Welford and Ytterhus (1998: 197) suggest public and private sectors, particularly tour operators, to identify from the beginning tourism destinations where there already is a strong local cohesion. This potentially enables communities to maintain their traditional norms and to direct sustainable tourism development.

Careful planning and spreading of benefits to increase common welfare is crucial because „tourism development might lead to a gap between those who are involved in tourism and those who are not“ (Puhakka et al. 2009: 543). Jayawardena (2002) also considers this aspect in examining a differentiation scheme of community members according to their tourism in-

volvement (see Section 2.4). No or very little contribution of tourism benefits to single segments of the community tends to result in reluctance and hostility (Jayawardena 2002: 16). Therefore, the community's sensitivity to the industry must be evaluated carefully.

From the socio-cultural perspective, local tour guides are key agents for participation. On the one hand, they can enhance understanding and prevent cultural clashes by educating tourists on appropriate behaviour and cultural norms. On the other hand, it is their responsibility to build strong social relationships with host communities based on personal trust and familiarity. In doing so, an enrichment of mutual experiences, enhanced involvement and local sustainable development are supported (Jensen 2010: 165).

To face the challenges of conflicts between local culture and tourism development Payne and Dimanche (1996: 1004) suggest to establish code of conducts based on the values of justice, integrity, competence and utility. Here, each economic sector committing to its own code of conduct as part of a larger framework could be a tool for sustainable development of the tourism industry (Ibid.).

Since the diversity of social and cultural life is a basic source of tourism, Welford and Ytterhus (1998) suggest the promotion of forms of tourism that are actively integrating tourists. From their point of view, by being an integral part of the destination tourists add to its diversity and uniqueness rather than just consuming it (Ibid.: 200). In addition to local tour guides, particularly NGOs are addressed to fill this gap of lacking interaction between hosts and visitors, for instance by offering tourism products such as field trips and volunteer work in communities (Booyens 2010: 285).

3.2.4 Organizational Dimension

The fourth dimension investigated addresses organizational transformation in the context of community participation and tourism development. It comprises all aspects that address the governance, institutionalised organization, and management of tourism and thus considers aspects at different stakeholder levels.

Objectives

Institutionalised organization of tourism development purposes to accomplish local sustenance in tourism development and to enable appropriate collaborative management of common pool resources.

Conditions

Power distribution builds the framework and guiding rationale for the organizational dimension of community participation in connection with tourism development. Moreover, as outlined in Section 2.4 power relations is the major distinguishing element in the classification of community participation. Among the main stakeholders in tourism (public sector, private sector, NGOs and communities) there are different constellations of power and control. They relate to the degree of centralisation of government structures, economic strength of private national actors as well as of multinational tourism companies, and to the inequalities within communities such as those between elite groups and marginalised groups.

Various authors highlight that the involvement of the local community and therefore, perceived barriers, impacts and conditions highly depend on the nature or type of tourism (Booyens 2010; Jayawardena 2002; Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Puhakka et al. 2009; Shone and Memon 2008; Tsartas 2003; Vera Rebollo 2003; Welford and Ytterhus 1998). They call for alternative forms of tourism such as ecotourism, CBT and agrotourism to face the challenges of negative impacts from mass tourism. Jayawardena (2002: 21) underlines this by stating alternative forms of tourism play a key part in the shift from mass tourism to a more community-oriented approach. On the contrary, Sofield and Li (2011) consider mass tourism and direct central government involvement as suitable agents for economic benefits and sustainable tourism development at a macro level.

Benefits and Costs

The organizational dimension of community participation in tourism is closely linked to institutional aspects. In this light the institutionalisation of processes and networks represent the main benefits. Other benefits entail improvement of skills in management and planning, capacity building, the definition of clear roles and responsibilities of stakeholders, more equitable power distributions and consensus building (Pongponrat and Pongquan 2007: 37).

Kibicho (2008: 2009) points out that tourism projects which are based in the local community may help avoiding stakeholder conflicts by established mechanisms to the coordination of policies and related actions. The utilisation of synergy effects for increased knowledge, insights and capabilities, respectively, are additional advantages of CBT projects. Nevertheless, the challenge of taking these advantages has to be faced because in reality they are hindered by power disparities and limited access to resources for local communities (Ibid.).

Drivers and Barriers

Tourism Development and the level of community participation in the sector depend on various aspects. In particular, power disparities between local communities, centralised governments, and dominating tourism companies lead to a lack of opportunities for communities to actively participate and to represent their interests (Hung et al. 2008; Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Shone and Memon 2008; Tsartas 2003).

In addition to power disparities, main barriers for sustainable development and participatory governance arise from the industry's afore-mentioned inherent features. The resulting financial and organizational barriers at a micro level thus minimise opportunities for locals to get involved in tourism activities (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 736 ff.). Organizational efforts may help to diminish those barriers of involvement and development alike.

Other obstacles for development to mention are a lack of knowledge, access to information and resources within communities. They might be removed or diminished by open communication and interaction which go in line with the emergence of collaborative organizations involving local governments, private sector, NGOs and both long-term residents and newcomers (Matarrita-Cascante et al. 2010: 739).

Puhakka et al. (2009) investigate the degree of community participation in nature-based tourism aligned with certification mechanisms. This approach of institutionalising management practices contributes to the involvement of communities in positive ways by creating networks, and supporting businesses in marketing efforts for example. However, potential barriers for local development are identified in interest conflicts caused by the introduction of internationally defined values and restrictions on traditional rights of local community members (Puhakka et al. 2009: 543). Therefore holistic approaches and balanced institutional efforts based on participation, transparency, open communication and active learning processes are suggested (Ibid.).

Implications

In pursuing sustainable development goals by balancing power relations in a more equitable way, various authors pose the question of governance. Accordingly, a shift of policy practices towards a more local political paradigm is needed in many developing and transformation countries. According to Hung et al. (2010: 280), top-down governance approaches lack of opportunities for local communities to participate in the tourism development process. Tsartas (2003: 126) mentions that this shift and the resulting decentralisation and fragmentation of competencies lead to enhanced tourism development opportunities at a local level. This refers

to the allowance “for the direct involvement of representatives of local interests in decision-making processes” (Ibid.).

In addition, Shone and Memon (2008) underline that a more decentralised bottom-up approach, as it is practiced in New Zealand under the paradigm of the “New Regionalism”, is a more sufficient means for tourism to promote regional transformation. Following the principles of integration, collaboration and cooperation the establishment of regional-level networks is addressed by this approach (Ibid.).

Matarrita-Cascante et al. (2010: 748) call for the establishment of community-based productive, financial and commercial organizations to potentially establish a broad institutional and economic basis in the community. Such organizations thus act as representatives of local interests and describe effective counterparts to powerful private sector organizations and local authorities.

Therefore, regional and local tourism authorities must enhance awareness and knowledge of tourism development by introducing mechanisms promoting community participation locally (Hung et al. 2010: 285). Moreover, to facilitate collaborative development it is public sector’s responsibility to establish adequate regulatory frameworks (Booyens 2010: 283).

Nevertheless, external intervention from public or private sectors is the most important driving force for the establishment of such community-based organizations. In doing so, external partners can assist in resource mobilization, proposal writing, awareness creation, funding, capacity building and so on (Manyara and Jones 2007: 638). With regard to community-based organizations the main barrier for a successful establishment is identified in their low efficacy (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010; Manyara and Jones 2007). Therefore, a review of management structures and financial management capacity (Lepper and Schroenn Goebel 2010: 737) as well as the definition of clear exit strategies for external intervention (Manyara and Jones 2007: 641) are suggested.

Finally, institutional changes and innovations are crucially important for tourism-driven change in many developing destinations. Their success in terms of achieving sustainable objectives relies on the nature of tourism, long-term justification, the establishment of transparent communication systems and open dialogue, the existence of adequate capacities at of governmental, private sector and community levels, and ongoing adjustment through monitoring and evaluation of development processes and objectives.

3.3 Summary: Theoretical Understanding of Development and Participation in Tourism

This section synthesizes the economic, environmental, socio-cultural, and organizational aspects of the research field and investigates overall interrelations between community participation and responsible tourism development based on the previous findings.

3.3.1 Overall Objectives

The overall aims of an involvement of locals are development in a sustainable way and tourism-driven change (Matarrita-Cascante et al. 2010: 748). Generally speaking, success indicators for tourism projects are high occupancy rates, high visitor numbers and revenue generation. With regard to community participation and sustainable tourism development the improvement of community development priorities needs to be added to this list. These priorities comprise next to the access to basic amenities such as education, clean water and health services infrastructure development and the diversification of livelihoods (Manyara and Jones 2007: 638). Hence, they address all of afore-mentioned dimensions of development.

By stating “while structural elements including infrastructure and economic resources are essential elements for any tourism development project, interactional resources are key to attaining sustainable development goals” Matarrita-Cascante et al. (2010: 751) underline these interdependencies of sustainable tourism development with aspects of economic, environmental, socio-cultural, and organizational development. Considering all of them is thus a key prerequisite for the achievement of responsible tourism development goals.

3.3.2 Success Indicators

Based on a synthesis of benefits, costs, drivers and barriers inherent to the four dimensions of development success indicators of community involvement in the context of responsible tourism development are outlined. These indicators comprise economic empowerment, environmental awareness, social cohesion and organizational efficacy, which is displayed in Figure 2.

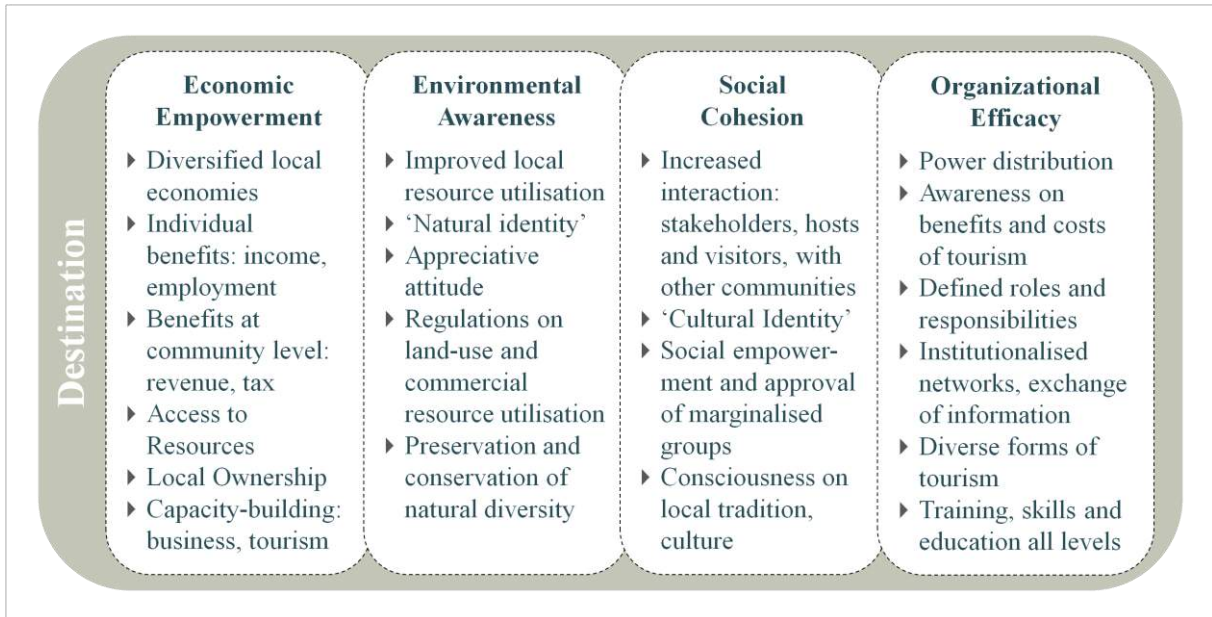


Figure 2: Success indicators of community participation in tourism.

Source: Own illustration, based on findings of the systematic literature review.

From an economic point of view, local empowerment is defined by shared benefits on individual and community levels. They include tangible or monetary ones such as income, employment and revenue. Moreover, there are intangible benefits due to local economic diversification, enhancement of capacities, skills, and access to resources, and community ownership, which help to take the hurdles of community involvement. These benefits result in increased resilience of destinations to external influence variables.

Regarding the environmental dimension awareness of natural resources is identified the key success indicator, because according to the review findings it is a prerequisite for their conservation, responsible utilisation and appreciation of these resources.

In addition, awareness and appreciation of local culture and social life are elements of success from a socio-cultural perspective. Social empowerment and interaction are further fundamentals for social cohesion, which is identified to be the key success factor in this dimension.

Organizational efficacy that is characterized by appropriate and equitable power distributions, strong networks, open dialogue and cooperation plays a vital part in achieving sustainable development goals by integrating communities, too.

Nevertheless, every indicator must be considered as only one element of an interdependent bundle.

3.3.3 Concluding Implications

In synthesising findings of all previously mentioned investigations an implication model is developed that refers to the destination's stage of tourism development. The implications for efforts towards participation and the sustainable development of tourism that are illustrated in Table 4 are divided into three groups:

- (1) Implications to be considered at all stages of tourism development: Measures that have to be addressed to pave the way for participatory and responsible direction from the beginning, and to maintain or encourage sustainable achievements at later stages.
- (2) Implications that are of particular importance at an early stage of tourism development: Measures that are aiming at the establishment of a basic framework to allow successful involvement of community members.
- (3) Implications that are of particular importance at a more developed stage of tourism: Measures that only can be addressed after some requirements are met, or that rely on backward perceptions and situations of tourism development.

By establishing this classification, key issues and interrelations of the scientific discussion on community participation in connection with responsible tourism development are highlighted.

Table 4: Implications of community participation and responsible tourism development.

(1) Implications to be considered at all stages of tourism development

- ▶ Introduction of mechanisms and regulatory frameworks that promote community participation at varied levels or intensities.
- ▶ Establishment and institutionalisation of stakeholder networks.
- ▶ Promotion of capacity building at all stakeholder levels.
- ▶ Prioritisation of community-based enterprises and organizations to address common problems and to balance power disparities. Prerequisite: Appropriate capacities in terms of management skills, financial and human resources are in place or likely to be achieved.
- ▶ Taking intrinsic values of participatory sustainable development at all planning levels into account: long-term justification, transparency, open dialogue, reliability.
- ▶ Educating for environmental issues at all stakeholder levels.
- ▶ Introduction and enforcement of conservation laws, land-use zoning, and regulations on commercial utilisation of natural resources.
- ▶ Educating tourists on local culture, social norms and appropriate behaviour.
- ▶ Institutionalising mechanisms for evaluation/monitoring of tourism activities and their efficacy.

(2) Implications that are of particular importance at an early stage of tourism development

- ▶ Investigating a destination's inherent characteristics (traditional, cultural, political, environmental) to develop measures that fit local conditions.

- ▶ Mobilization for external intervention for technical and financial support whilst defining clear exit strategies.

- ▶ Encouragement of local value creation and high multiplier effects by effective supply chain management, capacity building in tourism and related sectors, training, education, and the creation of linkages at a local level.

- ▶ Establishment of decision-making mechanisms that involve representatives of all affected groups and that is based on consensus building.

- ▶ Establishment of effective communication and information systems.

- ▶ Prioritisation of tourism destinations characterized by strong social cohesion and creation of relationships based on social trust in product development processes.

- ▶ Development of tourism goods and services that are actively involving tourists and encouraging social interaction.

(3) Implications that are of particular importance at a more developed stage of tourism

- ▶ Balancing the costs and benefits of tourism development (economic, socio-cultural, environmental, organizational) between individual and greater community levels.

- ▶ Creation of linkages of tourism with local and national economy.

- ▶ Introduction of education and training programmes to create opportunities for employment at higher levels and to encourage local entrepreneurship.

- ▶ Establishment of codes of conducts for all private tourism sector segments.

- ▶ Balancing of power disparities by decentralised organization of tourism and fragmentation of duties and responsibilities.

- ▶ Making special efforts to involve marginalised community members to empower them against community elites.

Source: Own elaboration, based on findings of the systematic literature review.

Accordingly, not only quantity but also quality and diversity of positive contributions to the community are essential. For instance, in addressing employment, which is one of the key economic benefits Scheyvens (2002: 8) argues that “if job creation transforms a community of self-reliant farmers and traders into a community of employees reliant on a resort for menial, seasonal jobs as cleaners and service personnel, it would be difficult to argue that ‘good change’ had occurred”. Accordingly, intended transformation measures have to be balanced, to suit local conditions, to be based on consensus, open dialogue and transparency, and to lead to empowerment and self-reliance of local communities.

Nevertheless, the question remains of whether community participation can lead to tourism-driven change. As discussed in this chapter many potentially positive contributions are associated with tourism involvement and may lead to general community development. The potential risks from developing tourism, in particular on cultural and natural identity, and barriers like the much discussed power disparities among stakeholders however are serious threats.

One important finding that is evident from the discussion above is that neither one single stakeholder nor one single industry within a destination has the ability to drive change in a sustainable way on its own. Cooperation, capacity building at different levels, information, and strong linkages are key requirements for this to happen.

Finally, because “tourism’s impacts vary greatly according where it is taking place, who is in control [...] and which of its many stakeholders have any meaningful participation in the way it is implemented” (Brown and Hall 2008: 848), measures and implications cannot be generalized in terms of a ‘one model fits all’ solution. Local contexts in the areas of history, politics, socioeconomics, and tourism development are crucially important when investigating the interrelations of community participation in tourism and transformation processes.

The following Chapter 4 will thus introduce the case study site Myanmar by a country profile and a discussion on the country’s tourism development.

4 Myanmar: A Destination in Transformation

Having established the theoretical background of responsible tourism, community participation and transformation, this chapter will continue with an introduction of the empirical framework of the present investigation. The focus of the empirical analysis is on current developments in the Republic of the Union of Myanmar (hereafter: Myanmar).

After decades of military rule, Myanmar is now paving a way to transformation and democracy through a process of opening up both politically and economically. The transformation process involves a set of reforms that have been introduced by the civilian government since 2011. In response to recent developments, there is an enormous interest in the formerly isolated country. This includes a broad range of interest groups such as governmental and non-governmental organizations, international investors and tourists. However, Myanmar is still considered one of the world's least developed countries and poverty remains a serious issue.

With regard to tourism, the country's opening implies that a virgin, largely unexplored destination opens its borders to the world. Huge increases in international tourist arrivals are expected in the upcoming years. The government of Myanmar started to face these developments early, aiming at responsible tourism practices as the framework for future tourism development.

Prior to discussing these efforts towards sustainable development in tourism, Section 4.1 provides a country profile of Myanmar, including geographical, historical and socioeconomic aspects. Section 4.2 provides a discussion of Myanmar's tourism industry, its history and the current status of demand and supply, as well as a brief outlook on future developments. The chapter concludes with a description of a framework for the empirical analysis of tourism stakeholders' perceptions of and attitudes towards responsible tourism and community participation in Myanmar.²

4.1 A Country Profile of Myanmar

Myanmar is currently recovering from five decades of international isolation. In 2010 a civilian government led by Prime Minister Thein Sein deposed the military regime. Since

² It should be noted that this chapter can only give a summary of the most important facts and issues of Myanmar. There are very detailed sources available for further reading. See ADB (2012b) on Myanmar's economic development; Bertelsmann Foundation (2012) on features of Myanmar's transition process; UNDP (2011) on the country's poverty and social development issues, and MoHT (2012b) on responsible tourism development in Myanmar.

then, a range of political and economic reforms have been implemented and a “second wave of reforms” was announced in July 2012 (The New York Times 2012). As a result, the country’s current development is highly dynamic. The aim of the following country profile is to provide information about Myanmar from a geographical, historical and socioeconomic perspective. Table 5 gives a general overview of economic and development indicators of Myanmar.

Table 5: Selected indicators of Myanmar’s development in 2010.

Category	Expression(s)
Development Indicators	
Population	60.6 millions
Annual population growth rate	1.3% (2009-2011)
Adult literacy rate	92.0%
Population in urban areas	33.9%
Forest area	31.8 million hectares
Population living below national poverty line	25.6%
Under-5 mortality rate per 1,000 live births	66
Life expectancy at birth	62.1 years
Population with access to clean water (%)	69.4%
Population with access to sanitation (%)	79.0%
Population with access to electricity (%)	48.8%
Economic Indicators	
GDP (\$ billions)	51.9
GDP growth (%)	5.5%
Sector shares in GDP: Agriculture/industry/services	36% / 26% / 38%
Sector shares in labour market: Agriculture/industry/services	50% / 6% / 40%
Unemployment rate	1.7%
Underemployment rate	37.5%

Source: Own summary, adapted from ADB (2011); ADB (2012b); UNDP (2011).

Some of the development indicators mentioned in the above table have improved in recent years (ADB 2012b; UNDP 2011). The levels of poverty and of inequality between the rich and the poor have decreased between 2005 and 2010. Nevertheless, Myanmar’s development

still lags behind that of its peer countries, the member states of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). A detailed overview of the country is provided in the following sections.

4.1.1 Geography

Myanmar is located in Southeast Asia (see Figure 3). Covering an area of 676,577 sq. km, it is the second largest country in the region. The territory stretches over 936 kilometres from east to west and 2,051 kilometres from north to south (CSO 2012). The country has a population of 60.6 million (ADB 2011: 2).

Myanmar borders on five countries (China, Laos, Thailand, Bangladesh and India), the Andaman Sea and the Bay of Bengal and, has a link to the Himalayan Range in the Western Hills region (CSO 2012). The country has a tropical climate with three distinct seasons: monsoon season (June to October), cool dry season (November to February) and hot season (March to May) (MoHT 2012a).

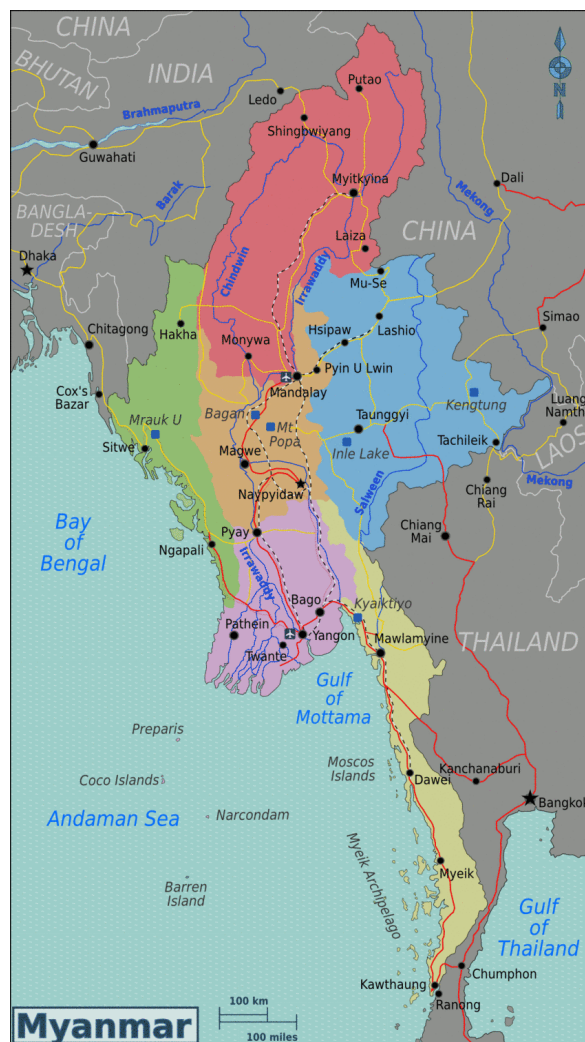


Figure 3: Map of Myanmar.
Source: World of Maps (2011).

Myanmar is considered to have the richest ethnic diversity in Asia, with more than 130 different ethnic groups living in the country (Ekeh and Smith 2007: 1). “Such diversity is attributed to the country’s geographic location on a strategic crossroads, where historically it had acted as a buffer between the neighbouring powers of India, China and Thailand” (Ibid.). The Burmese are by far the largest ethnic group. Minority groups include Shan (9% of the population), Karen (7%). Mon, Rakhine, Chin, Kachin, Karenni, Kayan, Chinese, Indian, Danu, Akha, Kokang, Lahu, Naga, Palaung, Pao, Rohyinga, Tavoyan and Wa each constitute 5% or less of the population (Ibid.).

Armed conflicts between ethnic minority groups and the military regime used to be a severe issue for the country. As well as starting transformation processes, “the government has signed cease-fire agreements with a handful of ethnic groups, but a comprehensive peace remains elusive” (The New York Times 2012).

Over 80% of Myanmar’s population are Theravada Buddhists, the remainder are Christians, Muslims, Hindus and animists (MoHT 2012: b).

4.1.2 History

In 1948 Burma gained independence from Britain and a parliamentary democracy was established. In 1962, after a short period of democracy, military leaders staged a coup against the government and took over power. From this point on, the country was ruled by a socialist-oriented military regime under General Ne Win. “Thereafter, a socialist planned economy and one-party rule by Ne Win’s Burma Socialist Program Party (BSPP) resulted in the resource-rich country becoming one of the world’s least-developed countries” (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012a: 3).

Due to severe economic problems and countrywide demonstrations, the ruling party collapsed in September 1988 (Ibid.), a new military junta, the State Law and Order Council (SLORC), took over power and Burma was renamed Republic of Myanmar. In 1990 the first elections in over 40 years were held. The opposition party, the National League for Democracy (NLD), won more than 80% of the parliamentary seats, but the military regime refused to acknowledge these elections and to hand over power (Human Rights Watch 2008). In 1989 Aung San Suu Kyi, the leader of the opposition and daughter of General Aung San, who was a key agent of 1948’s independence movement, was put under house arrest by the regime which, with brief interruptions, lasted until 2010 (GIZ 2008).

In 1997 SLORC was renamed State Peace and Development Council (SPDC). In November 2007 the SPDC relocated the administrative capital from Yangon to the newly-constructed

Nay Pyi Taw (“Royal Capital”), which is situated about 300 km north of Yangon (Human Rights Watch 2008). This led to a tentative opening (GIZ 2008). However, due to the regime’s refusal of democratization and its systematic human rights abuses, Western countries imposed sanctions, embargos and an economic boycott of the country (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012a: 4).

In 2007, in response to ongoing international criticism and what has been referred to as the Saffron Revolution, during which tens of thousands of monks, nuns and civilians took to the streets of Yangon, Sittwe, Pegu, Pakokku and Mandalay and were brutally dispersed by security forces, the SPDC announced a seven-point roadmap to “disciplined democracy” (Human Rights Watch 2008). In 2008 the new constitution was ratified. In November 2010 the military-backed Union Solidarity and Development Party (USDP) won the first elections in 20 years and Aung San Suu Kyi was released from house arrest (BBC 2012).

In March 2011 Thein Sein was sworn in as the president of the new civilian government (BBC 2012). Since then, a number of political and economic reforms have been implemented, hundreds of political prisoners (but not all of them) have been freed as part of a general amnesty, the government has sought political reconciliation with ethnic minority groups and the democracy movement and the control on news media has been relaxed (The New York Times 2012). In April 2012 by-elections were held, resulting in the NLD’s entering into parliament.

In June 2012 Thein Sein announced a second wave of reforms (The New York Times 2012). This launch of various political and economic reforms in Myanmar since 2011 is seen as the key prerequisite for the lifting of the economic sanctions against Myanmar (TDNA 2012a) and thus as a catalyst for its transformation.

Myanmar is now starting to recover from 50 years of international isolation. However, although some reforms have been implemented and the seven-point roadmap to “disciplined democracy” has been accomplished, Myanmar is not in a process of genuine transition (BTI 2012)³ and still ranks 127th of 128 transformation countries (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012a: 1). According to Suu Kyi (2012), investments and business activities in Myanmar, especially in the area of oil and gas, development should be pursued with care because the country still lacks accountability and openness (cited in TDNA 2012b).

³ BTI is a global assessment of transition processes, which includes evaluation of the state of democracy, the state of the market economy, and the quality of political management. The latest issue was published in March 2012. Since that time amongst others the government pronounced a second set of reforms, oppositional NLD members were elected into parliament, international currency exchange rates were liberalized, and several economic sanctions from EU and US were lifted. The country’s development is highly dynamic. Consequently, this assessment cannot be up to date.

With regard to the considerations in this section and according to the definition on transformation provided in Section 2.1 the country is in a process of transformation, because it does make efforts for modifying and reforming its existing political and economic system.

4.1.3 Socioeconomic Factors

Because of its rich natural resources, Myanmar was considered to be one of the economically most prosperous countries in Southeast Asia after its independence in 1948 (Von Hauff 2010: 43). However, socialist developments which started in the 1960s weakened the economic situation of the country. Although Myanmar has transformed into a more open market economy since the early 1990s, today it is one of the poorest countries in the region (Ibid.). Some 25% of the country's population live in poverty (UNDP 2011: xi). The negative economic developments and the country's decreased competitiveness are due not only to mismanagement by the military regime, but also to the international sanctions and boycotts (Von Hauff 2010: 43). More precisely, “[k]ey factors inhibiting Myanmar's growth rate in the last decades are low investment, limited integration with global markets, dominance of state-owned enterprises in key productive sectors of the economy, and frequent episodes of macroeconomic instability” (ADB 2012b: 3f.).

The ongoing political and economic opening has prompted various countries to lift international embargos and sanctions. The USA lifted embargos against Myanmar in July 2012 (TDNA 2012b) and, according to ADB (2011: 2), the prospects for economic development and growth are positive. But this optimistic outlook on Myanmar's political and economic performance is not shared by everyone. The BTI report emphasizes that Myanmar's economy continues to be under the strict control of the state, which restrains market-based competition and liberal development (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012a: 14f.). There are also a range of structural constraints to the country's transformation, such as high poverty rates throughout the country, poor infrastructural development, very low education levels, a small educated workforce and weak administrative capacity (Bertelsmann Foundation 2012a: 22).

With regard to poverty, the UNDP Poverty Profile for Myanmar (2011) concludes that the level of poverty is associated with geographical location. There are significant urban–rural as well as regional and divisional gaps, with 84% of the poor population living in rural areas (ADB 2012b: 7). Disadvantages for rural areas and several divisions particularly occur in terms of food poverty, access to productive assets (land, credits), access to key dimensions of well-being (drinking water, improved sanitation, electricity, access to health care) and quality of education (UNDP 2011). Although access to these amenities has slightly improved in

recent years, “the poor continue to benefit less from access than the rich, and urban areas benefit more than rural areas” (ADB 2012b: 8).

The vast majority of Myanmar’s population live in rural areas and therefore rely heavily on the agricultural sector for their livelihoods (Info Birmanie 2011: 4). More than 50% of the working population are employed in the agricultural sector, including hunting and forestry (UNDP 2011: xi). The low-end service sector (approx. 40%) and the manufacturing sector (6%) also provide employment in Myanmar (Ibid.). Surprisingly, as of 2010, Myanmar had an extremely low level of unemployment of about 1.7% (UNDP 2011: 56), yet 25% of the population are afflicted by poverty. This implies that in Myanmar “poverty has much more to do with low returns to work than with the absence of work” (UNDP 2011: 57).

However, according to ADB, prospects for Myanmar’s economic development are positive. The growth rates of Myanmar’s gross domestic product (GDP) are estimated to be about 6% in 2012 and 6.3% in 2013 and, provided that macroeconomic stability is maintained, the GDP may grow by 6–7% every year for an extended period of time (ADB 2012b: 1). Considering previous developments in Myanmar’s peer countries in the region (Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam), poverty may be reduced by about 50% within one decade (Ibid.).

The main strengths of the country are its inherent features of resource richness – in particular natural gas, water, forests, fisheries, petroleum oil and several minerals (ADB 2012b: 16) – and its strategic position between India and China. In order to achieve ‘good growth’, Myanmar must exploit the benefits of the recent shifts in the global economic order – namely, the growing power of emerging markets and the rise of Asia – by encouraging regional integration and socioeconomic resilience (ADB 2012b: 14). Paving the way for sustainable, environmentally friendly development and growth is imperative as well because the country’s exports, agriculture and tourism depend heavily on natural resources.

Myanmar’s tourism potential is considered to be one of its major strengths due to its environmental and cultural diversity, but this potential “remains highly underexploited” (ADB 2012b: 18). Moreover, after decades of isolation, tourists’ interest in the country is considered to be very high, so a “tourism boom can generate investment in transport, hotels, restaurants, arts and culture, and travel” (ADB 2012b: 31) and thus serve as a driver of national and community development.

4.2 Tourism in Myanmar

Travelling to Myanmar has been a double-edged sword. In the past, several human rights organizations called for tourism boycotts because the industry's development was largely dominated by the state and associated with severe human rights abuses.

In line with the government's efforts to open the country politically and economically and due to its long-lasting international isolation, the country is "set to be a hot new destination for independent travellers" (Lonely Planet 2012), ranking 2nd of the world's top destinations in 2012 (Ibid.). The following sections discuss current and future developments to provide a better understanding of the historical development of Myanmar's tourism industry.

4.2.1 Background: Tourism in the 'Pre-Opening Era'

In studying the development of tourism in Myanmar, one must consider the industry's dependence on political frameworks. Oo (2008: 16ff.) distinguishes between three stages that are associated with different political systems. Each of these stages involved various measures which hampered and promoted tourism development:

(1) Parliamentary period (1948–1962)

- ▶ Capitalist-oriented economy;
- ▶ Few private-sector companies (tour operators, hotels) are allowed to operate in different parts of the country;
- ▶ Visa validity: one month;
- ▶ Small number of international tourists.

(2) Socialist period (1962–1988)

- ▶ Socialist economy which aimed at safeguarding traditional values and customs;
- ▶ Nationalization of private tourism businesses;
- ▶ Visa validity: 24 hours;
- ▶ Obstacles to commercial success and quick shrinking of the tourism industry.

(3) Opening to the tourism market (since 1990)

- ▶ Efforts to expand the country's economic base and to encourage tourism development;
- ▶ Passing of the Myanmar Tourism Law in 1990, which set guidelines for tourism development;
- ▶ First economic opening of the tourism industry by allowing foreign investments, joint venture partnerships between foreign and national stakeholders, and private operations;
- ▶ Facilitation of entry by extending visa validity and opening of some border entry points;
- ▶ Visit Myanmar Year in 1996: promotional campaign and official opening to international tourism by government;
- ▶ Continuous growth of tourism demand and supply.

In fact, with the political and economic opening of the country since 2010/11, a new stage of tourism has begun as well.

In the past, the discussion on tourism in Myanmar used to be dominated by boycott calls from opposition parties and international human rights organizations. Aligned with the general economic boycott of the country, tourism boycott aimed at placing pressure on the existing regime. Moreover, severe human rights violations (replacement, forced labour in tourist sites and in infrastructure construction) associated with the promotional campaign of the “Visit Myanmar Year” in 1996, spurred the discussion (Mowforth and Munt 2003: 290).

Controversies arose among NGOs and researchers alike over whether tourism to Myanmar should be boycotted or not. Table 6 summarizes the most commonly used arguments for and against tourism boycotts.

Table 6: *Reasons for and against boycotting Myanmar as a tourism destination.*

For Boycotting Myanmar	Against Boycotting Myanmar
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ <u>Pressure on military regime:</u> Tourism boycott as part of the general economic boycott of the military-ruled country was announced to increase pressure on the regime. ▶ <u>Human rights abuses:</u> Tourism development in Myanmar is associated with human rights abuses. For instance, in 1990 the population of Bagan was displaced to New Bagan, a place lacking basic infrastructures at that time. Further, transport infrastructure (railways and roads) were built with forced labour. ▶ <u>Economic support to military regime:</u> Many tourism companies were state-owned (at least in part), revenue from tourism mainly flowed to the regime rather than to the general population. ▶ <u>Illusion of the dictatorship:</u> Tourism promotes the illusion of a free and open country. ▶ <u>Cultural deterioration:</u> Loss of cultural identity and acculturation as a consequence of (irresponsible) tourism. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ <u>Negative impacts on local communities and civil society:</u> Tourism boycott negatively impacts local communities as it hinders income, employment, education and public awareness to their issues. ▶ <u>Fall into oblivion:</u> ‘Fair tourism’ by informed and aware travellers may cause increased awareness and public attention to the issues of Myanmar and its population. ▶ <u>Structural support to the military regime:</u> The economic boycott (and thus the associated tourism boycott as well) supported a stabilization of the regime since it stopped political dialogue with international players like USA or Europe, who envisaged a political shift. Further, the boycott is supposed to have had negative influences on national economy, which most affected broad base population.

Source: Own summary, adapted from Info Birmanie (2008: 3ff.); Häusler (2012); Von Hauff (2010: 43); Respect (2003: 8).

Since the country started to make efforts to open up in 2010/11, several human rights organizations and the opposition party has stopped calling for boycott. In 2010 the NLD revised its call for a general tourism boycott to encourage independent travel, stated that “those wishing to visit Burma in solidarity with the people – either as individuals or in small groups – are now welcomed. However, boycotts on package tours and other large tourism operations remain as they have only very limited contributions to local population in economic and social perspective” (Tourism Concern 2012). Therefore, tourism development in Myanmar in the future should aim to increase the benefits for Myanmar’s citizens and be based on sustainability.

According to Respect (2003), there are different framework conditions for the sustainable development of the country’s tourism industry. Potential barriers to sustainable tourism development include the commercial utilisation of natural resources, the cultural exploitation of ethnic groups and the absence of a free market economy (Respect 2003: 10). However, mass tourism is not yet established, so there are a variety of opportunities for the tourism industry to pave the way for sustainable development (Ibid.).

4.2.2 Current Status of Tourism: Facts and Figures

The tourism industry of Myanmar has experienced an enormous increase in the number of international tourist arrivals since 1990.⁴ Figure 4 shows that the industry is characterized by strong increases in tourism demand, from 21,600 international arrivals in 1990 to 391,200 in 2011. The year 2012 may see a further increase to 550,000 international arrivals as a result of further efforts to achieve economic and political transformation and due to the considerable international attention (mas|contour 2012: 1).

However, growth has not been continuous since 1990, due to some peculiar developments. For instance, between 1993 and 1996 (the Visit Myanmar Year), the annual growth rate in international tourist arrivals was between 50% and 80%. However, in 2007/08 (the years of the Saffron Revolution) international tourism demand reportedly decreased by 22%. The average annual growth rate in international tourist arrivals between 1990 and 2011 in Myanmar was +17%.⁵

⁴ The facts and figures on tourism in Myanmar mentioned below refer to international tourists. With hardly any data on domestic tourism available, few sources refer to this subject. However, it is assumed that the vast majority of domestic tourism activities are pilgrimages (Responsible Tourism Working Session 4, May 24, 2012), which particularly affect destinations of religious importance such as the Golden Rock in Kyaikto, the temple city of Bagan and Shwedagon Pagoda in Yangon.

⁵ The numbers given here are the author’s own calculations of growth rates, based on the available sources on tourism arrivals mentioned above. For detailed information on tourist arrivals and growth rates see Annex 2.

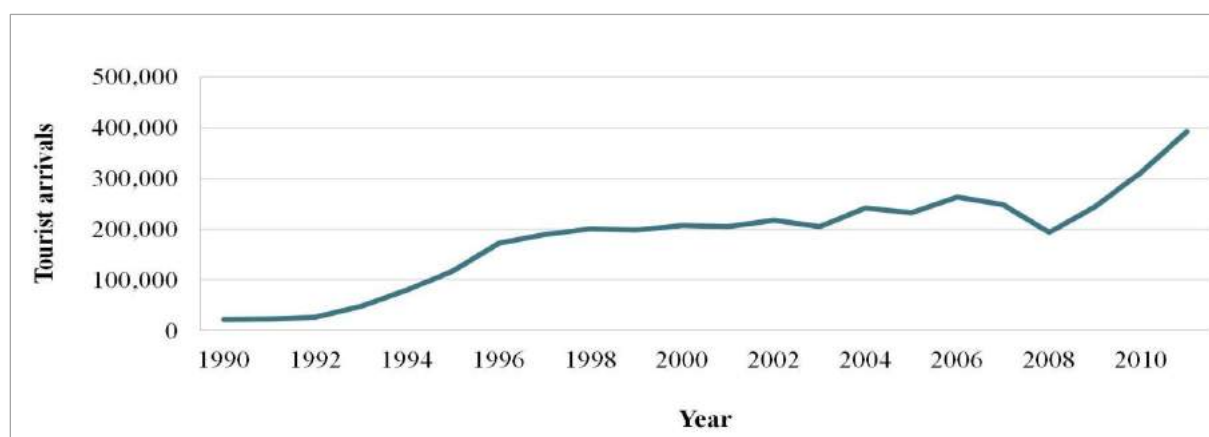


Figure 4: International tourist arrivals in Myanmar 1990–2011.

Source: Own illustration, adapted from MoHT (2011); MoHT (2012a); UNWTO (1989); UNWTO (1996); UNWTO (2001); UNWTO (2006); UNWTO (2011).⁶

The comparison of the numbers of tourist arrivals in Myanmar with those of neighbouring ASEAN countries in Table 7 clearly shows that Myanmar “is still in its infancy” (Oo 2008: 24). Mature destinations such as Malaysia (24 million arrivals), Thailand (19 million) and Singapore (13 million) are much more developed but also suffer negative impacts of mass tourism. In 2011 Myanmar’s share of all international tourist arrivals in the ASEAN region was about 1%.

Table 7: International tourist arrivals in the ASEAN region 2008–2011.⁷

Country	2008	2009	2010	2011
Malaysia	22,052.5	23,646.2	24,577.2	24,714.3
Thailand	14,597.5	14,149.8	15,963.4	19,098.3
Singapore	10,116.5	9,681.3	11,638.7	13,171.3
Indonesia	6,429.0	6,323.7	7,002.9	7,649.7
Vietnam	4,253.7	3,772.3	5,049.9	6,014.0
Philippines	3,139.4	3,017.1	3,520.5	3,917.5
Cambodia	2,215.5	2,161.6	2,508.3	2,881.9
Laos	2,004.8	2,008.4	2,513.0	2,723.6
Myanmar	660.8	762.5	791.5	816.4
Brunei	225.8	157.5	104.4	242.1
ASEAN	65,605.5	65,680.3	73,752.6	81,229.0

Source: ASEAN (2012).

⁶ Data is based primarily on various issues of UNWTO’s Yearbook of Statistics. Tourist arrivals thus correspond to international visitors to the economic territory of Myanmar and include both tourists and same day visitors. From 1990 to 1999 arrival numbers included arrivals at Yangon by air, for the year 1994 entries from Chinese border to Yangon by overland route were added to this list. Since 2000, this number comprises all tourist arrivals through border entry points in Yangon. Data does not include border tourism to Myanmar.

⁷ In thousand arrivals. Data compiled by ASEAN includes international tourist arrivals at all the above mentioned entry points (Yangon and border tourism).

Asia is of exceptional importance as a source market for Myanmar (see Figure 5). In 2011 the majority of all visitors (66%) came from there. The most important source markets in Asia are China, Thailand, Malaysia, South Korea and Japan and the most important source markets in other parts of the world are the USA, France and Germany (MoHT 2012a).

According to ASEAN (2012), there has been a significant shift in the dominance of visitors from ASEAN countries in relation to non-ASEAN countries. Between 2008 and 2011, their share in international tourist arrivals to Myanmar decreased from 70% to 12%. However, Oo (2008:15 ff.) notes that Myanmar has great potential in attracting visitors from ASEAN and Asian countries in the future because of its membership in the strategic alliances of ASEAN and the Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS) and because of its location between the high-population countries of India and China (Ibid.).

Most travellers now come to Myanmar as individual travellers, representing a share of 38% of all international tourist arrivals. In addition, packaged tours (26%) and business travellers (21%) make up the largest share in international tourists (MoHT 2012a). By now (2012) the market has changed. Some hoteliers in Myanmar experience significant increases in the number of business travel inquiries (Responsible Tourism Working Session 3, May 24, 2012).

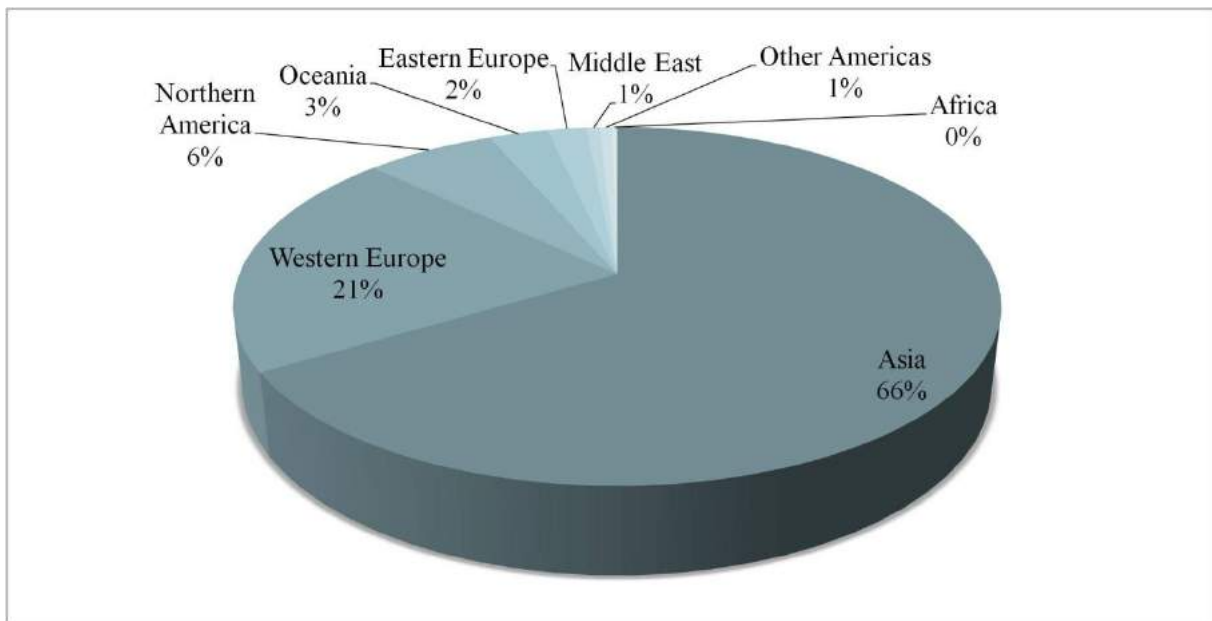


Figure 5: International tourist arrivals in Myanmar 2011 by region of origin.
Source: Own illustration, adapted from MoHT (2012a).

Between 2008 and 2011, the average length of stay decreased from nine to eight days. At the same time, more international tourists visited the country, spending more money than before because expenditures per person and day increased from US\$95 to US\$120 (MoHT 2012a). As a result, total earnings from tourism also increased, from US\$165 million in 2008 to

US\$319 million in 2011. For the year 2012, a further increase to 390 million is expected, corresponding to about 50,000 jobs related to tourism (ADB 2012a).

However, unlike in other countries in Southeast Asia, in Myanmar macroeconomic revenues from tourism are very small. In 2009 tourism contributed only 0.56% to the GDP (ADB 2012b; MoHT 2012a). According to UNESCAP (2011: 246), the average international tourism expenditure in 2009 was approximately 3.6% of the GDP in the ASEAN countries, and in Cambodia and Malaysia the contributions of international tourism expenditures to the GDP were even higher (11% and 8.2% respectively).

About 1.3% of the employed population work in the tourism industry (hotels and restaurants), with employment rates in this industry being significantly higher in urban areas than in rural areas (UNDP 2011b: 38). Consequently, at the moment, tourism hardly benefits local communities at all. Rather “[i]n popular tourist areas, inflation, the lack of tourism infrastructure and large-scale development projects rarely benefits all, but rather only enriches a few” (Valentin 2012). Possible reasons for the small contributions at the local level are power disparities, the fact that the population relies heavily on agriculture, the strong dominance of a few major destinations and the small number of tourism stakeholders. In addition, due to certain legal restrictions imposed on community stays and a large number of areas restricted to tourism, communities do not get the opportunity to benefit from tourism. However, there are also a number of successful examples of community ownership in Myanmar, such as at Inle Lake, where significant shares of the industry are already community-based (Responsible Tourism Working Session 4, May 24, 2012).

Tourism supply in Myanmar is highly concentrated in the four main destinations of Yangon, Bagan, Inle Lake and Mandalay (Info Birmanie 2011: 6). In 2011 more than 56% of all rooms in tourist accommodation units were offered in these destinations (MoHT 2012a).⁸ Moreover, along with Nay Pyi Taw Bagan, Yangon and Mandalay are the only international gateways to Myanmar (Mekong Tourism Forum 2011: 6). As of 2011, there were about 25,000 hotel rooms in the country, of which some 6,000 have been constructed after 2008. Most of these new hotel rooms (1,700) are situated in the new capital, Nay Pyi Taw (MoHT 2008; MoHT 2012a).

⁸ Since no statistical data are available on the regional distribution of overnight stays and tourist arrivals, the number of rooms in accommodation units is used to analyze the importance of tourism in individual destinations. It should be noted that international tourists are not allowed to leave these units. Therefore, the numbers are significant when analyzing tourism demand.

Moreover, in recent years, the main destinations mentioned above have experienced significant increases in tourist arrivals. For instance, the temple city of Bagan recorded an enormous increase from 38,000 in 2008 to over 100,000 in 2011 (MoHT 2012c).

These increases and the future growth rates expected for 2012 and 2013 will be a major challenge for the country in the upcoming years due to serious deficiencies in infrastructure, with Yangon, Myanmar's most important entry point, being "the one suffering the most of a lack of facilities to accommodate the growing number of travellers" (TDNA 2012c). Although there are plans to build new hotels in 2013, these hotels will not be able to satisfy the demand. It must also be considered that only one third of the existing hotel rooms in the city are up to international standards (Ibid.). As a result, hotel rates increased significantly in 2012. This led to an intervention by the government, which limited room prices to a maximum of US\$150. Consequently, new investments in hotel and tourism infrastructure are required throughout Myanmar in general and in Yangon in particular.

Tourism services in Myanmar are provided by a fairly small number of stakeholders. MoHT annually announces the number of registered tour companies, hotels and transport companies as well as the number of licensed tour guides. As of 2011, there were 760 predominantly domestic tour companies, 731 hotels, 178 private transport companies and 3,160 licensed tour guides in the country (MoHT 2012a).

The most important tourism institutions representing private-sector interests are the Myanmar Tourism Federation, the Myanmar Hotelier Association, the Myanmar Travel Association and the Myanmar Marketing Committee (Oo 2008: 18). In addition to representing the interests of their own tourism segment, these associations implement promotional activities cooperatively, make efforts to promote tourism development and provide training and education opportunities (Mekong Tourism Forum 2011: 2). In doing so, MoHT encourages human resource development in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, private-sector representatives and ASEAN. Tourism education is provided in the form of hotel staff training, guide training courses and licensing, sustainable tourism development courses and a diploma course in tourism management studies (Ibid.: 7ff.).

The Ministry of Hotels and Tourism is the guiding institution with regard to tourism development-related issues in Myanmar, and although regional and local representations do exist, the Ministry has a centralized structure (Oo 2008:18).

4.2.3 Outlook: Efforts to Promote Responsible Tourism Development

In response to the transformation of the country and the resulting increases in tourist arrivals, MoHT is paving the way for responsible tourism development. The rationale behind the current efforts is that “the Ministry also recognizes that the success of rapid tourism development would not only have a boost on the sector and create a swift economic development, but that it would also have challenges in the long-term success for sustainable tourism development in the country” (MoHT 2012b: 4).

In recent months, MoHT, in collaboration with MTF and HSF, has initiated coherent processes directed at responsible tourism practices and goals. The first step was to hold a Tourism Working Group meeting in November 2011 with representatives from MoHT, PATA, GMS and ADB, international experts and national tourism stakeholders to discuss future directions of the industry.

In February 2012 the Nay Pyi Taw Responsible Tourism Statement was prepared at a three-day conference, by which national tourism stakeholders expressed their commitment to tourism development with sustainable development goals (Häusler 2012). The participants agreed on four general objectives:

- (1) Establishment of a policy to create clear guidelines and define the responsibilities of the involved parties;
- (2) Creation of formal training and education opportunities for the hospitality and tourism sector;
- (3) Creation of informal training opportunities for local communities to raise awareness on tourism benefits and costs, and to encourage local involvement (CBT, supply chain management);
- (4) Implementation of regular stakeholder meetings (Ibid.: 6).

Another step towards sustainable development was the preparation of the Myanmar Responsible Tourism Policy in May and June 2012, which was based on participatory information-gathering workshops involving nearly 350 public and private stakeholders from Yangon, Ngwe Saung, Bagan, Inle Lake and Kyiang Tong (MoHT 2012b: 5). The policy contains a strategic vision, nine overall aims and 58 concrete action points for the achievement of sustainable tourism practices.

The strategic vision to be followed by the guidelines of the policy takes into account the improvement of living standards, the economic empowerment of local communities, the conservation of cultural and natural resources and responsible behaviour of all tourism stakeholders:

“We intend to use tourism to make Myanmar a better place to live in – to provide more employment and greater business opportunities for all our people, to contribute to the conservation of our natural and cultural heritage and to share with us our rich cultural diversity. We warmly welcome those who appreciate and enjoy our heritage, our way of life and who travel with respect” (MoHT 2012b: 6).

Nine guiding aims and related action points support this vision and provide directions for the practical implementation of responsible tourism practices in Myanmar:

- (1) Tourism is a national priority sector;
- (2) Broad based local social economic development;
- (3) Maintain cultural diversity and authenticity;
- (4) Conservation and enhancement of the environment;
- (5) Compete on product richness, diversity and quality – not just on price;
- (6) Ensure health, safety and security of our visitors;
- (7) Institutional strengthening to manage tourism;
- (8) A well trained and rewarded workforce;
- (9) Minimizing unethical practices (MoHT 2012b).

The focus of the Responsible Tourism Policy for Myanmar being on the responsibilities and roles of tourism stakeholders, tasks are defined for every action point according to focal, advisory and liaising roles and general support. In addition, the document provides guidelines for the evaluation and monitoring of tourism development.

The Responsible Tourism Policy for Myanmar will serve as the framework for further steps towards sustainable tourism development and it will provide the basis for the National Tourism Master Plan, which is to be published in 2013, as well as for related regional development strategies (MoHT 2012b: 26).

In October 2012 MoHT, MTF and HSF in cooperation with the Thailand-based NGO Tourism Transparency published the cartoon booklet “DOs & DON’Ts for Tourists – How you can visit Myanmar responsibly” (HSF et al. 2012). These guidelines for visitors intent to create relationships “with local communities [that] will be friendly, more understandable and beneficial for all” (HSF et al. 2012: 3).

4.3 Summary: Interrelations of Development and Tourism in Myanmar

It remains to be seen if Myanmar’s tourism stakeholders will be able to translate these efforts into practice, and if so, how and to what extent. After all, the country is experiencing political, economic, social and environmental changes, all of which it must handle simultaneously. In

the upcoming years, the country may also be overrun by international investors who are looking for quick money.

This chapter has shown that Myanmar's political situation has a strong influence on the stage of national and tourism development. Political and economic opening and stability are thus critical prerequisites for the country's transformation to democracy, the improvement of the well-being of Myanmar's population and the growth of international tourism.

Key success factors for the country to develop are its resource richness and its strategic location in the heart of Asia. However, the preservation and efficient utilisation of Myanmar's resources in particular is regarded as both a challenge and an advantage for the country in its efforts to pave the way for sustainable development. Further, the strong dependence of the majority of Myanmar's population on the agricultural sector makes the sustainable use of resources an imperative, now and in the long term.

Despite a low unemployment rate of 1.7%, poverty is widespread throughout the country due to low returns to work resulting from very low education levels and a very small educated workforce. In order to address these challenges, the quality of and access to education must be improved, especially for the rural population, and additional or more efficient income sources for rural communities should be found.

The considerations regarding tourism in Myanmar in this chapter show that the country experienced enormous increases in international tourism arrivals in 2011/12 and is expected to experience even higher growth rates in the upcoming years. There are few well-developed mature tourism destinations, but on the whole tourism in Myanmar is undeveloped and the industry consists of a very small number of stakeholders, resulting in large gaps between tourism demand and supply.

The greatest challenge with regard to tourism development will be to deal with the ever-increasing flow of international arrivals because soon the quantity and quality of the tourism infrastructure, transport facilities, opportunities to purchase tourism-related goods and services, and the available human resources will no longer be able to satisfy the demand.

As Chapter 3 has shown, community participation is a potential facilitator of the sustainable development of the tourism industry. A broad involvement of communities may thus be a solution to capacity shortage because it can promote the diversification of local economies, benefit from synergy effects, enhance resource utilisation, organizational efficacy and local capabilities, and effect economic and social empowerment.

In Myanmar, this would require the establishment of mechanisms to spread tourism further throughout the country (provided that regional stability and security can be maintained), particularly to rural areas, to establish strong linkages to agricultural producers, to encourage external intervention in the areas of finance and technical advice and to encourage the broad-base development of an educated workforce.

The following chapter investigates these interrelations between community participation and tourism development from the perspective of Myanmar. To this aim, a qualitative analysis is provided which focuses on tourism stakeholders' perceptions of and attitudes towards this topic.

5 Stakeholder's Perspective on Community Participation and Responsible Tourism Development

The analyses and findings in this chapter are based on exploratory field research carried out in May and June 2012. The author accompanied the national process of formulating the Responsible Tourism Policy for Myanmar and conducted expert interviews with a special focus on the respondents' perceptions and expectations of responsible tourism, community participation and tourism-related transformation.

The following section is a detailed description of the interview analysis process and the utilized GABEK methodology. The respondents' perceptions and expectations of tourism development, responsible tourism and community participation are investigated based on this methodology. In addition, this chapter focuses on how the concepts of community participation and responsible tourism are perceived by the stakeholders interviewed, as well as on the influences and impacts of selected aspects of Myanmar's tourism industry.

5.1 Methodology: Qualitative Case Study Research Using GABEK

To gain an in-depth understanding of tourism stakeholders' expectations and perceptions of community participation and responsible tourism in Myanmar, this study uses a qualitative research approach. Qualitative research is defined as a

“multi method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of materials – case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts – that describe routine and problematic moment and meaning in individual lives” (Denzin and Lincoln 1994: 2).

Qualitative research methods are identified as appropriate tools because the focus of the present investigation is on stakeholders' perceptions of and their attitudes towards community participation in Myanmar and thus aims to analyse and interpret the meaning of this term from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar.

This study employs an expert interview approach. This approach, “unlike questionnaire-based interviewing which tends to be shallow and rigid, probes more deeply and allows for explanations from respondents without necessarily jeopardising the goal of research” (Veal 1997, cited in Manyara and Jones 2007: 634).

However, in the literature, qualitative research methods and the associated tools are discussed critically. In contrast to quantitative methods, they suffer from the absence of standardisation in the research process. This presents the challenge of having to meet research-accredited criteria such as validity, reliability and objectivity (Flick 2008: 192; Kelle 2007: 28). The present investigation puts this criticism into perspective by using theoretical sampling during data collection and the GABEK methodology during data analysis. Both these methodologies ensure traceability and comprehensiveness.

Data collection

Semi-structured expert interviews were conducted to gain focused and detailed insights into Myanmar's tourism industry. Open-ended interview guidelines ensured the comparability of the answers (see Annex 3). The interview guidelines consisted of nine open-ended questions concerning four specific issues:

- (1) Personal background in tourism;
- (2) Tourism development in Myanmar since the country's first efforts to open up in 2011;
- (3) Community participation and responsible tourism;
- (4) Expectations with regard to tourism development in Myanmar in the future.

The selection of interviewees was exploratory and opportunistic in nature. Unlike quantitative research methods, qualitative research aims to achieve qualitative representation rather than statistical representativeness (Kruse 2011: 86). Therefore, the investigation does not focus on the quantity of instances of a particular type in reality but on the structure of the specific features of a type (Ibid.).

From a scientific point of view, two different sampling strategies are used when applying qualitative research methods: theory-based sample-setting before the research begins and theoretical sampling between research processes. Both strategies are based on the principle of maximum structural variation (Kleining 1982, cited in Kruse 2011: 87). In theoretical sampling, the variation of respondents' features (living conditions, age, income) benefits the sample's heterogeneity and thus its ability to represent a research field (Kruse 2011: 87). With regard to the present investigation, other features of the interviewees than those described become relevant.

Accordingly, the interviewees were selected based primarily on their professional background in Myanmar's tourism industry. Interviews were conducted with representatives from the private tourism sector, the public sector, NGOs and education and training institutions.⁹

In addition, the interviewees were classified according to their primary geographical area of operation (developing destination, mature destination, throughout the country without further specification) and their position in the business or organization. Table 8 below shows the structure of the sample.

Table 8: Structure of the interview sample.

Category	Expression	Share
Professional Background	Accommodation unit	16%
	Tour operator	24%
	Transport company	8%
	Tour guide	4%
	Restaurant	4%
	Public sector	12%
	NGO	20%
	Education and training	12%
	total	100%
Area of Operation	Throughout the country	42%
	Mainly in major tourism destinations	33%
	Mainly in developing tourism destinations	25%
	total	100%
Function	Owner/entrepreneur/freelancer	58%
	Senior management	25%
	Middle management	17%
	total	100%

Source: Own elaboration.

This sample only reflects a certain part of Myanmar's tourism industry. It cannot reflect the entire tourism sector's perceptions and expectations with statistical reliability. Nevertheless,

⁹ Although more than half of the participants of the working sessions were representatives from the public sector, they represent only twelve per cent of interviewees. It was the author's feeling that the public sector representatives were somewhat reluctant to participate in the expert interviews.

thanks to theoretical sampling and the resulting structural variation, the sample can reflect the selected part of Myanmar's tourism industry and so the interviews provide a valuable basis for data analysis using GABEK.

Data analysis

The computer-aided qualitative research method GABEK and the related software WinRelan are tools for the holistic processing of (linguistic) complexity. Here, the focus is on the analysis, organization, processing and presentation of verbal data to provide an understanding of complex situations and to identify possible aims, goals and measures (Zelger 2004: 3). The method also aims to encourage consensual problem solving or conflict resolution and can thus "be applied as a decision support tool in practice" (Pechlaner and Volgger 2012: 4). GABEK groups answers by topics, the systematic organization of coherent thoughts and their synthesis and thus "does not bother so much about the *who* but rather about the *what*" (Pechlaner and Volgger 2012: 9).

The steps of analysis include coding, data processing and data interpretation. After the transcription of the recorded interviews, the textual data are divided into short sections referred to as 'text units' or 'sense units'. These units are defined as "meaningful, coherent thoughts which present a comprehensive text containing at least three and at the most nine relevant lexical concepts" (Zelger 2004: 12). Several steps of coding are conducted for each text unit, as illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9: Steps of interview analysis with WinRelan.

Step of analysis	Degree of automation	Support by software	Underlying rules
1. Coding			Coding done without interpretation
a. Definition of text units	No	Manual definition of text units; display of each text unit on an index card	Length of the text units depends on semantic meaningfulness and the number of keywords used within a statement (limited to 9)
b. Object-linguistic coding	Low	Manual definition of keywords; display of the identified keywords in the same index card as the underlying text unit; a list of previously defined keywords helps avoid synonyms and homonyms	Text units coded with a set of 3 to 9 keywords that semantically can stand on their own (each) and (as a set) are suited to represent the core message of the text unit; keywords inductively developed and remaining within the respondents' language; synonyms and homonyms avoided
c. Coding of evaluations	No	Manual definition of positive (+) or negative (-) evaluations (binary coding) for each keyword, distinguishing evaluations of bygone, current and target situation; display of the evaluated keywords on the same index card as the underlying text unit	Respondents' articulated evaluations identified: positively or negatively evaluated keywords marked as such
d. Causal coding	No	Display of the causally coded keywords on the same index card as the underlying text unit; for each pair of keywords within a text unit, it is possible to code direct and inverse relationships (binary coding on a matrix of keywords)	Implied influences and causal relationships in the respondents' statements identified: stated direct and inverse relationships between keywords marked as such
e. Coding of relevancy	Low to Medium	Number of (positive/negative) evaluations and (ingoing/outgoing) causal relations is displayed for each keyword as a support to categorization, which must be done manually	Keywords categorized as basic values, goals, measures, or basic conditions and constraints; several formal and content-related rules exist for each category (for a full list of rules, see Buber and Kraler, 2000)

Step of analysis	Degree of automation	Support by software	Underlying rules
2. Data processing and interpretation			Interpretation clearly separated from coding
a. Display of association graphs	High	Interactive generation and display of association graphs based on the object-linguistic coding	Keywords with coded object-linguistic connections to a central term; selection of keywords based on the research questions and the number of underlying text units
b. Interpretation of association graphs	No	No	No predefined rules; good practice to derive a definition of a concept based on stable connections to the research questions
c. Display of causal net graphs	High	Interactive generation and display of causal net graphs based on the coding of causal relations (links) and the coding of relevancy (type of nodes); all interviews are thrown together	Keywords with coded causal relations function as nodes, the coded causal relations define the link and the direction of the relationships; selection of keywords based on the research questions and the number of underlying text units
d. Interpretation of causal net graphs	No	No	No predefined rules; good practice to define some higher-order categories and assess patterns based on the research questions

Source: Adapted from Pechlaner and Volgger (2012: 9).

One of the subjects of this study being tourism development in Myanmar over time, the perceptions and attitudes of the respondents are analysed for different periods of time. Therefore, for the evaluation of situations, a distinction is made between past, present (starting with the reformation process in 2011) and target (i.e. future) developments. In Section 5.2.1, this coding of evaluations is applied to provide a first overview of the respondents' perceptions of tourism development in Myanmar. In addition, aspects and issues associated with positive and negative perceptions are described.

Sections 5.3 and 5.4 contain a detailed analysis of the terms 'responsible tourism' and 'community participation' to provide an understanding of these concepts from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar. Generally speaking, GABEK is a useful tool to display the meaning of a term in that it synthesises connections between the respondents' expressions (Zelger 2002: 70). Association graphs are used to illustrate connections between a central term and key expressions that are most frequently associated with it in the underlying text

units, and thus to derive a definition of the central term as perceived by the respondents. As previously mentioned, this approach is employed to investigate the concepts of responsible tourism (Section 5.3.1) and community participation (Section 5.4.1) from the perspective of stakeholders Myanmar.

Cause-and-effect relations of selected terms are analysed to identify concrete measures and implications with regard to community participation and responsible tourism development in Myanmar. Based on causal coding, variables that influence and are influenced by a central term are investigated. The causal net graph displays perceived cause-and-effect relations, with a distinction being made between favourable and unfavourable effects, as well as between different relationships of effects.¹⁰ The causal expressions are divided into four subcategories:

- (1) Basic values and ethical ideals: build the framework for the development of mission statements and for orientation purposes;
- (2) Goals: support the basic adjustment and justification of projects;
- (3) Measures: have concrete implications;
- (4) Conditions and constraints: indicate limitations and the framework of implementation (Zelger 2004: 37).

This holistic analysis allows the author to derive context-specific implications. Again, this approach is applied to the concepts of responsible tourism (Section 5.3.2) and community participation (Section 5.4.2), but also to the general investigation of tourism development in Myanmar (Section 5.2.2) and the analysis of selected key issues (Section 5.5). These issues are derived with regard to their stressed relevance in this study and include capacity, cooperation and education.

5.2 Tourism Development in Myanmar

Based on the GABEK-aided interview analysis, an overall picture can be developed of how the respondents perceive the transformation and the development of tourism. According to the interviewees, the current process of political and economic opening already has an influence on the country's development, albeit not on a large scale: *"I think one could say that there have been changes since last year, but things are changing slowly"* [B03]. Indeed, modifications to and reforms of a country's economic, political and social systems require gradual

¹⁰ Positive relationship: an increase of variable A leads to an increase of variable B; negative relationship: an increase of variable A leads to a decrease of variable B.

reorganization. *“For the first six months, things seemed to be the same, but all of a sudden things started to change. Because it takes time. It takes time to get things organized”* [A20].

5.2.1 Evaluation of Change

In addition to the above considerations by Myanmar respondents, Figure 6 displays the overall evaluation of tourism development in connection with the transformation of Myanmar with respect to the past, present and target situations.

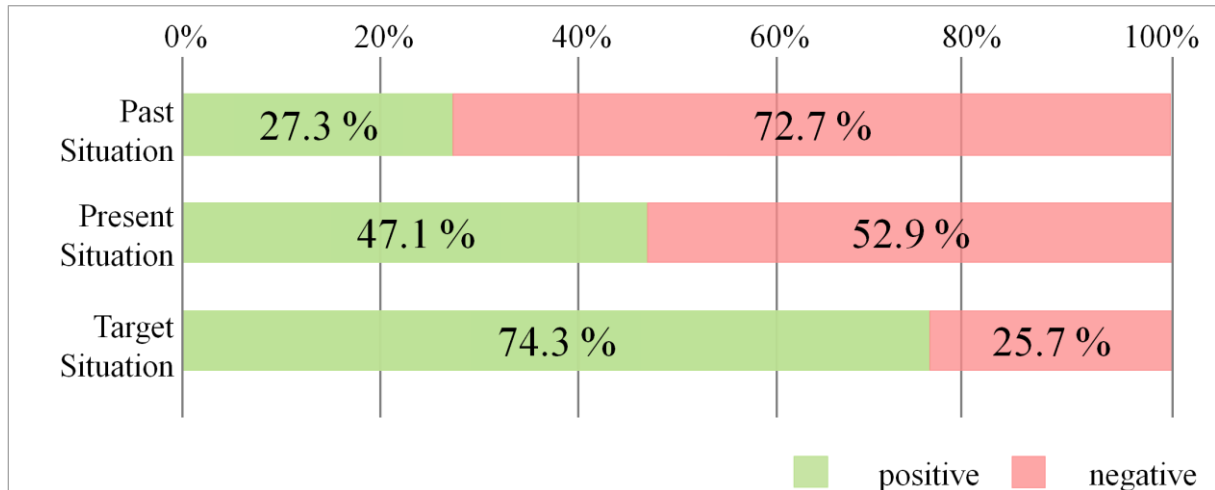


Figure 6: Respondents' evaluation of past, present and target situations.

Source: Own illustration.¹¹

According to the respondents, the predominately negative perception of past developments in Myanmar (72.7%) is based on political conditions and constraints to development. The five factors most frequently associated with negative views are the political situation in the past, “Boycott Myanmar” campaigns, corruption, international sanctions and the lack of job opportunities. Positive perceptions of the past were related to measures and intrinsic values such as compromise, tangible contributions to communities and personal value.

The present situation is considered to be positive in 47.1% of expressions. This is explained by the ongoing change and the country's opening, joint efforts to achieve responsible tourism development initiated by MoHT and MTF, collaboration with ASEAN member countries and increased cultural exchange. However, interviewees already perceive some negative impacts of the transformation, particularly negative economic impacts. One respondent stated, *“I feel that we are in a transition period, we are becoming more commercialized, I would say”*

¹¹ Not all situations were evaluated with the same number of expressions. While the present situation of tourism development and responsible tourism in Myanmar was considered to be positive or negative in 432 cases, the past and target situations were much less frequently evaluated (110 and 168 times respectively).

[F77]. Here, factors such as capacity shortage, price increases, competition, greed and conflicts between tourism development and communities result in a balanced evaluation of the present.

The target situation is predominantly viewed optimistically, with 74.3% positive evaluations of the future, with factors such as cooperation, education, knowledge, community-based tourism and balanced developments mentioned frequently. However, there are also negative expectations for the future, particularly with regard to impacts of tourism such as exploitation of natural resources and conflicts arising between the industry and local communities and local culture and tradition. Issues of accessibility and capacity shortage also cause concerns about the development of tourism in the future.

In order to gain a more detailed understanding of causal relations in tourism development in Myanmar and to illustrate implications expressed by the respondents, the following section examines the outcomes of the interviews using the causal net graph.

5.2.2 Causes and Effects

Various aspects are influenced by transformation and tourism development in Myanmar. For instance, *“we have seen some very positive effects [of the transformation], obviously, in terms of the amount of revenue for the country and also in terms of giving more and more the local community more and more opportunities to interact with international tourists”* [E13]. Tourism development and transformation are themselves affected by several variables. Figure 7 illustrates these cause-and-effect relations with respect to tourism development.

According to the respondents, several measures are in place to overcome the barriers to development. For instance, the more tourism is spread geographically to different destinations, the more likely Myanmar's tourism will be able to develop: *“For me, if we spread, [...] tourism can easily extend to 1 million or 1.5 million. We can easily extend on this condition”* [F15]. Several interviewees stated that for this to happen in a sustainable way it would be appropriate to weigh the conditions and impacts, and one respondent said that *“there should be a balanced development: balanced development of tourism products as well as balanced development of human resources, balanced development of services”* [C75].

Improvement of cooperation may be a suitable instrument to promote tourism development in Myanmar as well. This includes cooperation both among tourism stakeholders in Myanmar and across borders. In particular, given that tourism stakeholders *“cooperate and collaborate*

with the leading countries [of GMS and ASEAN] [...], there will be time for Myanmar to learn about tourism development and management and implement it in the country itself” [C45].

Other solutions recommended in this context are encouraging local enterprises and local ownership by establishing community-based tourism goods and services and improving accessibility to rural areas. The interviewees also realise that community participation is another variable that is influenced by the stage of tourism development because a growing industry also provides a growing number of opportunities for communities to get involved.

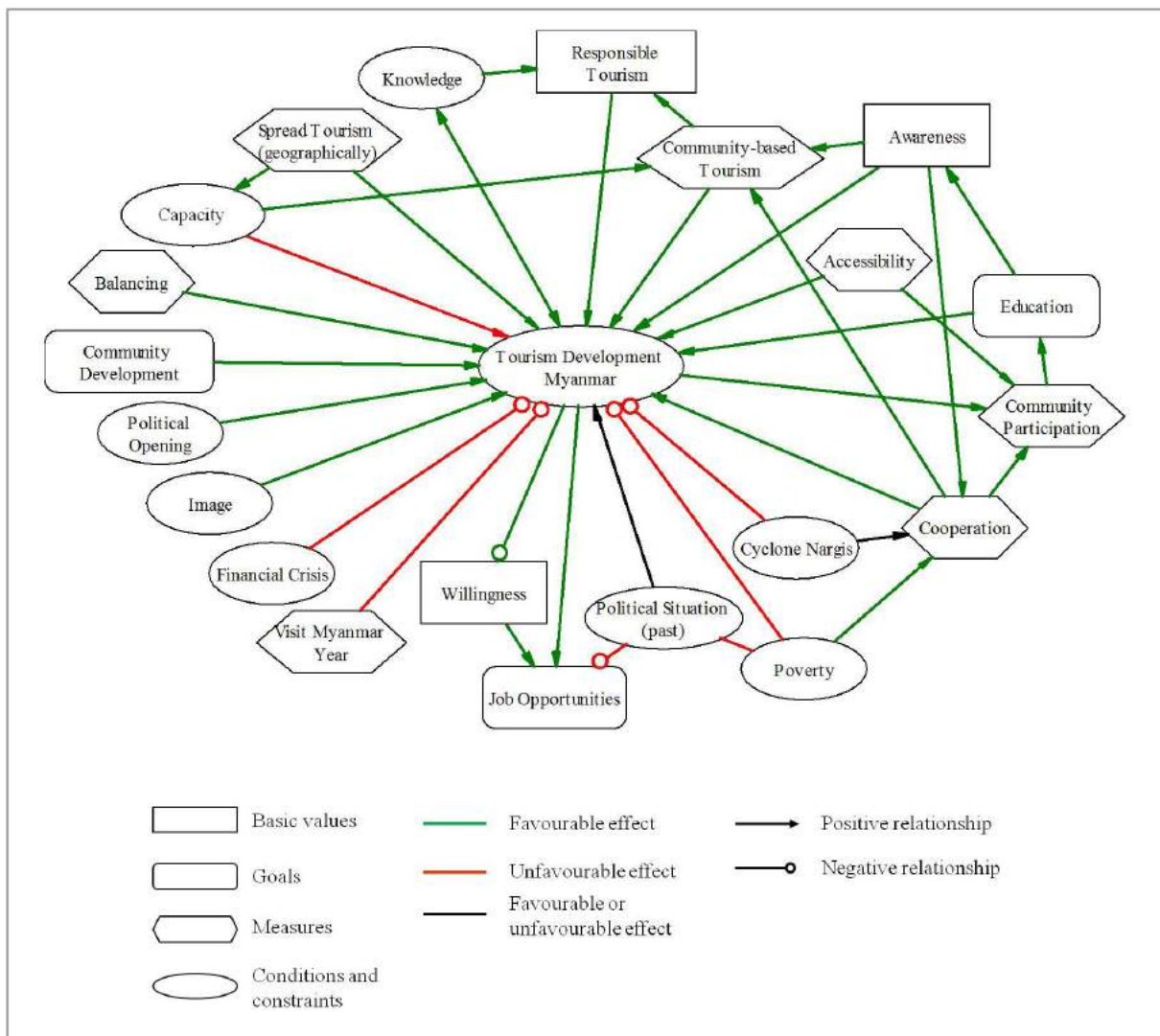


Figure 7: Causal net graph: Tourism Development Myanmar.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least one text unit.)

Large-scale campaigns to promote tourism may lead to tourism development and the Visit Myanmar Year 1996 may have resulted in increases in the number international tourist arrivals, but this measure is perceived to have negative and unfavourable effects. The campaign is associated with the displacement of local communities and very limited benefits for the broad base of the country and is therefore considered harmful.

Finally, tourism development in Myanmar is interrelated with the intended goals of community development, education and the creation of job opportunities. One respondent described this as follows: *“It is beautiful because this is a new business, a new career for them which never existed before. They were farmers, they were coconut plantation workers and they were simple fishermen. [...] But from this, we have developed tourism careers, hotelier career. This is very interesting”* [A44].

5.3 Responsible Tourism in Myanmar

On the initiative of MoHT and MTF, Myanmar's tourism industry has paved the way to responsible tourism development in the form of the Responsible Tourism Working Week in February 2012 and the national process of formulating the Responsible Tourism Policy for Myanmar in May and June 2012. The following section analyses how the concept of responsible tourism is understood and how the causal relations are expressed in the expert interviews.

5.3.1 An Approach to a Definition

The features most frequently associated with responsible tourism include inherent characteristics of the country that are related to the stage of development and its cultural and natural diversity, the impacts of tourism on the natural environment, the role of different stakeholders and the need to take responsibility. Further, the roles and interactions of local communities, tourists and local guides are crucial when defining responsible tourism from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar. Figure 8 illustrates these associations.

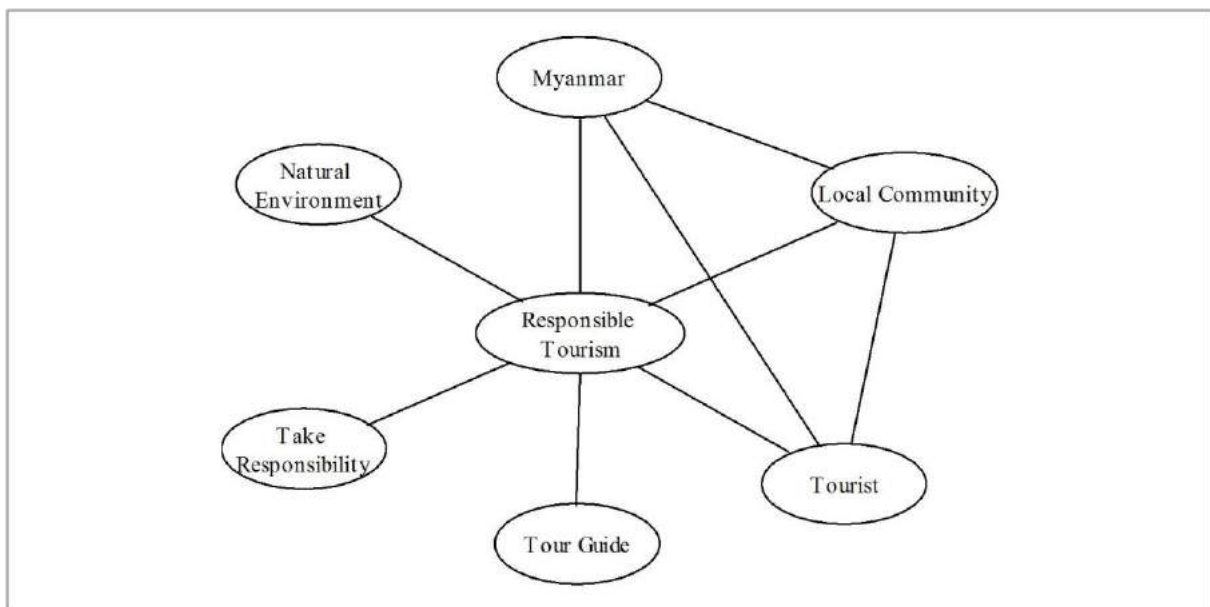


Figure 8: Association graph: Responsible Tourism.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least five text units.)

When asked how they would define the concept of responsible tourism, several interviewees stressed the importance of Myanmar's identity, uniqueness and diversity: *"I think responsible tourism means that the country does not change its unique characteristics, its culture, its religion, its feel to accommodate tourists. Or else it would lose its identity. I think that is one of the keys"* [F35]. This shows that tourism has impacts on the identity of the country, and vice versa. Myanmar's cultural identity is also a source of tourism, although important attractions have emerged independently of tourism: *"When you go the Shwedagon pagoda there are locals who pray there every day. And they do that regardless of whether the tourists are there or not"* [E44].

In addition to these inherent strengths, underlying texts also considered country-specific challenges, in particular infrastructure development, safety and security issues.

Preservation, another aspect frequently associated with responsible tourism, is concerned with the natural environment as a source of development. According to the interviewees, the public sector must put systems in place which ensure that the environment is protected: *"Responsible not only means giving, but also protecting [...]. Without regulations we will spoil places, our natural heritage"* [A58].

This aspect also involves the responsibilities of private-sector stakeholders. For instance, tour operators are considered to be in charge of informing and educating clients on environmentally friendly behaviour. Additionally, according to the interviewees, tour guides are of exceptional importance where responsible tourism practices are concerned because they have the ability to educate tourists and private-sector operations by providing insights into local experiences.

In fact, as well as on the duties of the supply side, responsible tourism depends on the behaviour of tourists. Consequently, with ongoing efforts being made to establish responsible tourism, visitors are increasingly required to act responsibly as well: *"If people first inform themselves, they can comply with control norms in the places to which they travel. If they can't comply with the cultural norms of a place it doesn't matter what they do in terms of donations or activities"* [E32]. Visitors cannot act responsibly entirely on their own; rather, *"tourists need channels they can go through"* [E79]. According to the respondents, these channels must be established by the public sector as well as by the private sector.

Supporting communities in rural areas by involving them appropriately is another aspect of responsible tourism in Myanmar. The interviewees realise that communities and villagers are

significantly affected by tourism and therefore stress the need to spread benefits to community levels.

From the above considerations we can derive a definition of the concept of responsible tourism from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar:

Responsible tourism is an approach to tourism that aims to preserve and improve Myanmar's cultural and natural identity, which are the key sources of tourism demand. At the same time, this approach involves facing inherent challenges, particularly infrastructure development, safety and security issues and natural degradation. Efforts to establish responsible tourism practices in Myanmar must therefore place special emphasis on responsible and informed interaction between local guides, tourists and local communities at the micro-level and on the creation and implementation of facilitating channels and systems by the public and private sectors at the macro-level.

5.3.2 Causes and Effects

Responsible tourism depends on a variety of variables. According to the respondents, it is generally associated with positive causes and effects, as illustrated in the causal net graph in Figure 9.

Without exception, causal relations that are connected to the term 'responsible tourism' are of a favourable nature. Moreover, the causal net graph displays what the respondents know about the theoretical concept of responsible tourism. A significant indicator for this finding is the respondents' definition of the approach's main goals – improvements of living standards and product quality in tourism. This goes along with the 'mantra' of responsible tourism: "Making better places for people to live in and better places to visit" (ICRT 2012).

As mentioned earlier, national identity (in the sense of a country's culture and natural environment) is a basic condition for the implementation of responsible tourism practices in Myanmar. According to the causal relations shown in Figure 9, responsible tourism benefits national identity in that it promotes improvement and preservation. It helps minimise the negative impacts of tourism through awareness-raising and the institutionalisation of resource utilisation. Given this, tourism stakeholders *"have to learn to use [responsible tourism] and have to use this tool to preserve our place – not only the*

environment but also the culture and other things on which tourism can have an impact” [B07].

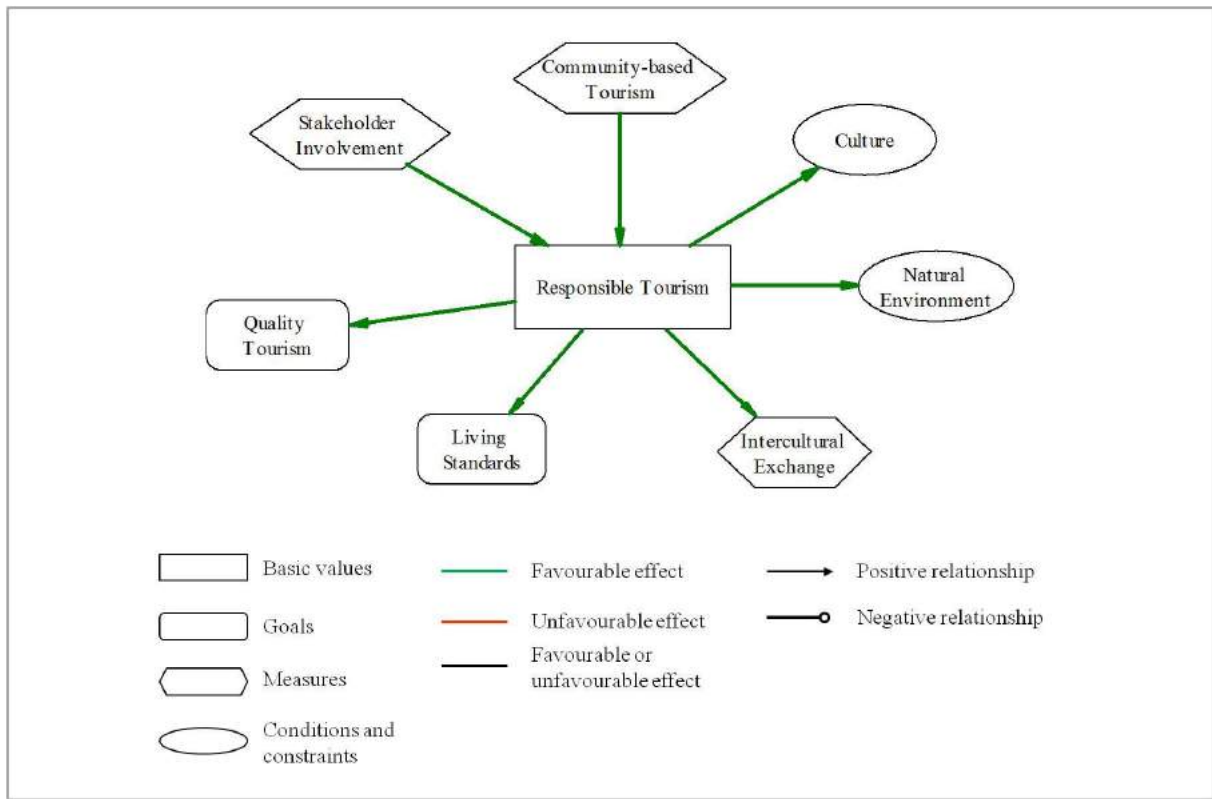


Figure 9: Causal net graph: Responsible Tourism.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least two text units.)

According to the interviewees, responsible tourism practices support measures such as involving all tourism stakeholders in its implementation and encouraging intercultural exchange between host and guest communities: *“The exchange must occur on both sides, it is interaction between both sides and both sides must exchange one another” [E35].*

The interviewees also believe that the concept encourages the creation of CBT products and may thus be a useful tool to involve local communities in tourism practices.

5.4 Community Participation in Myanmar

The leading vision of the Myanmar Responsible Tourism Policy is that future directions should “make Myanmar a better place to live in – to provide more employment and greater business opportunities to all our people” (MoHT 2012c: 6). The following sections discuss what integration of local communities in tourism industry means and what aspects influence it.

5.4.1 An Approach to a Definition

According to the respondents, key aspects associated with community participation in tourism include different stakeholders, namely the private sector, local communities and tourists, as well as conditions such as Myanmar's inherent characteristics. Other connections identified related to the stage of tourism development, cooperation, mutual understanding and tangible contributions of tourism to local communities. Figure 10 displays the aspects the interviewees associated with the concept of community participation.

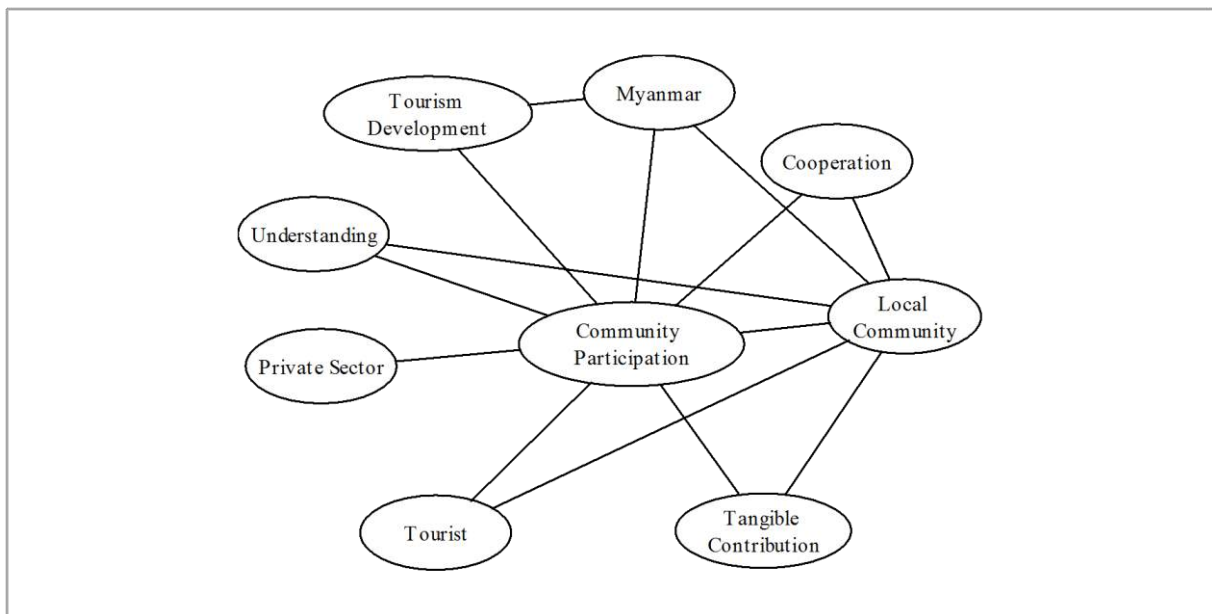


Figure 10: Association graph: Community Participation.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least six text units.)

When asked about community participation, respondents often mentioned tangible contributions to local communities, either in terms of employment and income or in terms of donations and gifts. The most frequently mentioned benefits include money, donations to schools, monasteries and orphanages, and the provision of community equipment such as generators and buses. In addition, some respondents recognised the need for a way of support that goes beyond material contributions: *“If you give them a present for Christmas they are happy for an evening. But to achieve growth, you must give them sustainable facilities. I think this how we can both benefit”* [G40].

Contributions are thus not only connected with donations. Moreover, the responsibilities of private-sector representatives are clearly identified and recognised: *“And the hoteliers also, they cannot say, ‘OK, out of the revenue, this is the donation money.’ Donations don’t last very long. And I think their participation, in terms of knowing what they are doing, is very important”* [C73].

Mutual understanding and community participation are linked associations as well. All stakeholders involved are required to make efforts to promote understanding. The following text unit reflects this attitude towards the activities of tourists and the private sector: *“Don't just go to the festival, for example. Look around and go back. The more tourists see, the more they want to get involved. They want to understand how it works, the beliefs, how it all developed. This we can only give by the way of community participation in the day-to-day business”* [G45].

Further, communities' understanding of the tourism industry is associated with their participation: *“They do understand the term 'tourist' because you can tell who's a foreigner. But I am a tourist also if I move from one place to another. Community participation is important”* [C67].

Understanding and cooperation are identified as important prerequisites for and outcomes of involvement. However, genuine participation in tourism processes is unlikely to be achieved, because the stakeholders concerned *“want that participation. But, even at Inlay or in Bagan, I don't see any real community participation. It is actually always a separation line between the tourists and the community”* [F45].

From this we can derive the following definition of the concept of community participation from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar:

Community participation is closely linked to Myanmar's inherent characteristics and stage of tourism development. Key characteristics are awareness and understanding at all levels involved. Involvement is thus closely related to cooperation and strong linkages for interaction between local communities, the private sector and tourists. Because the concept of participation in tourism is particularly associated with employment and the implementation of goods and services, it benefits local communities primarily in terms of tangible improvements and financial contributions.

5.4.2 Causes and Effects

“If you don't have any sort of community participation, community support or community involvement you are basically visiting a museum” [E38]. This statement reflects the various influences involvement of local communities can have on tourists' experiences. In addition, a number of favourable and unfavourable effects are linked to the concept of community participation in Myanmar, as illustrated by the causal net graph in Figure 11.

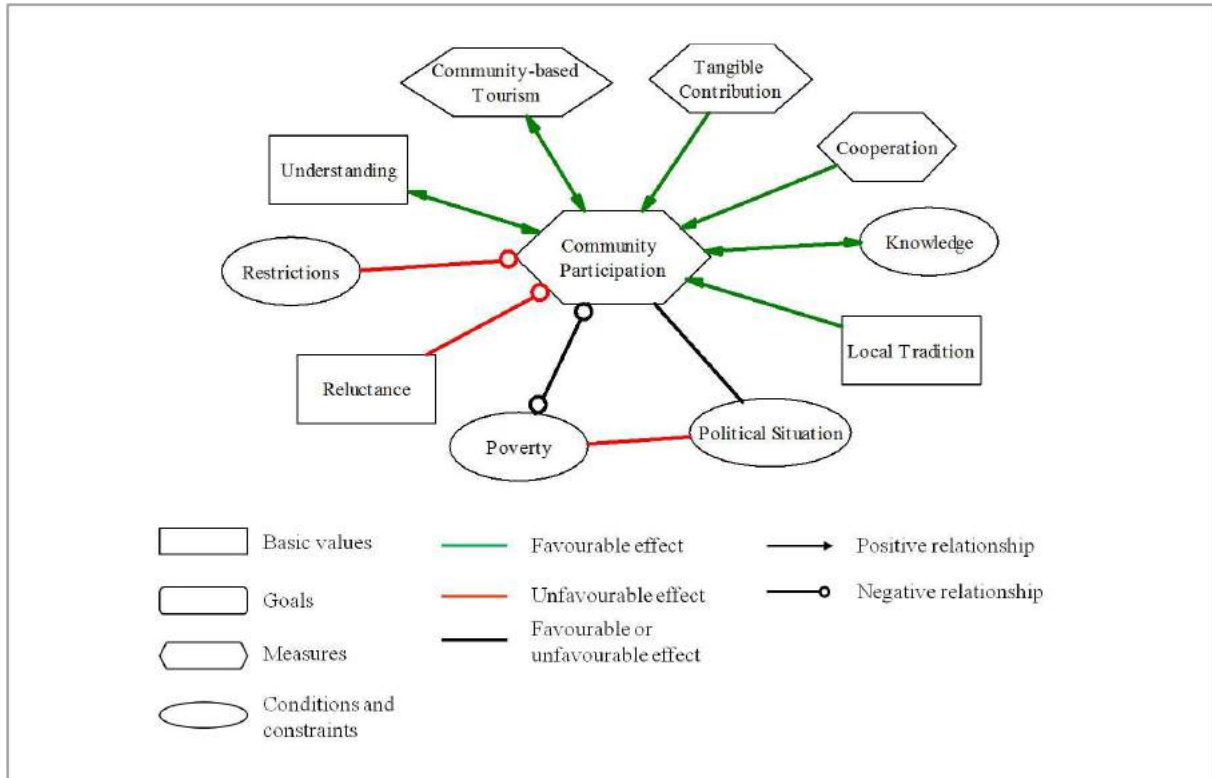


Figure 11: Causal net graph: Community Participation.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least two text units.)

Underlying values that affect community participation can be either facilitating or hindering. According to the interviewees, most supportive values are seen in local tradition and mutual understanding. Understanding addresses the community in particular: *“So, community participation, unless they understand what tourism is, how can they participate”* [C66]. Conversely, community participation also promotes understanding. Therefore, creating an understanding through cooperation and interaction is an important issue. In fact, rural communities *“never experienced the steady income from tourism. They never understand what it means. What you need to do is, you have to come to the villages and talk about tourism”* [B68].

Reluctance to participate is considered a hindering value. One interviewee noted that *“sometimes there is a cultural reluctance to share, especially something that might be seen as poor”* [E47]. As already stated in the theoretic discussion of the socio-cultural dimension of community participation in Section 3.2.3, tourism goods and services must be developed to suit local conditions and cultural identity. Consequently, plans to involve local communities in Myanmar must take the above-mentioned aspect of reluctance and its underlying reasons into consideration.

Another aspect that should be mentioned here is that restrictions, particularly restrictions to homestays and tourism in several areas, can limit the broad-based involvement of local communities in tourism. One respondent mentioned that *“we would love to have more homestays, but they're usually illegal. In some areas you just can't stay overnight”* [E65].

Moreover, limits are defined by the political situation in the past and its influences on the present, as well as by widespread poverty. It therefore depends on *“the situation; the political situation makes our people too poor. So, with that problem, we can't make any further steps [towards CBT]”* [C20]. This raises the question of whether tourism development can improve the living conditions of the poor: *“These rural areas, they need basic education, health care, electricity, clean drinking water. And how tourism is supposed to bring these things to those areas, I really don't know”* [E67].

Knowledge is an important facilitator because it provides the framework for the suggested measures: to establish CBT projects, improve cooperation and make balanced tangible contributions.

As a result, political stability, CBT and homestay licences, balanced industrial development adapted to local conditions, education to promote understanding and tourism-related knowledge, and contributing to the individual and community levels to fight poverty all potentially result in greater involvement and benefits for local communities in Myanmar.

5.5 Selected Issues Facing Myanmar's Tourism Industry

The following section investigates three key issues of Myanmar's tourism industry: capacity shortage, education and cooperation.

5.5.1 Capacity Shortage

In view of the poor tourism infrastructure and large increases in the number of international tourist arrivals, capacity shortage is a serious issue that affects tourism development and product quality in Myanmar. This is true for the technical aspects as well as the organizational aspects of the tourism infrastructure: *“The private sector is being overwhelmed and is not prepared in the sense that they don't have a system in place”* [E21]. Figure 12 illustrates cause-and-effect relations in connection with capacity shortage, allowing for further investigation of this phenomenon.

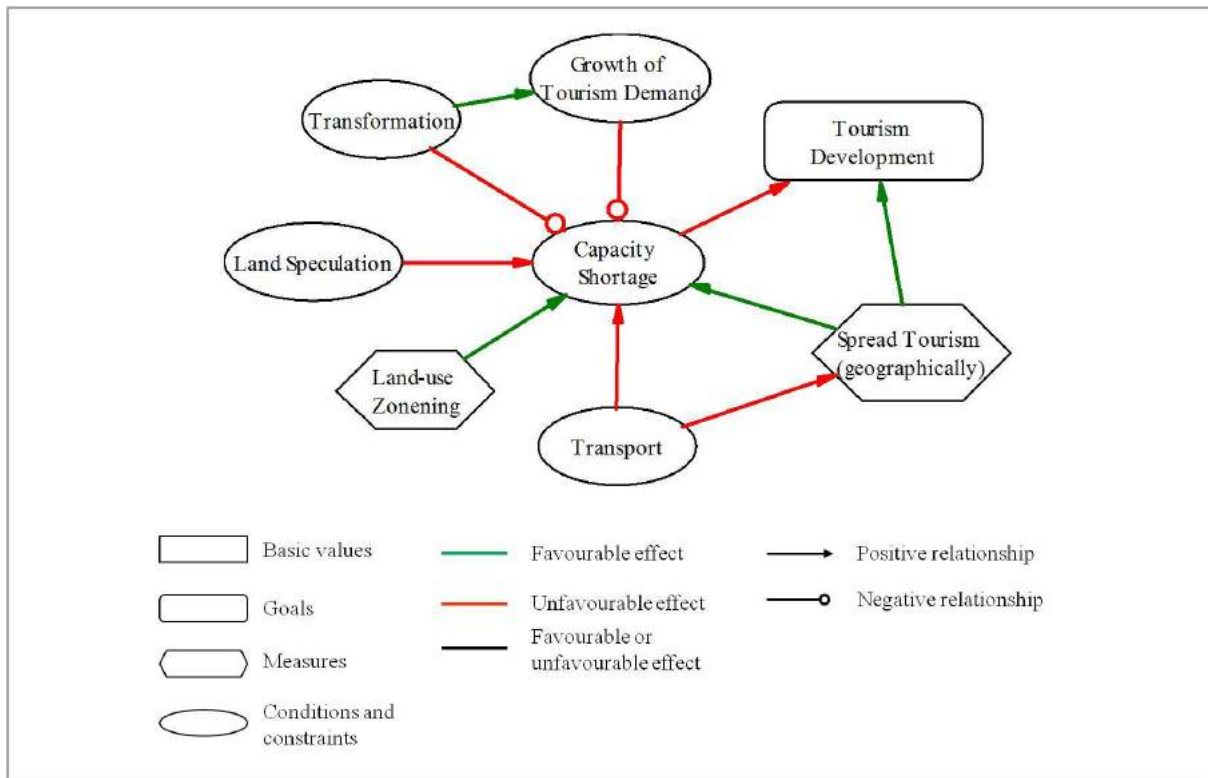


Figure 12: Causal net graph: Capacity Shortage.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least one text unit.)

According to the respondents, capacity shortage results from the transformation of the country, which leads to significant growth in tourism demand. At the same time, speculation on land limits opportunities for capacities to be improved.

For instance, in Bagan, where land zoning regulations are in place which divide the area into archaeological zones and hotel or extension zones, speculation on land is a problem. One respondent describes this as follows: *“The fourth extension zone is in that direction, they only have two hotels, the rest are all occupied, all have been bought, but nobody builds in them”* [D19]. Although suggested measures include land-use zoning to address capacity shortage, the above statement illustrates how important it is to actually implement existing regulations.

The existing transport system in general and domestic aviation in particular is another constraint to capacity development. Therefore, tourism must be spread geographically to new destinations to relieve (air) traffic and to prevent overbooking. The aim of tourism development is expressed in the following statement: *“My wish is, of course, I want more tourists and I want that people see the beautiful country. But it isn't quite ready yet. It doesn't have enough hotels, nor does it have enough planes for domestic flights”* [D86].

In conclusion, the public sector in particular must create an environment that regulates the sustainable utilisation of land and tourism services by establishing and implementing land-

zoning regulations, by supporting activities for the development of new tourist destinations and by encouraging private-sector investments in accommodation and transport infrastructure.

5.5.2 Education

As discussed in the country profile for Myanmar (Section 4.1), the country has a low level of education and a small educated workforce. It is unclear whether or not – and, if so, how – tourism can support national education systems. However, there are interrelations with tourism development which are likely to be associated by the respondents in the context of community participation in tourism.

Unlike most cause-and-effect relations concerning other terms investigated in this study, influences on education are invariably favourable. Figure 13 illustrates these dependencies.

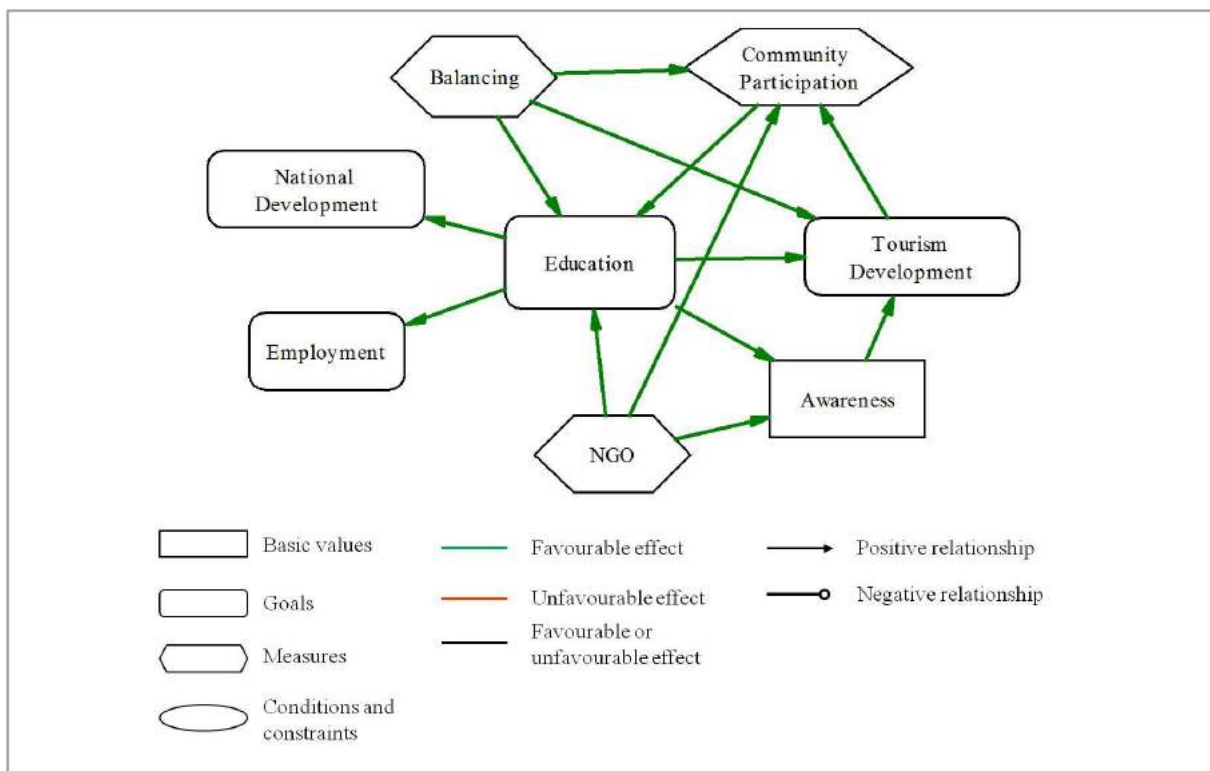


Figure 13: Causal net graph: Education.

(According to the respondents; all relationships are supported by at least one text unit.)

Education, which is considered to be one goal of sustainable tourism practices, is aligned with the aims of employment, national development and tourism development. Therefore, creating awareness is crucial. One respondent stated, “Let those in the community who understand tourism tell people about the negative impacts of tourism, and also let them make them aware of the positive effects” [C76].

Implications for education improvement mentioned in the interviews include the balancing and sharing of benefits and responsibilities, community participation in tourism and the

commitment of NGOs. However, according to the respondents, the duties of NGOs are less about tourism than about the establishment of basic facilities for water supply, health care and education. Consequently, NGOs play a supporting role in the improvement of education in connection with community participation in tourism.

Depending on the cause-and-effect relations, the private and public sectors must take the leading role in addressing this issue. The private sector can help improve the level of education of local communities by creating job opportunities and by providing informal in-house training. The public sector can support this tourism-driven improvement of education through efforts to balance the benefits and costs of tourism in an equitable way at the individual and the community level. The public and private sectors must focus on various forms and levels of participation of community members. This requires involvement during different stages of tourism planning and management and at different power levels – from passive participation to self-reliant action. Again, awareness of local conditions and constraints as well as of the impacts and limits of tourism development is an important framework condition.

5.5.3 Cooperation

Cooperation, teamwork, synergy and the involvement of all stakeholders are important aspects of responsible tourism and community participation. The investigations of the causal relations in tourism development in Myanmar have even shown that cooperation is the key instrument to use here.

However, during the interviews, there were also some respondents who expressed perceptions of cooperation such as this: *“People from Myanmar are not very good at teamwork. Teamwork is only good in monasteries, not in business”* [B53]. *“Another thing we don't understand is synergy: combining the strengths of different aspects”* [C31].

Therefore, cooperation in connection with community participation is investigated from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar. The relevant cause-and-effect relations are displayed in the causal net graph in Figure 14.

According to the respondents, intrinsic values such as Buddhism and awareness are supporting variables with favourable effects. Even the natural disaster Cyclone Nargis¹² and the widespread poverty are considered to have a positive effect on cooperation in that the

¹² In early May of 2008 Cyclone Nargis devastated the Irrawaddy delta region and resulted in economic damage estimated at \$4.1 billion and deaths of more than 138,000 people (UNESCAP 2011: 103).

Finally, participatory approaches based on cooperation lead to the empowerment of stakeholders involved in general and of local communities in particular.

In conclusion, cooperation is a key measure, which has to be considered and pursued by all stakeholders involved. Although competition within the private sector is a major constraint, this is an intrinsic characteristic of economic activities and is thus unlikely to be eliminated.

5.6 Summary: Transformation and Community Participation in Tourism in the Context of Myanmar

The research method applied in this chapter is of an exploratory and qualitative nature. Consequently, its scientific value relies on the subjective opinions of the respondents as well as on the author's interpretations. However, the theoretical sampling of interview partners based on the principle of structural variation and the systematic analysis of the interviews using GABEK have ensured the traceability and comprehensiveness of the research process.

The empirical analysis showed that tourism development and transformation are related not only from a theoretical point of view. In the wake of the country's economic and political opening, tourism stakeholders in Myanmar in particular perceive changes on the demand side which result not only in an increase in the number of tourist arrivals and increasing cultural exchange but also in capacity shortage and price increases. While significant changes in the tourism industry have yet to be made, the respondents were very optimistic about future developments. The sustainable growth of the tourism industry is believed to increase the country's well-being through tourism-related infrastructure development, education and employment.

According to the respondents, Myanmar's cultural diversity and natural resources are key conditions for the successful implementation of responsible tourism and community participation.

The concept of responsible tourism is considered a tool for sustainable development, the aim of which is to 'make better places for people to live in and better places to visit'. The general understanding and awareness of issues of responsible tourism development are believed to result from activities the public and private sectors implement in this area with international support. In the future, both the public- and the private-sector representatives must refer to these successful measures and make further efforts to put efficient systems and channels in place. In addition, the respondents stated that both sectors must promote mutual understanding and awareness among all stakeholders involved.

The concept of community participation is particularly associated with income and employment generation. Respondents rarely consider community involvement at a self-reliant level. This may have to do with the existing disparities power and standards of living in the country. In fact, the former military regime prevented the empowerment of local communities. Still, there are also power disparities within the industry. The constraints identified include the dominance of a few major destinations and the small number of private-sector stakeholders. Lack of motivation is also a potential barrier to community involvement. A comprehensive analysis of the reasons would go beyond the scope of this study, but they should be investigated nonetheless.

The analysis presented in this study has shown that the regulatory framework for tourism in Myanmar, particularly with respect to homestays, prevents community involvement. Therefore, political stability, CBT and homestay licences and balanced developments adapted to local conditions are key facilitators of community participation from the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar.

In addition to the detailed analysis of community participation and responsible tourism, this chapter has discussed these issues with a focus on three factors that affect Myanmar's tourism industry.

Given that capacity shortage results from gaps in tourism demand and supply in particular, the public sector must create an environment that regulates the sustainable utilisation of land and tourism facilities. This includes the establishment and implementation of regulations on land zoning and supporting activities for the development of new tourist destinations and the encouragement of private-sector investments in accommodation and transport infrastructure.

The investigation of tourism-driven improvement of education in Myanmar has shown that both the private and the public sector must take the leading role in addressing this issue – the private sector by creating job opportunities and providing informal in-house training, and the public sector through efforts to balance the benefits and costs of tourism in an equitable way at the individual level and the community level. Moreover, varied community participation, awareness and understanding are also important facilitators.

Tourism industry can benefit enormously from joint efforts and synergy both within and outside the country. From the perspective of stakeholders in Myanmar, cooperation is thus a key measure that must be considered and pursued by everyone involved.

6 Conclusion

The main purpose of this thesis is to improve our understanding of the interrelations of community participation in tourism and transformation processes. In attempting to attain this objective, two approaches have been used: first, based on a systematic literature review, the state of scientific research in this field has been discussed. Second, the field of research has been considered empirically using the example of Myanmar, a country which is paving the way to transformation and whose tourism stakeholders have made efforts towards the responsible development of the industry. This chapter provides a synthesis of the theoretical and empirical findings and presents an outlook for future research.

6.1 Central Findings and Implications

In the previous chapters, this thesis has highlighted that the interrelations of transformation processes and community participation are, to a limited degree, symbiotic. But, because it is necessary to consider individual contexts of transformation processes and due to the underlying complexity of the concepts of tourism, sustainable development and community participation, these interrelations are difficult to verify and impossible (or at least inappropriate) to generalise.

Given this, one could say that there is neither one single answer to the question of how the stage of development (of tourism and of a country) can benefit community participation. Nor is there one single way to involve local communities in tourism practices to contribute to transformation. However, following the aim of sustainable development and an approach to govern tourism transformation in a responsible manner, some success indicators and implications that promote long-term growth, empowerment and well-being can be identified.

As outlined in the theoretical discussion, tourism is seen as a driver of economic development because it contributes to the balance of payments, the diversification of economies and employment, particularly in developing countries. This thesis has also shown that in reality these benefits are rather small due to leakages of tourism expenditure to external stakeholders, the dominance of a few elite groups and the creation of jobs the majority of which are of a low-paid and inferior nature. Therefore, the central question in every destination should be: How to create mechanisms and systems which are aligned with economic development goals and contribute to overall change as well?

Community participation has been regarded a means to achieve this for a long time because it is associated with fewer power disparities amongst stakeholders and increased opportunities

for economic benefits of local communities – in short, with social, institutional and economic empowerment. Again, there is a gap between theory and practice. In reality, this approach usually manifests itself in the form of passive involvement of community members in tourism practices.

The theoretical discussion of community participation in tourism has also outlined that a high degree of participation (including autonomous self-reliance) requires several conditions to be met that do not necessarily exist in local communities, first and foremost capacities and capabilities. Because the present discussion of community participation particularly addresses developing and transformation countries (i.e. countries that are, by definition, in a process of advancing their status), the question arises whether the aforementioned fact of low involvement is a barrier to or just a necessary prerequisite for an advanced stage of involvement.

Further, the analysis has identified four dimensions (economic, environmental, socio-cultural, organisational) of the field of research which have to be considered as interrelated elements and which imply specific success indicators for the involvement of local communities:

- ▶ Economic empowerment addressing individual and community levels,
- ▶ Environmental awareness as the prerequisite for the appreciation, preservation and efficient utilisation of resources,
- ▶ Social cohesion based on local identity, equity and interaction,
- ▶ Organisational efficacy through the institutionalisation of cooperation and power distribution.

However, not every dimension has the same implications. While the greatest benefits of community participation in tourism seemingly appear in economic aspects that also promote the development of communities, the greatest risk identified is the degradation of the environment and the traditional culture because the growth of tourism in peripheral areas often goes hand in hand with the exploitation of these vulnerable assets. Equitable and efficient distribution of power within the organisational dimension represents the biggest threat to communities to get involved and for tourism development to benefit from this involvement. These findings also illustrate the complexity of the field of research and the necessity of holistic approaches in practice.

Myanmar is on the way to such a holistic approach to managing responsible development in tourism. Since efforts have been made to open up the country in the form of economic and

political reforms, the country appears to be on a path to democracy and market economy, but it will be a long way to go.

This thesis has shown that Myanmar's political situation has a significant influence on the stage of national and tourism development. Thus, political and economic opening and stability are critical prerequisites for the country's transformation to democracy, the improvement of the well-being of Myanmar's population and the growth of international tourism. Although tourism demand has gradually increased since the 1990s and although there have been enormous increases since 2011, tourism in Myanmar is still undeveloped.

In the analysis of the national development and responsible tourism development, a special focus has been on Myanmar's unique identity. The country's rich natural resources are important catalysts for economic development. At the same time, Myanmar's unspoilt landscapes and its cultural diversity are of major importance in attracting tourists. Consequently, this conflict between the commercial utilisation of natural and human resources to promote economic transformation and their preservation as important assets for tourism must be faced.

There is an essential need for tourism stakeholders, first and foremost the public and private sectors, to lobby for and promote the responsible utilisation and preservation of these resources to other interest groups. Awareness needs to be built among public authorities, other industries, local communities and tourists, or else the tourism industry will lose its competitive advantage in the long run.

With their efforts to direct the industry towards responsible tourism practices and sustainable development, the public and private sectors are taking the first steps to face future challenges. Based on empirical findings, national stakeholders' awareness of sustainable development issues and the concept of a collaborative, responsible tourism governance approach is an important advantage for the future. However, the main threats the case study analysis has identified include capacity shortage, the low level of education and barriers to cooperation in the industry.

Few destinations and stakeholders dominate the tourism supply in Myanmar. The main challenges for the future which result from this concentrated supply arise from a lack of capacity in terms of human resources, accommodation, transport systems and purchase of tourism-related goods and services. Moreover, the concentration leads to very limited benefits at the local and individual levels. This makes the development of the tourism industry an

economic and political issue. In order to make tourism grow, a framework must be established to spread demand and supply both geographically and organisationally.

The investigation of community participation in tourism in Myanmar has shown that, like elsewhere, participation in this country is primarily associated with economic benefits and the passive involvement of the local population. Nevertheless, due to the political situation in the past, restrictions to tourists on where and how they are allowed to travel and due to the dominance of a few destinations and stakeholders, tourism is still largely undeveloped and, from a solely economic point of view, communities actually benefit very little from tourism development.

The theoretical and empirical findings of this study can be used to derive some key implications which may pave the way for tourism-driven transformation in Myanmar:

- ▶ Development of different forms of tourism at different destinations which create various benefits and costs, encourage interaction between tourists and local community members and truly consider inherent characteristics of the places where tourism occurs;
- ▶ Building capacities – tangible (e.g., transport system, hotel construction) and intangible (e.g., training, education, institutions);
- ▶ Mobilisation for external (national and international) intervention for technical and financial support whilst defining clear exit strategies;
- ▶ Establishment of participatory decision-making mechanisms, effective communication and information systems which enable cooperation between all tourism stakeholders.

Finally, as previously outlined, there is no ‘one model fits all’ solution. But, a process that is based on long-term justification, transparency, open dialogue, reliability, mutual understanding and participation in tourism has a good chance of improving the well-being of everyone involved.

6.2 Limitations of the Study and Outlook for Further Research

The results of this thesis raise several issues for future research. As outlined, there is a great complexity inherent to the concepts of community participation, transformation and responsible tourism development. This thesis has used two methodologies which aim to reduce complexity and thus contribute to a general understanding of multifaceted systems and

relations. However, both methodologies lack flexibility and thus only partly allow for a holistic understanding.

Consequently, this thesis can only analyse some of them and attempt to provide further insights by investigating one selected case. Benchmarking developments in other countries in transformation could be a means to improve our overall understanding and, although there will not be one single solution, to identify commonalities and derive success indicators for action.

Moreover, with regard to the case study on Myanmar, several open questions remain. The country is highly dynamic – what is true today is not necessarily true tomorrow. Observing developments over a longer period of time would therefore be interesting as well as relevant.

This thesis has investigated community participation in Myanmar, mainly from a private-sector perspective. In order to gain a better understanding, a detailed investigation is needed of the perceptions and attitudes of those most affected (the communities), of those in power (the public sector) and of those encouraged to bring change (NGOs).

References

- Arnstein, S. (1969):** A Ladder of Citizen Participation. In: *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*. Vol. 35, No. 5, pp. 296–329.
- ADB (Asian Development Bank) (2011):** Asian Development Bank & Myanmar. Factsheet [Online, October 24]. Available at http://216.109.65.20/Documents/Fact_Sheets/MYA.pdf, accessed October 28, 2012.
- ADB (2012a):** ADB, Norway to Help Myanmar Manage Tourism Boom. Press Release [Online, October 11]. Available at <http://www.adb.org/news/adb-norway-help-myanmar-manage-tourist-boom?ref=themes/environment/news>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- ADB (2012b):** Myanmar in Transition: Opportunities and Challenges. Mandaluyong City: Asian Development Bank.
- ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) (2012):** Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN [Online, June 30]. Available at <http://www.aseansec.org/stat/Table%2028%20n.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- BBC (2012):** Timeline: Reforms in Burma [Online, April 30]. Available at <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-asia-16546688>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Bertelsmann Foundation (2012a):** Bertelsmann Transformation Index BTI. Country Report Myanmar 2012 [Online, March 25]. Available at <http://www.bti-project.de/fileadmin/Inhalte/reports/2012/pdf/BTI%202012%20Myanmar.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Bertelsmann Foundation (2012b):** Bertelsmann Transformation Index BTI. Methodology [Online]. Available at <http://www.bti-project.org/index/methode/>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Booyens, I. (2010):** Rethinking township tourism: Towards responsible tourism development in South African townships. In: *Development Southern Africa*. Vol. 27, Issue 2, pp. 273–287.
- Bramwell, B. & Lane, B. (2011):** Editorial Introduction. Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 19, No. 4/5, pp. 411–421.
- Britton, S. (1989):** Tourism, Dependency and Development: A Mode of Analysis. In: Singh, T. V., Theuns, L. H. & Go, F. M. (eds.): *Towards Appropriate Tourism: The Case of Developing Countries*. Frankfurt [et al.]: Peter Lang. pp. 93–116.
- Brown, F. & Hall, D. (2008):** Tourism and Development in the Global South: the issues. In: *Third World Quarterly*. Vol. 29, No. 5, pp. 839–849.
- Buber, R. & Kraler, C. (2000):** How GABEK and WinRelan support qualitative research. In Buber, R. & Zelger, J. (eds.), *GABEK 2. Zur qualitativen Forschung. On qualitative research*. Innsbruck [et al.]: Studien-Verlag, pp. 111–137.
- Butler, R. (1999):** Tourism – An Evolutionary Perspective. In: Nelson, J. G., Butler, R. & Wall, G. (eds.): *Tourism and Sustainable Development: Monitoring, Planning, Managing, Decision Making. A Civic Approach. Second Edition*. Waterloo: University of Waterloo, Department of Geography. pp. 33–62.

- Caffyn, A. & Jobbins, G. (2003):** Governance Capacity and Stakeholder Interactions in the Development and Management of Coastal Tourism: Examples from Morocco and Tunisia. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 11, No. 2/3, pp. 224–245.
- Capó, J. & Valle, E. (2008):** The Macroeconomic Contribution of Tourism. In: Ramos, A. & Jimenez, P. (eds.): *Tourism Development: Economics, Management and Strategy*. New York: Nova Science. pp. 201–226.
- Choguill, M. B. G. (1996):** A Ladder of Community Participation for Underdeveloped Countries. In: *Habitat International*. Vol. 20, No. 3, pp. 431–444.
- Choi, H. C. & Murray, I. (2010):** Residents attitudes towards sustainable community tourism. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 18, No. 4, pp. 575–594.
- Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994):** *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Ekeh, C. & Smith, M. (2007):** Minorities in Burma. Briefing [Online, November 1]. Available at <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/pdfid/47298f632.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Fauzi, A. & Buchary, E. A. (2002):** A Socioeconomic Perspective of Environmental Degradation at Kepulauan Seribu Marine National Park, Indonesia. In: *Coastal Management*. Vol. 30, Issue 2, pp. 167–181.
- Flick, U. (2007):** Zur Qualität qualitativer Forschung – Diskurse und Ansätze. In: Kuckartz, U., Grunenberg, H. & Dresing, T. (eds.): *Qualitative Datenanalyse: computergestützt. Methodische Hintergründe und Beispiele aus der Forschungspraxis*. Second Edition. Wiesbaden: VS Verl. für Sozialwissenschaften. pp. 188-209.
- Gang, C. (2011):** Sustainable Development of Eco-Cultural Tourism in Remote Regions: Lessons Learned from Southwest China. In: *International Journal of Business Anthropology*. Vol. 2, No. 1, p. 123–135.
- GIZ (Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit) (2008):** Ein Überblick – Korruption und Antikorruption in der Nachbarschaft. Länderfactsheets und Informationsquellen. Unterstützung von Partnerländern bei der Implementierung der Konventionen der Vereinten Nationen gegen Korruption (UNCAC). Workingpaper. Eschborn.
- GTZ (Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit) (2007):** Tourism as a Field of Activity in German Development Cooperation. A Basic Overview, Priority Areas for Action and Strategic Recommendations. Eschborn: Beyer, Häusler & Strasdas.
- Hakala, H. (2010):** Strategic Orientations in Management Literature: Three Approaches to Understanding the Interaction between Market, Technology, Entrepreneurial and Learning Orientations. In: *International Journal of Management Reviews*. Vol. 13, Issue 2, pp. 199–217.
- Hall, D. (2008):** From ‘Bricklaying’ to ‘Bricolage’: Transition and Tourism Development in Central and Eastern Europe. In: *Tourism Geographies*. Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 410–428.

- Harden, A. & Thomas, J. (2005):** Methodological Issues in Combining Diverse Study Types in Systematic Reviews. In: *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*. Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 257–271.
- Harrison, D. (1992):** International Tourism and the less developed countries: The Background. In: Harrison, D. (ed.): *Tourism & the Less Developed Countries*. London: CABI. pp. 1-18.
- Häusler, N. (2011):** Same same but different – concepts of tourism dimensions. In: *Rural 21*. Vol. 45, No. 4, Volume 45, p. 16.
- Häusler, N. (2012):** Tourismusentwicklung in Myanmar – Rückblick und Aussicht [Online, March 22]. Available at http://www.icrt-germany.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/Tourismusentwicklung-in-Myanmar_Haeusler_Maerz20121.pdf, accessed October 28, 2012.
- HSF, MoHT, MTF, Tourism Transparency (2012):** Dos and dont's for tourists. How you can visit Myanmar responsibly [Online, October 26]. Available at <http://www.dosanddonsfortourists.com/>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Human Rights Watch (2008):** Chronology of Burma's Constitutional Process [Online, April 30]. Available at <http://www.hrw.org/reports/2008/burma0508/burma0508chronology.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Hung, K., Sirakay-Turk, E. & Ingram, L. J. (2010):** Testing the Efficiency of an Integrative Model for Community Participation. In: *Journal of Travel Research*. Vol. 50, No. 3, pp. 276–288.
- Info Birmanie (2011):** Report on Tourism in Burma [Online, June 28]. Available at http://www.info-birmanie.org/web/images/stories/TOURISM_REPORT_IB_June2011.pdf, accessed October 28, 2012.
- ICRT (International Centre for Responsible Tourism) (2012):** Taking Responsibility for Tourism [Online]. Available at <http://www.icrtourism.org/responsible-tourism/>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Jamal, T.B. & Getz, D. (1995):** Collaboration Theory and Community Tourism Planning. In: *Annals of Tourism Research*. Vol. 29, No. 1, pp. 79–105.
- Jayawardena, C. (2002):** Future Challenges for Tourism in the Caribbean. In: *Social and Economic Studies*. Vol. 51, Issue 1, pp. 1–23.
- Jensen, Ø. (2010):** Social mediation in remote developing world tourism locations – the significance of social ties between local guides and host communities in sustainable tourism development. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 18, No. 5, pp. 615–633.
- Job, H. & Weizenegger, S. (2004):** Tourismus in Entwicklungsländern. In: Becker, C., Hopfinger, H. & Steinecke, A. (eds.): *Geographie der Freizeit und des Tourismus. Bilanz und Ausblick*. Second Edition. Munich: Oldenbourg. pp. 627–640.
- Kelle, U. (2008):** Die Integration qualitativer und quantitativer Methoden in der empirischen Sozialforschung. Theoretische Grundlagen und methodologische Konzepte. Second Edition. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

- Kibicho, W. (2008):** Community-based Tourism: A Factor-Cluster Segmentation Approach. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 16, Issue 2, pp. 211–231.
- Kleining, G. (1982):** Umriss zu einer Methodologie Qualitativer Sozialforschung. In: *Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*. Vol. 34, pp. 224–253.
- Kruse, J. (2011):** Reader ‘Einführung in die Qualitative Interviewforschung’. Freiburg.
- Lepper, C. M. & Schroenn Goebel, J. (2010):** Community-based natural resource management, poverty alleviation and livelihood diversification: A case study from northern Botswana. In: *Development Southern Africa*. Vol. 27, No. 5, pp. 725–739.
- Manyara, G. & Jones, E. (2007):** Community-based Tourism Enterprises Development in Kenya: An Exploration of Their Potential as Avenues of Poverty Reduction. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 15, No. 6, pp. 628–644.
- Martens, P. & Rotmans, J. (2005):** Transitions in a globalising world. In: *Futures*. Vol. 37, pp. 1133–1144.
- mas|contour (2012):** Impulse, No. 3 [Online, September 27]. Available at <http://www.mascontour.info/Media/Newsletter/1209240NewsltrEN.pdf> , accessed October 28, 2012.
- Matarrita-Cascante, D., Brennan, M. A. & Luloff, A. E. (2010):** Community agency and sustainable tourism development: the case of La Fortuna, Costa Rica. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 18, No. 6, pp. 735–756.
- Mekong Tourism Forum (2011):** Myanmar Country Report. Appendix 5.2 [Online, July 15]. Available at <http://mekongtourism.org/website/wp-content/uploads/2011/07/Appendix-5.2.-Myanmar-country-report-2010-TWG-27.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism Myanmar) (2008):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2007-2008 [Online, October 22]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/2007-2008.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2009a):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2008 [Online, March 6]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/2008.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2009b):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2008-2009 [Online, August 18]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/2008-2009.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2010a):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2009 [Online, January 13]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/2009.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2010b):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2009-2010 [Online, July 13]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/2009-2010.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2011):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2010 [Online, January 11]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/2010.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2012a):** Myanmar Tourism Statistics 2011 [Online, January 3]. Available at <http://www.myanmar-tourism.org/journals/Tourism%20Statistics%202011.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.

- MoHT (2012b):** Responsible Tourism Policy for Myanmar. Yangon: Häusler, Munz, Aye, Yar Zar, Kasüske & Goodwin [Online, September 27]. Available at <http://www.mascontour.info/Media/TourismPolicyMyanmar.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- MoHT (2012c):** Strategic Tourism Planning for Splendid Bagan. Presentation in Paro, Bhutan [Online, June 26]. Available at <http://asiapacific.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/myanmar.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Mitchell, J. & Ashley, C. (2010):** Tourism and Poverty Reduction. Pathways to Prosperity. London: Earthscan.
- Mowforth, M. & Munt, I. (2003):** Tourism and Sustainability. Development and New Tourism in the Third World. Second Edition. London & New York: Routledge.
- Murota, T. & Glazyrina, I. (2010):** Common-pool resources in East Russia: a case study on the creation of a new national park as a form of community-based natural resource governance. In: Environmental Economics and Policy Studies. Vol. 11, pp. 37–52.
- Oo, A. K. (2008):** BIMSTEC-Japan Cooperation in Tourism Development: Myanmar Perspective. Centre for Studies in International Relations and Development (CSIRD) Discussion Paper No. 37. Kolkata [Online, April 12]. Available at <http://www.csird.org.in/pdf/DP37.pdf>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Oxford English Dictionary (2012):** Community [Online]. Available at <http://oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/community?q=community>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Payne, D. & Dimanche, F. (1996):** Towards a Code of Conduct for the Tourism Industry: An Ethics Model. In: Journal of Business Ethics. Vol. 15, Issue 9, pp. 997–1007.
- Pechlaner, H. & Volgger, M. (2012):** How to promote cooperation in the hospitality industry: Generating practitioner-relevant knowledge using the GABEK qualitative research strategy. In: International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management. Vol. 24, Issue 6.
- Pongponrat, K. & Pongquan, S. (2007):** Community Participation in a Local Tourism Planning Process – A Case Study of Nathon Community on Samui Island, Thailand. In: Asia-Pacific Journal of Rural Development. Vol. 17, No. 2, pp. 27–46.
- Pretty, J. (1995):** Participatory Learning for Sustainable Agriculture. In: World Development. Vol. 23, No. 8, pp. 1247–1263.
- Puhakka, R., Sarkki, S., Cottrell, S. P. & Siikamäki, P. (2009):** Local discourses and international initiatives: sociocultural Sustainability of tourism in Oulanka National Park, Finland. In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism. Vol. 17, No. 5, pp. 529–549.
- Rebollo, J. F. V. & Baidal, J. A. I. (2003):** Measuring Sustainability in a Mass Tourist Destination: Pressures, Perceptions and Policy Responses in Torrevieja, Spain. In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism. Vol. 11, No. 2 & 3, pp. 181–203.
- Reid, D. (2003):** Tourism, Globalization and Development. Responsible Tourism Planning. London, United Kingdom: Pluto Press.

- Respect (2003):** Golden Burma oder Terra non grata? Eine Auseinandersetzung mit Argumenten gegen oder für eine Reise nach Burma/Myanmar. Zusammenfassung. Wien: Baumgartner, Predota & Leithold.
- Richards, G. & Hall, D. (2000):** The community: a sustainable concept in tourism development? In: Richards, G. & Hall, D. (eds.): *Tourism and Sustainable Community Development*. London: Routledge. pp. 1–13.
- Richter, L. K. (1992):** Political instability and tourism in the Third World. In: Harrison, D. (ed.): *Tourism & the Less Developed Countries*. London: CABI. pp. 35–46.
- Saarinen, J. & Kask, T. (2008):** Transforming Tourism Spaces in Changing Socio-Political Contexts: The Case of Pärnu, Estonia, as a Tourist Destination. In: *Tourism Geographies*. Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 452–473.
- Saarinen, J. (2006):** Traditions of Sustainability in Tourism Studies. In: *Annals of Tourism Research*. Vol. 33, No. 4, pp. 1121–1140.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002):** *Tourism for Development. Empowering Communities*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Shone, M. C. & Memon, P. A. (2008):** Tourism, Public Policy and Regional Development: A Turn from Neo-liberalism to the New Regionalism. In: *Local Economy*. Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 290–304.
- Sofield, T. & Li, Sa. (2011):** Tourism governance and sustainable national development in China: a macro-level synthesis. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 19, No. 4-5, pp. 501–534.
- Soukiazis, E. & Proença, S. (2008):** Tourism as an alternative source of regional growth in Portugal: a panel data analysis at NUTS II and III levels. In: *Portuguese Economic Journal*, Vol. 7, pp. 43–61.
- Stiglitz, J. (1998):** Towards a New Paradigm for Development: Strategies, Policies, and Processes. Paper given as Prebish Lecture at UNCTAD, Geneva, October 19.
- Stiglitz, J. (2002):** Participation and Development: Perspectives from the Comprehensive Development Paradigm. In: *Review of Development Economics*. Vol. 6, No. 2, pp. 163–182.
- The New York Times (2012):** Myanmar President Announces New Reforms [Online, June 19]. Available at http://www.nytimes.com/2012/06/20/world/asia/myanmar-president-announces-new-reforms.html?_r=0, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Tosun, C. (2005):** Stages in the emergence of a participatory tourism development approach in the Developing World. In: *Geoforum*. Vol. 36, pp. 333–352.
- Tourism Concern (2012):** Burma [Online]. Available at <http://www.tourismconcern.org.uk/burma.html>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- TDNA (Travel Daily News Asia) (2012a):** Myanmar counts the days before the arrival of credit cards [Online, September 17]. Available at <http://www.traveldailynews.asia/news/article/50419/myanmar-counts-the-days-before>, accessed October 28, 2012.

- TDNA (2012b):** USA officially lifts the embargo on Myanmar [Online, July 13]. Available at <http://www.traveldailynews.asia/news/article/49967/usa-officially-lifts-the-embargo>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- TDNA (2012c):** Yangon struggles to welcome tourists due to room shortage [Online, September 26]. Available at <http://www.traveldailynews.asia/news/article/50490/yangon-struggles-to-welcome-tourists>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Tsartas, P. (2003):** Tourism Development in Greek Insular and Coastal Areas: Sociocultural Changes and Crucial Policy Issues. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Vol. 11, No. 2 & 3, pp. 116–132.
- UNDP (United Nations Development Program) (2011):** Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey (IHLCS) in Myanmar (2009-2010): Poverty Profile. Yangon: United Nations.
- UNESCAP (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific) (2011):** Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2011. Bangkok: United Nations.
- UNSD (United Nations Statistics Division) (2012):** Composition of macro geographical (continental) regions, geographical sub-regions, and selected economic and other groupings [Online, October 11]. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/methods/m49/m49regin.htm#ftnc>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization) (1989):** Yearbook of Tourism Statistics. 1988 Edition. Volume 2. Madrid: United Nations.
- UNWTO (1996):** Yearbook of Tourism Statistics. 48 Edition. Volume 2. Madrid: United Nations.
- UNWTO (2001):** Yearbook of Tourism Statistics. Data 1995-1999. 53 Edition. Volume 2. Madrid: United Nations.
- UNWTO (2004):** Indicators of Sustainable development for Tourism Destinations. A Guidebook. Madrid: United Nations.
- UNWTO (2006):** Yearbook of Tourism Statistics. Data 2000-2004. 2006 Edition. Madrid: United Nations.
- UNWTO (2009):** Tourism and Community Development – Asian Practices. Second Edition. Madrid: United Nations.
- UNWTO (2011):** Yearbook of Tourism Statistics. Data 2005-2009. 2011 Edition. Madrid: United Nations.
- Valentin, A. (2012):** Pro-poor tourism can lift Burma out of poverty. In: *Democratic Voice of Burma* [Online, March 12]. Available at <http://www.dvb.no/analysis/pro-poor-tourism-can-lift-burma-out-of-poverty/20686>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Veal, A.J. (1997):** Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A Practical Guide. London: Pearson Professional.
- Von Hauff, M. (2010):** Die wirtschaftliche Entwicklung Burmas und die Sanktionen gegen Burma – eine Bewertung. In: Köster, U. (ed.): *Die Qual der Wahl. Chancen und Grenzen des politischen Wandels in Burma/Myanmar*. Essen: Focus Asien, No. 34.

- Wang, Y. & Wall, G. (2005):** Sharing the benefits of Tourism: A Case Study in Hainan, China. In: *Environments Journal*. Vol. 33, No. 1, pp. 41–59.
- Welford, R. & Ytterhus, B. (1998):** Conditions for the Transformation of Eco-Tourism into Sustainable Tourism. In: *European Environment*. Vol. 8, pp. 193–201.
- WCED (World Commission on Environment and Development) (1987):** Our Common Future. New York: Oxford University Press.
- World of Maps (2011):** Myanmar [Online, August 22]. Available at <http://www.worldofmaps.net/typo3temp/pics/4485e380a0.png>, accessed October 28, 2012.
- Zelger, J. (2002):** GABEK: Handbuch zum Verfahren GABEK®-WinRelan® 5.2, Band 1: Von der Problemstellung zum Zwischenbericht. Innsbruck: University of Innsbruck.
- Zelger, J. (2004):** WinRelan®. Windows Relation Analysis. Short Manual. Innsbruck: University of Innsbruck.

Annex

- (1) Systematic Literature Review: Analysis Stage III
- (2) International Tourist Arrivals in Myanmar 1990–2012
- (3) Interview Guideline

Annex 1: Systematic Literature Review: Analysis Stage III

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
<p>Booyens (2010)</p>	<p><i>Rethinking township tourism: Towards responsible tourism development in South African townships.</i></p> <p>In: Development Southern Africa</p>	<p>Responsible Tourism; townships; visitor demand; heritage; Soweto</p>	<p>Responsible Township Tourism Development</p>	<p>Soweto, South Africa</p>	<p>How can township tourism contribute to local economic development in a responsible way?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Qualitative: Structured face-to-face and telephone interviews with key stakeholders ▶ Literature review 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Gap between demand and supply of township tourism products (quantity & quality) ▶ Low level of transformation in tourism system, low share of community-owned enterprises, market entry barriers experiences by locals ▶ No significant benefits for local communities due to control of outsiders (limited contact tourists-locals, low occupancy rates), high share of packaged tours, few donations by tourists for local causes, lack of management and tourism-related skills ▶ Barriers to tourism development: (1) access to finance, (2) lack of tourism specific infrastructure, (3) poor information and marketing, (4) crime and violence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Township tourism not necessarily adequate means for local economic development → investigation of other avenues needed ▶ Increased promotion of local ownership of tourism enterprises, local entrepreneurship and local participation needed ▶ Briefing of tourists about appropriate behaviour towards locals/local culture ▶ Encouragement of small group travel, tourist spending, and overnight stays ▶ Responsibilities of the government: broad range of strategic interventions such as establishment of adequate infrastructure, development of regulatory framework ▶ Responsibilities of DMOs/local tourism authorities: (1) efforts to spread benefits, and to manage tourism impacts, (2) enhance co-operation with local communities, tourism organisations and private sector, (3) stakeholder involvement to decision-making process, (4) integration of tourism development into a broader local economic development strategy ▶ Require outsiders to obtain permits when operating in the community ▶ Increase interaction tourist-locals e.g., by offering volunteer work (managed by NGOs) ▶ Diversification of tourism products by consumer-oriented product development, creative innovations ▶ Detailed and sensitive planning crucial aiming for local development
<p>Caffyn and Jobbins (2003)</p>	<p><i>Governance Capacity and Stakeholder Interactions in the Development and Management of Coastal Tourism: Examples from Morocco and Tunisia</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism</p>	<p>/</p>	<p>governance capacity and stakeholder interactions in connection with Tourism development and management</p>	<p>Coastal Areas in Morocco and Tunisia</p>	<p>To what extent can coastal tourism be developed and managed in a sustainable and integrated way in countries with centralised governance systems and a deficit of local democracy?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Qualitative: Semi-structured, key-informant interviews ▶ Analysis of secondary data from state agencies ▶ Theoretical background: Kooiman's concept of governance capacities and stakeholder involvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Lacking of sharing information due to administrative culture (comprises all stakeholders, although NGOs had the most complete information) ▶ Governing instruments entirely in the hand of state administration – main aim: remain power of influential stakeholders ▶ Constraints to development of community-based projects and NGOs due to lack of awareness from local authorities and a lack of social structures/institutions ▶ Constraints for stakeholder interaction/participation: (1) high level of hierarchy (inflexibility, time consuming), (2) bureaucratic structures, (3) power disparities, (4) regulatory framework (NGOs), (5) inter-service rivalry (private), (6) lack of engagement, (7) no community groups in place, (8) lack of human, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Rigid government structures (top-down command and control nature) don't have capacity to enable integrated development ▶ Greatest obstacle for sustainable tourism development: socio-political constrains operating on decentralization and participatory governance ▶ Conflicts in programmes and policies due to lack of information sharing, of integrated analysis and reliance on instrumental action discouraging participation in governance ▶ Shift towards sustainable management plans only addresses environment → broader inclusion of social, economic and political aspects needed ▶ More balanced power relations and better

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
							social, capital resources ▶ Aspects supporting stakeholder interaction (public): accountability, command, close supervision to subordinates	communication systems needed ▶ Need for scientific research
Choi and Murray (2010)	<i>Residents attitudes towards sustainable community tourism</i> In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism	Sustainable tourism policy; community development; resident attitudes; planning; structural equation model	Attitudes and perceptions of locals towards a sustainable tourism development and CP	New Braunfels, Texas, USA	▶ What role do residents play in the tourism development process? ▶ Which indicators influence their attitudes towards sustainable community tourism?	▶ Quantitative: Standardised questionnaire survey (430 households) ▶ Theoretical framework relies highly on social exchange theory	▶ Perception of tourism impacts (pos: employment, tax, standard of living etc. and neg: noise, acculturation, crime etc.) strongly influences future support for tourism development ▶ Strong attitude of a respondent toward CP → less supportive for future tourism development, less likely to perceive positive impacts, but more likely to perceive its negative impact → attitudes reflect past experiences ▶ Need for involvement of local community in decision-making process and huge willingness of locals to participate identified	▶ In industrialized countries, residents request stakeholder collaboration as they are most affected by tourism → involvement in planning, implementing and monitoring ▶ Long-term planning requires involvement of several stakeholders, government with an integral role in determining and implementing policies ▶ Empowerment to meet criticism that CP is minimal, passive, partial, static and short-lived → information, education, training of locals, public and private sectors
Fauzi and Bucharly (2002)	<i>A Socioeconomic Perspective of Environmental Degradation at Kepulauan Seribu Marine National Park, Indonesia</i> In: Coastal Management	Environmental degradation; Indonesia; Kepulauan Seribu, marine protected areas; socio-economics	Intrinsic tourism causes of the internal problems from a socio-economic perspective	Kepulauan Seribu Marine National Park, Indonesia	Assessment of the social and economic impact establishing marine protected areas in Indonesia	▶ Qualitative: Field observations, semi-structured interviews ▶ Analysis of secondary data	▶ Environmental degradation in the case study site is caused by (1) social factors such as lack of locals' participation in governance and lack of effective communication, and (2) economic factors such as demand and supply, human resources, gear productivity and employment prospects alike	▶ In particular poverty and marginalisation have to be addressed to meet the objectives of environmental protection of the area as they are main causes for environmental degradation (e.g., by overfishing) ▶ Adequate provision of alternative economic opportunities, integrated with tourism development strategies ▶ Provision of a working community educational/vocational facility ▶ Participation → consensus building on development objectives, decision making at a local level, encourage local ownership ▶ Training programmes → local employment in tourism industry ▶ Limitation of commercial fishing ▶ Provision of opportunities to communities to learn from other communities' success stories ▶ Enforcement of conservation laws ▶ Increasing effective communication systems to all stakeholders
Gang (2011)	<i>Sustainable Development of Eco-Cultural Tourism in Remote Regions: Lessons Learned from SW China</i> In International Journal of Business Anthropology	/	Development anthropology related to eco-cultural tourism	Lugo Lake, Southwest China	Assessment of tourism development activities and their impacts on all stakeholders' involvement	▶ Open-ended interviews with villagers ▶ Analysis of secondary data	▶ Broad involvement of governments at various levels in management issues, top-down ▶ High level of benefits to local community (tourism trade – souvenirs, restaurants etc., recreational activities, standards of living) ▶ Some locals started tourism programs that fit local conditions ▶ Improvement of local capacity (infrastructure, roads, sewage system) was addressed by government after first tourism developments have been implemented ▶ Impacts of eco-cultural tourism: development of agriculture, stock raising, traditional handicraft, other industries in the study and neighbouring villages	▶ Although positive impacts have been achieved, locals don't experience positive developments as a result of the top-down approach, lack of information and communication between stakeholders ▶ Insufficient local participation and empowerment because development did not specify how to enhance empowerment ▶ Transparency of government policies and measures taken related to tourism is crucial ▶ Stakeholder theory and approach should be applied by the government to coordinate interest of all stakeholders

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
<p>Hung, Sirakay-Turk and Ingram (2010)</p>	<p><i>Testing the Efficacy of an Integrative Model for Community Participation</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Travel Research</p>	<p>MOA model, tourism participation; motivation; opportunity; ability; community participation</p>	<p>Motivation-opportunity-ability model as an integrated approach investigating CP</p>	<p>Charleston, South Carolina, USA</p>	<p>Integration of the means (process and conditions) and the ends (outcomes or end results) of CP in tourism (analysis from the standpoints of community members)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Quantitative: standardised questionnaire (296 households) ▶ Theory relies highly on MOA model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ MOA model acceptable fit to the data → extend to which community members participate in tourism development depends on motivation, opportunity, ability ▶ M: negative relationship: perceived benefits of tourism – level of participation → locals do not always participate although they think tourism makes positive contributions; reasons: (1) other factors also influence CP (e.g., costs of participation); (2) contribution to the community, not to individuals; (3) lack of interest in participation (local authorities take responsibility → CP not necessary) ▶ O: positive relation between level of CP and openness of local political structure (in supporting CP in tourism decision-making); top-down governance → lack of opportunity to CP → esp. in developing countries a shift in local political paradigm needed ▶ A: positive relation between awareness/knowledge of tourism development and CP; various means on a local level (television broadcasting, newspapers, pamphlets) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ MOA model as a succinct framework to analyze factors influencing community's decision to participate and impacts of their participation behaviour → contribution to scientific research and to tourism practices in destinations as MOA can be applied to enable or facilitate CP ▶ Major factor for nonparticipation: lack of opportunity → DMOs/local tourism authorities: public meetings, introduce mechanisms promoting CP → communication and information needed ▶ Perceived benefits should be personally relevant to community members in order to increase motivation ▶ Other aspects of ability (financial resources, travel experience, accessibility to information) should be taken into account in further investigations
<p>Jayawardena (2002)</p>	<p><i>Future Challenges for Tourism in the Caribbean</i></p> <p>In: Social and Economic Studies</p>	<p>/</p>	<p>Future challenges of the mature destination of the Caribbean</p>	<p>The Caribbean</p>	<p>Local inclusion and participation as a new paradigm for tourism development in the Caribbean</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Analysis of secondary data ▶ Theoretical background: Pyramid of Tourism Segmentation Model (POTS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Negative tourism impacts (crime, tourism harassment) as results of a lack of community involvement (exclusion through tourism enclaves) and low level benefits to communities living next to tourism resorts ▶ Need for a paradigm shift to alternative forms of tourism addressing planning, managing, controlling, reviewing and decision-making processes ▶ Tourism as the most important economic sector in the Caribbean due to consistent stagnation in other economic sectors ▶ Differentiations of four segments of "community" in the Caribbean based on their tourism involvement: (1) Communities investing in Tourism – leading business persons and small entrepreneurs, high degree of local ownerships benefits overall development of these economies; (2) Communities of workers directly employed in tourism – confident level, training, cohesiveness of employees, good relationship between management and workers as prerequisites of motivation and therefore, of success; (3) communities indirectly involved but benefiting from tourism – related to level of linkage tourism and other economic sectors, vending as an important source of income, quality of products requires support and technical expertise from private tourism sector and government; (4) other communities – resentments and hostility from communities within/near tourism centres not/very little receiving benefits from the industry → evaluation of community's sensitivity to the industry in planning sustainable tourism as an essential policy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Definition as tourism as an economic sector needed → appreciation of local authorities of the need for an overall strategic plan and co-ordination of activities ▶ Careful segmentation and niche marketing for market broadening and growth ▶ Need for planning of overall infrastructure and logistics for resort cities as adequate for expanding local communities, additional tourists and new (in-)direct job opportunities ▶ Government responsible for sustainable development (sound environmental management systems, quality assurance systems) and reducing strong dependency on North American feeder market ▶ Balance of development and sustainability as important strategic goal (moderation, control, co-ordination) ▶ Eco-tourism and special interest tourism play a key role in the shift from mass tourism to a more community-oriented approach ▶ All stakeholders' involvement required (to meet on a common platform)

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
							<p>goal</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Motivation for communities to encourage in tourism: job creation, general community development, increased revenue; CBT ensures supplementing of locals' income and equitable share of benefits ▶ Limitations to community approaches: centralised decision-making and administration, lack of cooperation and coordination between agencies and sectors, lack of financial and human resources, domination of community ventures by elite community members ▶ Success factors of community approaches: empowerment, protection of stakeholders' interests, accountability, monitoring/evaluation ▶ Enhanced inclusiveness: increasing supply of agricultural produce to tourism (awareness-raising/education to farmers and traders), support for development of arts and craft (upgrading skills, assisting with access to loans, marketing support) 	
Jensen (2010)	<p><i>Social mediation in remote developing world tourism locations – the significance of social ties between local guides and host communities in sustainable tourism development</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism</p>	Local guides; sustainable development; social mediation; social ties; remote communities; developing countries	Role of local guides in a sustainable (participatory) tourism development	Madagascar (remote regions in developing countries with limited tourism exposure and poorly developed tourism structures)	Role of local/regional guides as social mediators between host society and tourists as a means for sustainable tourism development → emphasis on the significance of social ties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Qualitative: 32 interviews with guides (different regions, conducted between 2005 and 2008) ▶ Field trip experience and observation, interviews with village representatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Local attachment to the guide tends to create a local involvement beyond the pure business aspect ▶ Social involvement (in the field of education and health) an important element of the guides' efforts ▶ Responsibility of the guide: educate tourists on behaviour, cultural norms, taboos etc ▶ Remoteness of communities (linked to accessibility, degree of social isolation, missing infrastructure, low level of contact to contemporary society) influences motivation to cultivate social ties with the regional guide in order to gain welfare benefits ▶ Social ties as facilitators, not prerequisites 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Increased use of local guides with strong social relationships to host communities → enhance involvement, enrich mutual experience, support local sustainable development ▶ Major catalyst of the commitment to visitation: long-term process of cultivating personal trust and familiarity ▶ Tourism growth → degradation of social depth of host-visitor/host-guide encounters possible
Kibicho (2008)	<p><i>Community-based Tourism: A Factor-Cluster Segmentation Approach</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism</p>	Community-based tourism; Kenya; Kenya wildlife reserve; Kimana wildlife sanctuary	Impacts of CBT projects in wildlife reserves on attitudes of local community members	Kimana wildlife sanctuary, Kenya	Why did the community-based tourism project of Kimana not succeed in its objective of producing attitudinal changes by the local community?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Quantitative: questionnaire survey (176 community members, random sample) ▶ Literature review 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Small scale CBT-projects can empower local communities by giving them a sense of pride in and awareness of the importance of their natural resources and control over their development; counterbalance to mass tourism ▶ To survive in global competition CBT-projects need support – local tourism authority as a significant actor (e.g., in terms of providing access to financial resources), local authority as main hindrance ▶ Lack of leadership structure → lack of mutual respect and shared learning between locals and public sector, lack of CP in decision making ▶ Homogenous community → subcategories: the operatives, the opinion leaders, the official leaders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Prerequisites for success of CBT projects: satisfaction of opinion leaders, secure support from official leaders, integration of operatives (=the general populace) ▶ CBT helps in avoiding stakeholder-conflicts, improving coordination of policies and related actions, using synergy effects (knowledge, insights, capabilities), but is hard to be translated into reality due to power disparities

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
<p>Lepper and Schroenn Goebel (2010)</p>	<p><i>Community-based natural resource management, poverty alleviation and livelihood diversification: A case study from northern Botswana</i></p> <p>In: Development Southern Africa</p>	<p>Tourism; conservation; community-based natural resource management (CBNRM); Botswana</p>	<p>Contribution of CBNRM to sustainable tourism development, local poverty alleviation and livelihood diversification</p>	<p>Ngamiland, Botswana</p>	<p>To which degree did community involvement in CBRN (through wage income and fee revenue) contribute to poverty alleviation and livelihood diversification in the study area?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Qualitative: interviews with staff members and representatives from middle/upper management level of community trustee initiative ▶ 8 months of field observation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ To some extent employment revenue alleviated poverty and acts as livelihood diversification strategy in the staff members' households in the study area ▶ Economic empowerment of communities is in parts met as wage revenues flow from households to greater community, but not extensive, as money stays mostly within (surrounding) households ▶ Income supports long-term poverty reduction by enabling education and local entrepreneurship ▶ Impacts of employment limited by capacity constraints within local labour force and a lack of additional demand ▶ No contribution through community-based organizations' (CBO) fee revenue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Community benefits are hindered by inherent sectoral features of tourism (high investment cost, substantial leakages, knowledge-intensity, capital-intensity, power/control of multinational private companies) and rural community challenges (lack of resources, power, business knowledge) ▶ Implementation of linkages with local and domestic economy are identified as a more effective means and is therefore needed for transmitting economic benefits to local communities (→ local enterprise development) ▶ Scale and type of tourism directly affect level of benefits (e.g., high-end tourism → high share of expenditures leads to international suppliers; lower budget tourism → expenditure is more likely to support local development) → local capacity building to enable local value creation ▶ Low efficacy of CBOs → review of management structures, building of financial management capacity of CBOs needed ▶ Significant tangible benefits from sustainable use of resources are of importance, their absence threatens to conservation and tourism
<p>Manyara and Jones (2007)</p>	<p><i>Community-based Tourism Enterprises Development in Kenya: An Exploration of Their Potential as Avenues of Poverty Reduction</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism</p>	<p>Community-based tourism; indigenous tourism entrepreneurship; sustainable tourism development; economic development; poverty reduction</p>	<p>Potential and challenges for poverty alleviation by community-based enterprises (CBE)</p>	<p>Kenya</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Development of a detailed understanding of CBEs ▶ Identification of catalysts for CBE establishment ▶ Identification of the role and degree of external intervention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Literature review on Kenyan tourism development → case study analysis (Kenyan CBEs) ▶ Qualitative: semi-structured interviews with key stakeholders ▶ Theoretical background: participatory rural appraisals (PRAs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Characteristics of CBEs: (1) community-owned, (2) full CP in its development and management, (3) communities as the main beneficiaries; (4) purposing sustainability and enhancing conservation ▶ Catalysts for establishment: external intervention (mainly), community leaders, private sector ▶ External intervention: major force behind development of CBEs (in drafting of proposals, resource mobilization, awareness creation, funding, capacity building, infrastructure development, business planning and development) due to lack of lack of local knowledge ▶ Main reasons for failure of CBEs: (1) lack of community support due to inadequate sensitisation during initial phase, (2) lack of basic skills and knowledge, (3) poor management, (4) unfavourable partnerships, (5) poor leadership, (6) lack of reinvestment/maintenance, (7) petty politics, elitism, (8) lack of exit strategies for external intervention, (9) lack of transparency ▶ Success factors of CBEs: (1) CP, (2) local ownership, (3) capacity to manage and operate CBEs ▶ Success indicators: (1) high occupancy rate, (2) high visitor numbers, (3) revenue generation, (4) communities' development priorities (e.g., access to education, health services, clean water, infrastructure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ External intervention should mainly be advisory and facilitative, avoiding interfering in community internal affairs ▶ Integration of sustainability approach to ensure longevity (esp. clear defined exit strategies for outsiders) ▶ Sensitisation and empowerment of local communities and their leader to enable informed decisions, secure capacity building and promote transparency ▶ Potential benefits are proportional to the level of local CP ▶ Benefits need to be spread from community to household level ▶ Importance of appropriate policy framework to support CBEs ▶ Neo-colonial model in place – whereby control of tourism resources is vested in the hands of a few foreigners ▶ CBEs without significant impacts on poverty reduction by now – due to reliance on donor funding, dependencies are created (which are indicators for poverty) ▶ CBEs need to emphasise independence, address local community priorities, enhance community empowerment and transparency,

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
							<p>development, support of diversified livelihoods)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ CBEs & poverty reduction: no significant impact on poverty yet, but potential is seen esp. by enhanced linkages, generation of employment, increased income, CBEs potential as an umbrella for SMTE growth, diversified livelihoods, social development of communities 	<p>discourage elitism, promote effective community leadership and develop community capacity to greatly enhance its impacts on economic development and poverty reduction</p>
<p>Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan and Luloff (2010)</p>	<p><i>Community agency and sustainable tourism development: the case of La Fortuna, Costa Rica</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism</p>	<p>Community agency; sustainable tourism; community-based tourism; Costa Rica; La Fortuna; field theory</p>	<p>Achievement of sustainable tourism practices by local social interactional elements</p>	<p>La Fortuna, Costa Rica</p>	<p>Investigation of social processes in which local residents engage to achieve community agency (micro level approach)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Qualitative: key informant interviews; participant observation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Surveyed case as an exceptional example of a community with high levels of strong community-oriented interaction, open communication, participation, tolerance and distributive justice → key elements for promotion/establishment of locally driven goals and actions ▶ Exchange of ideas, support for adaption of key decisions, emergence of collaborative organizations → interaction/open communication → removal of development barriers (lack of knowledge, access to information, low confidence, limited resources) ▶ Broad CP as prerequisite for tourism-driven change → informed decisions reflecting common concerns, needs and wants; ▶ Varied CP (different CP levels) → capacity for direct change in the community ▶ Economic sustainable practices highly depend on access to resources and self-reliance ▶ Local ownership as facilitator for community control → solve common problems (e.g., income distribution, poverty, unemployment, extra-local dependence) ▶ Direct access to natural resources (land, capital for tourism businesses) associated with improved economic conditions → community capacity to control, manage, respond to tourism-related change in the community ▶ Community agency → appropriate responding to increased social problems associated with population and infrastructural growth resulted from tourism development → benefits for residents and increased attractiveness for visitors ▶ Tourism development caused a shift in community members' perception of natural environment: from utilitarian to appreciative → pro-environmental attitudes and actions → sustaining natural amenity-driven tourism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Community agency as the key element enhancing a community's capacity to adapt to changing conditions and, at the same time, guide how tourism development is conducted in their community ▶ Establishment of community-based productive, financial and commercial institutions to accomplish local sustenance and development requires economic base (needs the formation of capital) ▶ Prerequisites for sustainable community practices: (1) pro-interactional and tolerant attitudes between and within stakeholders; (2) organizational efforts reflecting intra- and intergenerational equity in the use, management and distribution of resources ▶ Facilitator: establishment of community organizations ▶ Local ownership as a double-edged sword: decline in CP due to huge efforts necessary maintaining own business ▶ Understanding of historical and culture specific elements intrinsic to the community is key to CP efforts and encouragement of different stakeholders

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
<p>Murota and Glazyrina (2010)</p>	<p><i>Common-pool resources in Eats Russia: a case study on the creation of a new national park as a form of community-based natural resource governance</i></p> <p>In: Environmental Economics and Policy Studies</p>	<p>Common-pool resources; Community-based governance; Alkhanay National Park; Gold mining; Russia</p>	<p>Management and governance of common-pool resources</p>	<p>Alkhanay National Park, Russia</p>	<p>Creation and development of protected areas based on community-based governance and functional zoning</p>	<p>Analysis of secondary data</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Appropriate management of common pool resources (CPR=resources jointly used by a group of persons) essential for sustainable development ▶ Instrument: functional zoning taking into account different community interests (agricultural, historical and cultural traditions, religious and native customs, new economy based on tourism and recreation) ▶ Prior to conservation efforts (zoning) potential threats to ecosystems due to growing tourist flows and absence of special regulation ▶ Special rules for tourist activities in order to not exceed carrying capacity of most attractive sites ▶ Functional zoning plan based on: (1) principle of investing in natural capital as an operational tool of sustainability; (2) principle of responsibility for ecosystem integrity ▶ Declaration of six functional zones: (1) strictly protected zone – conservation of genetic resources; (2) protected zone – organized excursions with guides, includes most sacred places and natural monuments, limited entrance; (3) zone for ecological tourism – bike/horse rides, temporary camps, non-commercial fishing are permitted; (4) service zone – includes tourist facilities (restaurants, camps, cottages), administration office, homes for park rangers; (5) economic and recreational zone near local settlements – under park administration control, local people are allowed to cut timber and go hunting (both non-commercial), collect firewood, berries, mushrooms, matches local needs while assigning responsibility to local community for good management of forest resources; (6) agricultural zone – sustainable agriculture under control of park administration ▶ High investments in park infrastructure (roads, information centres...) exceed economic benefits → no positive impacts on the welfare of the local population, yet ▶ Intrinsic values based on religious and cultural traditions identified as stronger motivation than economic revenue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Area for tourism and recreation of mostly local and regional significance → stable but not large financial income from tourism ▶ creation of an institution for community-based CPRs governance required financial resources → governmental support for the local community needed ▶ State ownership of natural resources as a necessary but not sufficient condition for successful community-based governance ▶ Institutional innovations (responsible management) crucially significant for sustainable governance of natural resources
<p>Payne and Dimanche (1996)</p>	<p><i>Towards a Code of Conduct for the Tourism Industry: An Ethics Model</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Business Ethics</p>	<p>/</p>	<p>Business ethics in tourism industry</p>	<p>/</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ How does tourism development affect its surroundings? ▶ What are, therefore, key elements of a code of conduct for the tourism industry? 	<p>▶ Literature review</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism can lead to exploitation/destruction of natural environment → alternative forms less impacting the environment are needed ▶ Relationship locals – tourists depend on different types of social, economic, and political development ▶ Understanding of tourism impacts on a culture of particular importance when industry employs work force from that culture: employees perceiving negative tourism impacts are less likely to provide friendliness and service quality ▶ Local work force mainly in low level positions ▶ Responsibility of local government: set a framework 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ 2 paths to address conflicts culture – tourism industry: (1) formulations of and adherence to a corporate code of conduct; (2) use of models of morality to aid in solving ethical dilemmas ▶ Values action should rely on: justice (e.g., fairness, good faith in transactions), integrity (e.g., honesty, sincerity, respect), competence (e.g., degree of capabilities, reliability, qualification) and utility (e.g., efficacy) ▶ Creation of codes of ethics for each economic element of tourism industry that fit in

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
							<p>that provides training and opportunities for local community members to attain higher level position in tourism businesses; implement effective guidelines to assure fairness in hiring both 'traditional' and 'non-traditional' (e.g., older people, immigrants, handicapped people)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Responsibility of private sector: fair wage and work contract "Compensation is both as result and cause of productivity" ▶ Effects of culture on tourism: values as determination aspects for goals and behaviour to gain social (dis-) approval; development of social institutions; conventions and practices; set of spoken and body language of the society 	<p>a larger framework</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Code of ethics should include: (1) limited resources → sustainable economic development requires setting limits on growth; (2) tourism is a community-based industry → consideration of socio-cultural costs of tourism development; (3) tourism is a service-oriented industry → ethical treatment of employees and customers
<p>Pongponrat and Pongquan (2007)</p>	<p><i>Community Participation in a Local Tourism Planning Process – A Case Study of Nathon Community on Samui Island, Thailand</i></p> <p>In: Asia-Pacific Journal of Rural Development</p>	<p>community participation, community development, tourism planning process</p>	<p>Interrelation of community development and tourism planning/degree of intensity of participation within the process of planning</p>	<p>Samui Island, Thailand</p>	<p>Which are the limits and strengths that arise from which degree of CP within the tourism planning process?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Quantitative: questionnaire survey – households; descriptive statistics ▶ Qualitative: key informant interviews; field observation, focus group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ involvement of community is key to sustainable development and needed in every planning phase; ▶ participatory tourism planning as part of the local consciousness of a destination ▶ manifestation of CP in political and socioeconomic activities – direct involvement via committees, workshops; indirect involvement through public meetings, surveys etc. ▶ CBT as one approach in CP addressing negative tourism impacts in rural areas ▶ CBT aims: empowerment to self-reliance, utilisation of group processes in decision making, supporting people's human rights and capabilities, raise income, improve standards of living ▶ Main constraints: (1) local's lack of time for tourism involvement; (2) limited degree in decision making; (3) lack of awareness → small number of participants → not fully represent all community members; (4) lack of organisational and management skills ▶ High perceived benefits for locals in different dimensions: (1) social: awareness (changing way of life, tourism impacts, community rights and roles), promotion, preservation and consciousness of local culture and tradition; (2) economic: income, employment, group strengthening, investment input, productivity; (3) institutional: planning and management skills, training, capacity building, creating strategies, clear roles and responsibilities as well as cooperation between public sector and community, power distribution, consensus building; (4) management skills in resource utilisation, conservation of local environment ▶ degree of participation in planning process is the highest in decision making and implementation ▶ intensity of CP is highly linked to household income and benefits gained in capacity building ▶ importance of local leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Local tourism grows with an increase of awareness and involvement of locals in their community planning process ▶ Connections to local mass media supports awareness raising for tourism development issues and private sector networking ▶ Replication of the study setting to other communities desirable ▶ Locals and key stakeholders to involve particularly in decision making- and monitoring/evaluation phase ▶ Consensus on various development activities needed ▶ Participatory adjusting of monitoring/evaluation of activities ▶ Identification of specific problems and needs of communities is crucial

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
Puhakka, Sarkki, Cottrell and Siikamäki (2009)	<i>Local discourses and international initiatives: sociocultural Sustainability of tourism in Oulanka National Park, Finland</i> In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism	Sustainable tourism; nature-based tourism; national parks; certification; PAN Parks; Finland	National parks as tools for regional development	Oulanka National Park, Finland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Sociocultural sustainability of tourism perceived by local stakeholders in the study site ▶ The role of an area's certification (by the international organisation PAN) in community and tourism development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Qualitative: semi-structured interviews with key target groups ▶ Quantitative: questionnaire study (314 respondents) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Sustainable nature-based tourism can be an important facilitator for local community development ▶ The PAN parks contribute to the community in various ways (creation of networks, attracting tourists, helping businesses in marketing efforts), but also have negative impacts due to introduction of a set of internationally defined values (e.g., hamper socio-cultural development by restricting local people's traditional rights) ▶ Tourism development might lead to a gap between those who are involved in tourism and those who are not 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Establishment of (sustainability-oriented) institutions to make participation offers more adequate to specific issues ▶ Awareness-raising and information for tourists: the greater the knowledge about local conditions the more likely tourists value them and act in a responsible manner ▶ Establishment of participation, transparency, open communication, active learning process to meet contradictions resulted from utilisation of public goods ▶ Change in management practice (decentralization) to provide a holistic basis for examining benefits and burdens of tourism development in the park
Shone and Memon (2008)	<i>Tourism, Public Policy and Regional Development: A Turn from Neo-liberalism to the New Regionalism</i> In: Local Economy	/	Tourism development from a collaborative and strategic sustainable development perspective	New Zealand (country perspective)	Analysis of recent institutional policy responses to regional development in order to discuss the role and potential of tourism to contribute to this development	Analysis of secondary data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism as a significant tool for regional development → governments support and encourage tourism, more often than other sectors, as a development tool ▶ Tourism can drive economic growth (developing destinations) and contribute to the revitalisation of towns and communities (mature destinations) ▶ Public policy shift from neo-liberalism to new regionalism → changes in the organisation of tourism: from government of relatively centralised regulation and administrative control to a broader, governance-oriented role → increased role for local and regional stakeholders in fostering economic development ▶ "Post Fordism" which is understood as a more flexible and dynamic pattern of production and consumption than the traditional Fordism-approach led in tourism to decline of mass tourism and increase of specialised types of tourism, innovative packaging of products and experiences ▶ New Regionalism as a bottom-up approach; its principles of integration, collaboration and cooperation are ideal prerequisites for the establishment of regional-level networks ▶ Main barriers for implementation of integrative regional tourism planning: (1) Public sector capacity issues (organisational, institutional, cognitive) (2) involved private sector stakeholders are, at the same time, potential partners and competitors → tension between democracy and economic rationality ▶ Rise of new conflicts as marginal groups become more articulate and elite groups are able to gain a greater slice of participatory benefits through their own networks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ New Regionalism as a planning framework from the perspective of stakeholders, planners, and tourism practitioners ▶ Challenges for sustainable community development: (1) to reconcile issues of democracy and economic rationality in the planning process, (2) to overcome discrepant policy goals, (3) to foster collaboration and cooperation between potential tourism competitors, (4) to facilitate the alignment of multiple tourism visions toward a common goal to achieve broader regional development

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
Sofield and Li (2011)	<i>Tourism governance and sustainable national development in China: a macro-level synthesis</i> In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism	Transition/transformation; gradualism; market economy; harmony; keystone industry; sustainable tourism	Sustainable tourism development from a macro-governance perspective	China (country perspective)	Investigation on the interrelation of tourism growth, governance and sustainable development in China	Multidisciplinary approach analysing tourism politics, development and planning based on 17 years of research, practical experience and discussions with key stakeholders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Significant tensions between China's drive for "modernization" and "progress" and the sustainable development since transformation ▶ China rather went through transformation than transition as the change was characterised by adjustments, not by a collapsing system ▶ Sound legislative, regulatory and governance regimes in place in the wider economy; environmental assessment of development planning and implementation as fundamental state policy ▶ Particularly at local levels economic development is prioritised over environmental sustainability ▶ Challenge for environmental sustainability: cultural gap between international and Chinese traditional value systems ▶ Tourism contributed to freedoms in China as it caused relaxed travel restrictions, ▶ Utilisation of mass tourism as a means for obtaining and demonstrating modernization ▶ Huge economic impacts at a national level (revenue generation, employment opportunities, indirect benefits through the multiplier effect) → tourism as a pillar industry of China 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism industry in China is dominated and governed by the supply side ▶ Large scale tourism development within relatively short time spans, as China has experienced it, need direct central government involvement ▶ Re-emergence of entrepreneurship after socialist regime as one important factor the country's progress towards a market economy ▶ Economic involvement through "town and village enterprises" (TVE) which were developed as commune business model but after transformation became more market-oriented → TVEs (under collective ownership) became important drivers of development of tourism sites in rural areas
Tsartas (2003)	<i>Tourism Development in Greek Insular and Coastal Areas: Sociocultural Changes and Crucial Policy Issues</i> In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism	/	Socioeconomic changes as drivers of and results from tourism development and the related policy issues	Coastal and insular areas in Greece (among others Mykonos, Crete, Corfu)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Changing role of social structures resulting from tourism development ▶ Mass tourism, related problems and criticisms of tourism policies 	Literature review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Changing productive structures: downgrading of agriculture, dependence of many economic sectors on tourism (dominance of the tertiary sector), large increase of multi-employment and the black economy ▶ Changing family structures: from the paternal model to a new type of family characterised by individualism and collectivism in decision-making; upgraded role of the younger and women due to 'touristification' and alternative income opportunities ▶ Downgrading of the role of customs as a result of the urbanisation imposed by tourism and the created substitutes of urban entertainment (restaurants, bars etc.) ▶ Spread of tourism income → expanded middle class → growing importance of social positioning ▶ Perceptions/attitudes of locals towards tourism are the more positive, the earlier the stage of tourism development ▶ Negative tourism impacts in the study site depend on: (1) state's decision to promote mass tourism; (2) acceptance of this model by the locals ▶ Negative impacts caused attitudinal shifts: (1) new institutional framework allowing CP in planning process; (2) upgrading of scientific dialogue on tourism development; (3) growing environmental awareness; (4) increased emphasis on local characteristics, sustainability and product quality when designing development models ▶ Progressive decentralisation of competences to the local level → direct involvement of representative of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Changing basic priorities of tourism policy (environmental conservation, alternative tourism, promotion of locality as result of natural and cultural resources) as respond to mass tourism impacts ▶ Awareness-raising among community members on the need for alternative models of tourism development ▶ Crucial tourism policy issues in the future: (1) ability of the concept of sustainable development to survive as a constituting element of local tourism; (2) operational linkage between sustainable development and the classic model of mass tourism

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
							<p>local interest in decision-making</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Strengthening of local tourism development through large amount of EU financed initiatives, funding schemes and development programs focussing on infrastructural improvements and the promotion of alternative forms of tourism → know-how transfer in planning and operating to the countryside; introduction of training/education facilities which most benefited the younger and women; enhanced conservation of environment and cultural heritage 	
Vera Rebollo and Baidal (2003)	<p><i>Measuring Sustainability in a Mass Tourist Destination: Pressures, Perceptions and Policy Responses in Torrevieja, Spain</i></p> <p>In: Journal of Sustainable Tourism</p>	/	Application of sustainable tourism practices to mass tourism destinations	Torrevieja, Spain (urban area in the Mediterranean Region)	Why and how can the incorporation of the principles of sustainable development lead to qualitative change and restructuring in mature tourism destinations?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Development of a theoretical model for sustainable tourism indicators based on analysis and redesign of pre-existing models ▶ Qualitative: investigations on every identified indicator by stakeholder-interviews, secondary data analysis or others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Indicator system consists of 4 interrelated models: (1) Land-use tourism model: identification of types of tourism, understanding of different stages of development, identification of influence factors on evolution of tourism; (2) Pressure indicators: reflecting tension of tourism on natural and cultural environment; (3) State-quality indicators: current situation of natural environment, quality of life (locals), satisfaction (tourists); (4) Political and social response indicators: measures to be taken in regard to (1)-(3), placing of management measures ▶ Tourism caused great economic dynamism and employment opportunities ▶ Dynamism directly related to real estate and tourist activities also has negative impacts on quality of life (health service, street safety and loss of local identity) ▶ Suggestions by interviewed locals did not include limits of urban growth and tourism as they are seen as the drivers of the municipality's development and prosperity, but rather in the need for public investment (hospital, better roads etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Guided growth takes place (quality improvement of urban areas, development of green spaces, improvement in environmental management...) ▶ Financial benefits occur from economic dynamism and they materialise in local revenues ▶ Negative perceptions of locals (health service shortage, traffic...) and tourists are particularly related to overcrowding of the area in summers ▶ Weak sustainability of the study site as the local type of tourism (sun-and-beach) does not benefit the use of natural resources ▶ When growth level is reached more sound policies should be applied to balance economic, environmental and socio-cultural dimensions
Welford and Ytterhus (1998)	<p><i>Conditions for the Transformation of Eco-Tourism into Sustainable Tourism</i></p> <p>In: European Environment</p>	/	Sustainable tourism	/	Identification of the conditions for sustainable management of tourism destinations	Literature review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Tourism impacts on the social structure and communities depend on the nature (type) of tourism ▶ Increasing trend for eco-tourism to less developed countries and remote areas ▶ Conditions for sustainable development: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Parallel development of local industry and sustainable tourism development; (2) Long-term justification; (3) Consumer education (initiated by private sector: tour operators/service providers) → increased sustainability and quality of experiences; (4) Fiscally neutral local taxation (tourists should be expected to (voluntary) contribute to the costs of local development and management); (5) Promoting environmental conservation; (6) open and transparent dialogue for change management involving a broad base of stakeholders; (7) Building on strong local cohesion: responsibility of tour operators to identify locations which are characterized by strong cohesion to enable the community to maintain their traditional social and cultural norms, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Shift of paradigms from ecological sustainability to a more holistic approach is required esp. in practice ▶ Derived conditions for sustainable development have to be adapted to local context and need to be considered in the context of each tourist destination

Author(s)	Publication Title	Relevant key words (as named in the article)	Main focus	Regional Focus	Research question/objective of the study	Data type and methodology as described by the authors	Main results (with relevance for the thesis' research question)	Main conclusions/recommendations by the authors (with relevance for the thesis' research question)
							<p>to direct tourism development and to ensure sustainable development (requires more efforts in initial/product development phase but is more likely to be successful in the long-term);</p> <p>(8) Tourist participation → integral part of the destination, tourists add to the diversity rather than just consuming;</p> <p>(9) supply chain management, locally purchasing policies → supply chain to be integrated into the destination itself;</p> <p>(10) Dynamic destination management policy and strategy → policy including codes of conduct for tourists, service providers and local community</p>	

Source: Own summary.

Annex 2: International Tourist Arrivals in Myanmar 1990–2012

Year	International Tourist Arrivals	Annual Growth Rate (in %)
1990	21,598	/
1991	22,647	4.9
1992	26,607	17.5
1993	48,425	82.0
1994	80,408	66.0
1995	117,000	45.5
1996	172,000	47.0
1997	189,000	9.9
1998	201,000	6.3
1999	198,210	-1.4
2000	207,665	4.8
2001	204,862	-1.3
2002	217,212	6.0
2003	205,610	-5.3
2004	241,938	17.7
2005	232,218	-4.0
2006	263,514	13.5
2007	248,076	-5.9
2008	193,319	-22.1
2009	243,278	25.8
2010	310,688	27.7
2011	391,176	25.9
2012 ¹³	550,000	40.6

Source: Own summary, adapted from mas|contour (2012); MoHT (2011); MoHT (2012a); UNWTO (1989); UNWTO (1996); UNWTO (2001); UNWTO (2006); UNWTO (2011).

¹³ Data estimated.

Annex 3: Interview Guideline

Personal Background in Tourism

1. What position do you hold in your organization? What activities and responsibilities are connected to that position?

Tourism development in Myanmar since the country's first efforts to open up in 2011

2. Could you please tell a few words about tourism industry in Myanmar?
3. How did these things change within the last year?

Community participation and responsible tourism

4. From your point of view, what is the meaning of 'Responsible Tourism'?
5. From your point of view, what is the meaning of 'Community Participation' in connection with tourism development?
6. In your opinion, which factors support community participation in Myanmar's tourism industry?
7. Which factors hinder such developments?
8. How could deeper community participation be achieved?

Expectations with regard to tourism development in Myanmar in the future

9. Finally, what are your personal wishes regarding tourism development in the future?

Affidavit

I hereby declare that I wrote this thesis on my own and without the use of any other than the cited sources and tools and all explanations that I copied directly or in their sense are marked as such. The thesis has not yet been handed in neither in this nor in equal form at any other official commission.

Berlin, 30 October 2012

Dörte Kasüske