

**HOST COMMUNITIES PARTICIPATION IN  
PLANNING FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN  
IRELAND: A LOCAL AUTHORITY  
PERSPECTIVE**

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## Abstract

Local Authorities across Ireland are in an ideal position to plan for tourism in a sustainable manner when developing County Development Plans (CDPs). This thesis develops the first baseline study of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning at Local Authority level in Ireland. The principle aims of this thesis were to critically examine host communities current participation in sustainable tourism planning and to determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland. A multi-method approach was used incorporating interviews with planners in Local Authorities across Ireland and a content analysis of all available CDPs. The findings bring into question the ability of the Local Authorities to plan for tourism in a sustainable manner, in which, host community participation plays a vital role.

A number of interesting findings emerged from this study. First, while all the Local Authorities are fulfilling the legal obligation to consult with the host community, few have utilised the full range of tools available to encourage functional participation. Second, host community participation across Ireland is characterised by low submissions relating to tourism, and high levels of plan alteration from county councillors. Third, at present, no set method or model is being endorsed or implemented for community participation, resulting in a significant level of disparity in the level of participation afforded to host communities. Overall this study suggests that host community participation reflects pseudo-participation in relation to normative typologies of community participation.

With respect to the second aim of the thesis, it was found that Local Authority tourism plans across Ireland generally reflect a Development First approach to tourism planning. Few Local Authorities are fulfilling the need to plan and maintain the natural environment which tourists put such a high value on. Local Authority planners are not using the academic models and tools put forward by tourism scholars nor are they making use of state or EU strategies, guidelines or charters. This has resulted in a nationwide absence of comprehensive local level policies to manage or mitigate the negative impacts of tourism development. It is evident that the predominant Development First approach to tourism planning at local level in Ireland may leave the Irish tourism product at risk.

The thesis offers Local Authorities a conceptual sustainable tourism planning toolkit, which is made up of two interrelated tourism planning policy checklists. In essence the toolkit facilitates Local Authority planners to ensure that they have firstly, engaged in meaningful host community participation in planning, and secondly planned for tourism in a sustainable manner.

Keywords: Local Authority, tourism planning, host community, participation, sustainable tourism, planning toolkit, county development plan, Ireland.

## Dedication

For Willow, Robin, Emily, Jessie and James under careful eye of Sheila

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Go raibh maith agaibh Edel, Louis and Ger

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## Abbreviations

BMW	Border Midland and Western
BRPA	Border Regional Planning Authority
BF	Bord Fáilte
CDP	County Development Plan
CTC	County Tourism Committee
CDB	County Development Board
DAST	Department of Arts, Sport and Tourism
DOE	Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
E-planning	Electronic Planning
EU	European Union
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
LA 21	Local Agenda 21
LAC	Limits of Acceptable Change
RTA	Regional Tourism Authority
RA	Regional Planning Authority
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNFAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

# CHAPTER 1

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## INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

---

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Discussion on globalisation and the development of tourism has noted a propensity for the culture and resources of host communities to be identified and managed as tourism products (Inskeep, 1991; Bianchi, 2002; Richner, 2001; Fennell, 2006). With this growth more demands have been made on the host community and its irreplaceable resources by both public and private tourism-related organisations. In some cases these demands have led to increased problems and conflict between the host community and local authorities. Host community participation in sustainable tourism planning has been suggested by many scholars as a method to minimise negative impacts and increase knowledge and understanding of tourism (Cohen, 1985; Gunn, Keogh, 1990; McIntosh and Goldner 1990; Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 1994; Sproule and Suhandi, 1998; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Jackson and Morpeth 1999; Murphy, 1999; Gunn, 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Mason, 2003; Boyd and Singh, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004; Timothy, 2007).

The Local Agenda 21 (LA 21) policy, emanating from the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, charged local authorities to adopt policy goals encompassing not only sustainable development but also to incorporate a participative and collaborative process, which involves local communities in defining their own sustainable futures. This can and should include tourism development as a significant environmental, economic and social agent (Jackson and Morpeth, 1999).

In Ireland the attraction and infrastructure utilised by tourists and indeed host communities such as transport, accommodation, sewage, parking, signage, beaches and

lakes are managed at a county level by the County Councils or Local Authorities. These Local Authorities are in turn subject to certain guidelines, plans and laws at regional, national and E.U. level, in relation to developing these resources and infrastructure within the counties which residents and tourists alike utilise. The main method of planning and managing these resources is through the County Development Plans (CDPs) which each Local Authority is required to produce every five years.

The rationale and motivation for this thesis on participation in sustainable tourism planning stemmed from an interest in host communities and the concept of Local Agenda 21, which recognises that global scale problems such as irreversible degradation of natural, manmade and cultural resources are best solved through local level action.

## **1.2 RESEARCH INTENT**

The primary intent of this research was to establish what level of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning exists in Ireland. However in order to accomplish this it was first necessary to establish what form of tourism planning is taking place in Ireland and if it is in fact sustainable. The research particularly focused on Local Authorities and their CDPs for the simple reason that they are charged with the responsibility of managing the majority of resources and infrastructure on which tourism relies. Local Authorities according to Howden (1992) are in a position where they have the responsibility for economic development, protecting community attributes and managing the natural environment. They also provide an existing and critical operational link between ministerial and legislative directives and the varied components of the tourism industry, therefore Local Authorities are at a logical level to sustainably plan for tourism.

The purpose of this research therefore became two-fold. It firstly investigated if local authorities were planning for tourism and if so how this equates with current theory on sustainable tourism planning. Secondly, the research assessed what level of host community participation in the tourism planning was occurring in the planning process in Ireland, with a specific focus on determining if Local Authorities responsible for planning are utilising common participation models when developing tourism plans.

As Local Authority CDPs are integrated with other activities (e.g. transport, housing, social services, environment, tourism and heritage) this thesis focused on the tourism

component of the CDPs. However, to facilitate the integrated nature of planning the relevant Regional Planning Authorities, National Development Authorities such as Fáilte Ireland and EU agencies were also incorporated into the development and analysis of the research.

The researcher identified the need for this study through observation and on-going research into the role of host community in the tourism planning process. This has been realised through working, living in and researching various tourism honey pots, such as Waiariki (New Zealand), Waikiki (O'ahu, Hawai'i), La Jolla (San Deigo, USA), Rosarita (Baja, Mexico), Clare and Sligo (Ireland). This exposure and experience has led to the development of the following line of argument for this thesis:

The future of tourism in Ireland is reliant on informed effective sustainable tourism planning. A good position to assess, compare and contrast the level of sustainable tourism planning in Ireland at this time is through assessment of Local Authority CDPs.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the communication, interrelationships and legal process all Local Authorities must follow when designing CDPs. A basic outline of the plan-making process is highlighted by the eight boxes through the centre of the figure. The possible inputs into the planning process are clearly illustrated at the various stages as discussed under the following headings scale, organisation, agreements and host community.

**Scale:** the nature of the tourism institutional arrangements and scale of operation is highlighted in relation to the transnational, national, regional and local stakeholders who may impact or directly input into the Local Authority county development planning process.

**Organisation:** the main agencies at these levels that may input into the Local Authority plan, such as Tourism Ireland at transnational level, Fáilte Ireland and National Parks and Wildlife Service at national level and the County Tourism Committees (CTCs) at local level.

**Agreements:** these provide brief but specific examples of these agency's numerous agreements, laws and plans which directly relate to tourism planning and could be taken

into account by the Local Authority when generating the tourism component of the CDPs.

Host communities: inputs in this area, such as written and oral submissions which may be made to the Local Authority throughout the planning process are clearly illustrated at the bottom of the figure. The stages at which Local Authorities hold public meetings and meetings with agencies from regional and nation level is also clearly illustrated throughout the draft plan, second draft plan and final plan preparation process. At the end of the process the CDP can be seen in turn to impact on the host community and on a regional and national level scale highlighting the Local Agenda 21 adage 'think globally act locally'.

Tourism is planned within government at various sectors and levels and central to this structure are the linkages and connections at the local level. This figure helps situate the research within the broad research problem which is that local authority tourism plans may vary in their standard and approach, where community engagement in the planning process can vary from tokenism to more active involvement. This research problematic is structured around the following broad aims and specific objectives:

### **1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

1. To critically examine host communities' current participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland, with a specific focus on the tourism component of CDPs.
2. To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland.

In order to achieve these aims the following objectives were developed;

- (a) To critically examine the processes followed to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning.

The Planning and Development Act 2000 requires each Local Authority to take whatever steps it deems necessary to consult the public, therefore it is important and necessary for this thesis to examine and contrast the process and participation models put in place by Local Authorities to encourage host community participation in the planning process.



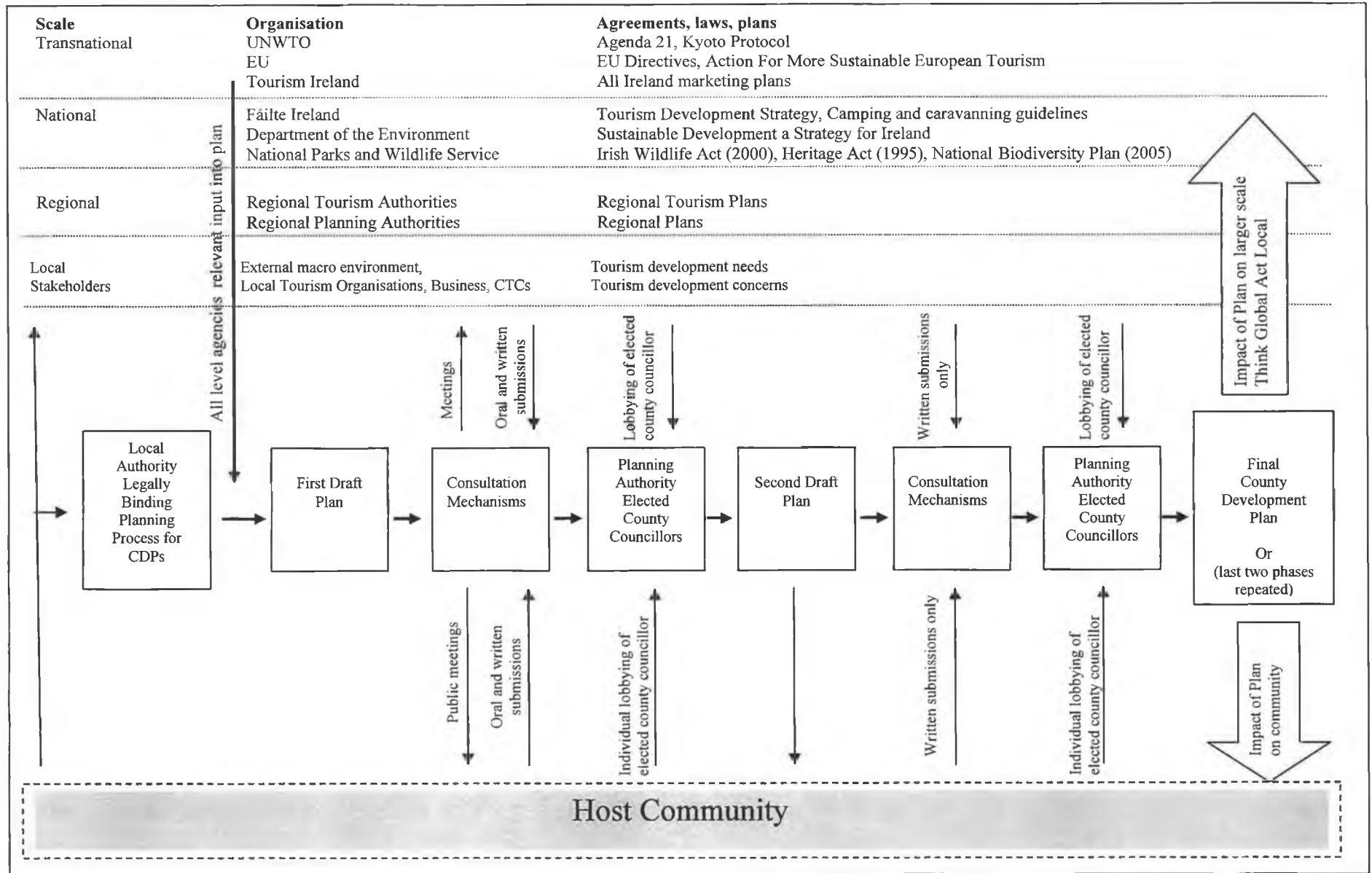


Figure 1.1 The Local Authority county development planning process, communication and interrelationships

- (b) To assess levels of host community participation in making CDPs in Ireland.

As no baseline data is available in this area it is necessary for this thesis to determine these processes and levels through in-depth interviews with forward planners and a quantitative examination and comparison of the following; number and frequency of public meetings, total number of submission and the number of specific submissions relating to tourism.

- (c) To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs.

To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs the thesis requires a detailed comparative examination of the specific tourism components within the CDPs. In order to achieve this and ensure a standard comparative approach a textual analysis tool must be designed and used to examine the plans. This tool will need to encompass an assessment of planning models and detailed factors and elements required for sustainable tourism planning. Including transnational and national guidelines, for example the EU guidelines on tourism planning.

- (d) To conduct a nationwide comparative examination of tourism plans within the Local Authority CDPs in Ireland and assess if any link existed between tourist arrivals and levels of sustainable tourism planning in CDPs.

As some Counties in Ireland consistently receive significantly a higher proportion of tourist than others, this thesis will assess if the Counties which received higher proportions of tourist arrivals have correspondingly developed higher levels of sustainable tourism plans in order to manage the impacts of these visitors.

- (e) To produce a generic planning scoping checklist which Local Authorities can use when planning for sustainable tourism within the CDPs.

Due to the applied and comparative nature of the research it seemed appropriate to take advantage of the data and utilise the research to design a tool which may be of use to the forward planners within the Local Authorities when developing the tourism component of CDPs in the future.

#### **1.4 IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH AND CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE**

The importance of this research project is paramount at a time when tourism has been recognized as the largest service industry in the world and providing specifically up to €5.9 billion to the Irish economy (Fáilte Ireland 2006). The industry is reliant on the participation and cooperation of the host community in order to continue to reap the economic and other benefits of tourism.

Such participation and cooperation from the host communities needs to be identified and recognised if tourism is to witness continued growth (Doxey 1975; Knopp 1980; Murphy 1985; Long and Richardson 1989; Lankford 1994). This research sets forth to identify such participation levels and determine the degree to which Local Authorities are planning sustainable tourism. This will provide the first Irish baseline study in relation to levels of host community participation in the making of CDPs. Furthermore, it should give the first nationwide insight into the degree of sustainable tourism planning within the Local Authority CDPs. It is hoped that the findings of this research will be of benefit to the host community, public and private tourism managers and tourists not only in Ireland but globally. This can be realized through effective distribution of the findings and strategies.

There is a growing accumulation of knowledge on host community participation in sustainable tourism planning with regard to positive and negative impacts, the role of local government, the attitude toward impacts and support for tourism development. (Hall, 2000; Sharpley, 2000; Page and Dowling, 2002; Liu 2003). Currently little is known about host community participation in the tourism planning process in Ireland. This is surprising considering tourism is relatively reliant on the cooperation of the community in the long term, therefore this thesis provides an opportunity to determine host communities' participation in planning for sustainable tourism in Ireland from a Local Authority perspective.

#### **1.5 CONTEXT OF IRISH TOURISM**

Tourism is an invaluable source of investment and employment in Ireland, particularly in western rural regions. In the last decade overseas tourism grew by over 82% (Fáilte Ireland, 2003) which highlights the developing maturity of the tourism industry within the Irish economy. According to Fáilte Ireland (2006) overseas tourist visits to Ireland

in 2006 increased by 10% to 7.4 million, this was more than twice the World Tourism Organisation's preliminary estimates for 2006 which showed an increase of 4.5% in world arrivals and a stronger performance than the 3.9% growth in European arrivals in 2005. The total foreign exchange earnings were €4.69 billion, and domestic tourism expenditure amounted to €1.4 billion making tourism in total a €6 billion industry in 2006. Furthermore the government earned an estimated revenue of €2.77 billion through taxation of tourism expenditure, of which €2.1 billion came from foreign tourism. It is estimated that for every Euro spent by out-of state tourists, 52 cents eventually ends up with the government (through VAT, excise duty, PAYE, etc). Total foreign and domestic tourism revenue of €6 billion in 2006 generated an overall gross national product (GNP) impact of €5.67 billion and after applying multiplier effects tourism revenue accounted for 3.8% of GNP. Fáilte Ireland also estimated the total number of people employed in the Irish tourism and hospitality industry in 2006 at 249,338. Furthermore because tourism is characterised by the fact that consumption takes place where the service is available and tourism activity is particularly concentrated in areas which lack an intensive industry base, it is credited with having a significant regional distributive effect within Ireland (Fáilte Ireland, 2006).

According to the Tourism Policy Review Group (2003) tourism is equivalent to over 50% of the total value of exports by Irish-owned manufacturing industry or in excess of twice the value of exports of Irish-owned internationally-traded services. Furthermore, the Irish Tourism Industry Confederation (2006) believe that the industry possesses the capacity and the capital stock to accomplish further growth during a period when many indigenous sectors, particularly farming and traditional manufacturing are confronted with major structural and trading difficulties.

The appeal of Ireland as a tourist destination has focused on the degree of contact with Irish people in a relaxed and clean environment typified by an easygoing pace of life and beautiful landscape. Ireland is characterised by *people, place and pace* and visitors are motivated by:

- The expectation of a warm and welcoming people with the opportunity to interact with the people and the culture in all of its diverse forms
- The perception of beautiful unspoilt scenery and opportunities for sightseeing
- The comfort of a relaxed pace of life delivering both physical and emotional benefits to the visitor (Tourism Policy Review Group, 2003).

The natural environment is a core asset of the tourism industry and the preservation of its quality is of critical importance. Although the intensity of tourism activity in Ireland is low by international standards, the impact of tourism needs to be closely monitored as it has both direct and indirect impacts on the environment. The sector interacts closely with other policy areas such as transport, energy, environment, regional planning, business and trade and there is a need to coordinate and integrate policies. All stakeholders in the tourism sector, at national, regional and local levels, have a part to play in preserving environmental quality. The challenge now lies in moving sustainable tourism into practical implementation (Ireland's Environment, 2004: 193).

#### **1.6 THE STRUCTURE OF IRISH TOURISM IN THE CONTEXT OF TOURISM PLANNING**

The facilitation and implementation of host communities' participation in sustainable tourism relies on an informed tourism industry at European, national, regional and local levels. However the structure of the Irish tourism sector is very much orientated towards product marketing and development. This is best illustrated by the organisational structure of agencies directly and indirectly involved in tourism planning in Ireland in relation to European directives, all Ireland marketing, product development, state policies, funding and actual applied planning:

- European Union
- Tourism Ireland
- Department of Arts, Sport and Tourism
- Department of Environment and Local Government
- Fáilte Ireland (National Tourism Development Authority)
- Regional Planning Authorities
- Regional Tourism Authorities
- County Tourism Committees
- Local Authorities (County Councils)

The European Union policies, strategies and particularly the directives which in turn have to be made into Irish law have the potential to impact on the level of host community participation with respect to tourism planning in Ireland. According to the EU communication on tourism (2003), sustainable tourism plays a major role in the preservation and enhancement of the cultural and natural heritage in an ever expanding number of areas, ranging from arts to local gastronomy, crafts or the preservation of biodiversity.

The European Commission called for an EU-wide drive to enhance the economic, social and environmental sustainability of European tourism in a communication adopted on 21 November 2003. As a result a Tourism Sustainability Group (TSG) was set up. However the TSG only started its work at the beginning of 2005, the report has been published on the Tourism Policy webpage and has formed the basis of a web-based consultation which was opened in the June 2007. The process of possible host community consultation in an EU tourism sustainability policy is certainly supportive of the principles of sustainable tourism planning. However in the context of the research presented in this thesis it was important to identify the current policy supporting sustainable tourism planning.

The renewed tourism policy, proposed by the EU in 2006, aimed to help the industry meet a number of challenges while promoting overall competitiveness. The revised policy seeks to produce more and better jobs by nurturing conditions that will help tourism grow strongly in the coming years. According to the European Commission;

“The sustainability drive needs to address the social responsibility of tourism enterprises, the possibility for all citizens to participate in tourism, good job opportunities in the sector and benefits from tourism activities for local communities. It also entails preserving Europe’s cultural integrity, and incorporating environmental issues and protecting heritage resources in tourism measures” (European Commission, 2006: 7).

Furthermore the EU produces numerous relevant guidelines for planners and managers in relation to all aspects of tourism planning and management such as;

- Using natural and cultural heritage for the development of sustainable tourism in non-traditional tourism destinations, (2002).
- Towards quality coastal tourism: Integrated quality management (IQM) for coastal destinations, (2000).
- Towards quality rural tourism: Integrated quality management (IQM) for rural destinations, (2000).
- Using natural and cultural heritage for the development of sustainable tourism in traditional tourism destinations, (2002).
- Early warning system for identifying declining tourist destinations and preventative best practice, (2004).
- Improving information on accessible tourism for disabled people, (2004).
- A handbook for the tourism industry: making Europe accessible for tourists with disabilities, (1999).
- EU flower (Eco-label) for tourist accommodation, (2002).
- Actions for More Sustainable European Tourism, (2007).



These guides are generally prepared and tested on a number of different member states and can prove a very useful tool for tourism managers and planners alike. In the context of these EU and State policies, the tourist arrivals to Ireland are set to rise with tourism development targets for 2003-2012 aiming to increase visitor numbers from just under 6 million to 10 million. If this target is to be achieved it will be through the work of Tourism Ireland a North-South body, established following the Good Friday Agreement in 1998 and jointly supported by the Northern Ireland Tourist Board (NITB) and Fáilte Ireland.

Tourism Ireland's brief is to carry out functions aimed at promoting tourism to the island of Ireland as a tourist destination, with marketing activities embracing a number of functions including ownership and management of the tourism brand for Ireland, strategic all-island destination marketing in all markets external to the island of Ireland and responsibility for the overseas office network. In relation to planning for sustainable tourism and the quality of the tourism environment, Tourism Ireland plays a minimal role but can act as an advocate for both North and South as it delivers its mandate through the following;

- Undertaking destination-marketing programmes to stimulate demand for visiting the island of Ireland
- Facilitating and supporting business links to improve distribution of the Ireland tourism product to potential consumers,
- Acting as an advocate for overseas consumers and trade to influence the quality of the tourism experience on the island of Ireland (Tourism Ireland, 2004).

However, it is worth pointing out that if the tourism product in Ireland is degraded due to a lack of sustainable tourism planning, it is Tourism Ireland who will struggle to offer tourist products and may not be able to deliver on the marketing programmes on behalf of both Fáilte Ireland and the NITB.

Within the Irish government there is no set ministry of tourism as is present in other countries such as New Zealand or Canada. In Ireland, the ministerial department responsible for tourism is also responsible for arts and sport. The objective of the Department of Arts, Sport and Tourism (DAST) is:

“to facilitate the continued development of an economic and environmentally sustainable and spatially balanced tourism sector, through formulating, monitoring and reviewing a range of supporting policies and programmes, particularly within the framework of the National Development Plan and North/South co-operation” (The Tourism Policy Review Group, 2003).

Despite this role, the DAST emphasis on sustainable tourism appears limited. This is highlighted by the results of the strategies developed by the ministerial appointed high level Tourism Policy Review Group. Their publication, “New Horizons for Irish Tourism - An Agenda for Action” (2003), paid little attention to sustainable tourism planning or host community participation in tourism planning. This is well illustrated from the list of actions contained in the agenda for Action Plan 2003-2005:

- Actions to Improve the Business Environment for Tourism Operators
- Actions to Improve Competitiveness and Value for Money
- Actions to Improve Access Transport
- Actions to Improve the Use of Information and Communication Technologies
- Actions to Support Product Development and Innovation
- Actions to Support Marketing and Promotion
- Actions to Support Human Resource (People) Capability
- Actions to Support More Effective Government Leadership and Interventions in Promoting Tourism
- Actions to Improve the Quality of Information, Intelligence and Research
- Implementation Arrangements (New Horizons 2003: 5).

While the DAST’s role clearly identifies its intent to facilitate economic and environmentally sustainable tourism sector, implementation of supporting policies, programmes and strategies are undertaken by the state-sponsored bodies and executive agencies such as Fáilte Ireland, Tourism Ireland, the Regional Tourism Authorities and Shannon Development who operate under the aegis of the Department.

Fáilte Ireland which acts as the National Tourism Development Authority was established under the National Tourism Development Authority Act, 2003 and provides strategic and practical support to develop and sustain Ireland as a high-quality and competitive tourist destination. Fáilte Ireland’s mission is as follows;

“To increase the contribution of tourism to the economy by facilitating the development of a competitive and profitable tourism industry” (Fáilte Ireland, 2006).

Fáilte Ireland’s main role is not sustainable tourism planning, but rather it operates in partnership with tourism stakeholders to support the industry in its efforts to be more competitive and more profitable and to help individual enterprises enhance their



performance. Their work consists of four basic areas including tourism marketing services, education and training, product development and tourism research. In relation to this thesis, it is Fáilte Ireland's role in product development which principally deals with planning that informs this study. The product development area offers a range of services to the Irish tourism industry in the following ways:

- Support for selective capital investment in tourism product using grant-aid and tax incentive schemes
- Product quality for the accommodation sector by way of the coordination of approval and classification systems
- Providing information and advice to the tourism industry and government planners to guide industry development and to stimulate competitive and profitable tourism enterprises
- Supplying a business advisory service, and encouraging start-ups in new and innovative product and service areas.

On closer inspection of Fáilte Ireland one finds the environmental unit founded in 2006 with a promise to expand from one person to three with the future restructuring of the regions. One useful guideline for developing camping and caravanning sites generated by Bord Fáilte (the precursor to Fáilte Ireland) in 1982, is still in use and widely cited by Local Authorities. However, while Fáilte Ireland provides information and advice on tourism planning it is important to stress they are not in fact responsible for the physical act of land use planning. The Local Authorities are charged with the responsibility to develop infrastructure which host communities and tourists alike utilise such as beaches, car parks, signage, sewage and planning permits for the associate accommodations such as hotels and self-catering bed and breakfasts.

The Department of Environment, Heritage and Local Government (DOE) oversees the operation of the local government system and implements policy in relation to local government structures, functions, human resources and financing. The mission is to;

“Promote sustainable development and improve the quality of life through protection of the environment and heritage, infrastructure provision, balanced regional development and good local government” (DOE, 2007).

The DOE is largely responsible for Ireland's planning system which was introduced in 1964, when the 1963 Local Government (Planning and Development) Act, came into effect. The large body of planning legislation and regulations in the years since then, reflects the expansion of the statutory development control system to meet the demands arising from economic growth, rising public concern in the area of environmental

control, as well as a desire on the part of the public for a statutory, independent planning appeals system, and a growing European dimension arising from our membership of the European Union. Ireland is also unique among European countries in that it has an independent third party planning appeals system which is operated by An Bord Pleanála (the Planning Appeals Board).

The physical planning system in Ireland is run by 88 Local Planning Authorities: 29 County Councils, 5 County Borough Corporations, 5 Borough Corporations and 49 Town Councils. The Minister for the Environment, Heritage and Local Government is responsible for planning legislation. The main features are:

- Making development plans;
- The need for planning permission;
- Exempted development;
- Appeals against planning decisions;
- Planning enforcement.

The Local Authorities are therefore multi-purpose bodies who are responsible for an extensive range of services. These are typically broken down into eight broad categories:

Housing, Planning, Roads, Water Supply and Sewerage, Development Incentives and Controls, Environmental Protection including rivers, lakes, air and noise, Recreation Facilities and Amenities, Agriculture, Education, Health and Welfare.

The DOE plays a large role in supporting Local Authorities in the planning process and offers guidance notes on planning and development for the following areas; Planning Legislation Development Plan, Development Control, Appeal System, Enforcement, Environmental Assessment, Guidelines for Planning Authorities, Planning Statistics.

Finally, the Regional Tourism Authorities (RTAs) and Shannon Development administer tourism at a regional and local level. At present there is major restructuring going on within the six RTAs and Shannon Development. However from a host community participation and sustainable tourism planning point of view, the role of the RTAs is quite evident. They have a function to work with the community and the Local Authorities in developing the tourism component of the CDPs. Furthermore, the County Tourism Committees (CTCs) which were established in 1993, represent tourism interests at a county level, with the membership of CTCs drawn from the affiliates of

the local RTAs. CTCs prepare county tourism plans for incorporation in the County Enterprise Board and RTA plans which stimulate and co-ordinate new product initiatives. Again there is minimal research on the success of the CTCs and in some cases CTCs were never set up or have disappeared altogether. This thesis will examine how well the various RTAs, CTCs and Regional Planning Authorities (RPAs) are applying state policy and strategies designed to facilitate sustainable tourism by assessing their submissions on sustainable tourism planning within the CDPs.

### 1.7 TOURISM POLICY IN THE CONTEXT OF SUSTAINABLE PLANNING

From a tourism policy and sustainable development strategy perspective within the last few decades there have been a number of significant policies produced by the DOE and the state-sponsored bodies and executive agencies. What has been noticeable is the shift of focus on planning and sustainable tourism policy. This was evident in the Government White Paper on Tourism Policy (1985) which was the first comprehensive statement on Irish tourism policy and established the following objectives:

“To optimise the economic and social benefits to Ireland of the promotion and development of tourism both to and within the country consistent with ensuring an acceptable economic rate of return on the resources employed and taking account of tourism's potential for job creation; the quality of life and development of the community; the enhancement and preservation of the nation's cultural heritage; the conservation of the physical resources of the country; and tourism's contribution to regional development” (Government White Paper on Tourism Policy, 1985).

The increased emphasis put on sustainable tourism planning since the first white paper is best illustrated by the DOE aim outlined for Ireland in the Sustainable Development Strategy, published in 1997;

“to ensure that economy and society in Ireland can develop to their full potential within a well protected environment, without compromising the quality of that environment and with responsibility towards present and future generations and the wider international community” (DOE, 1997: 24).

The principal goals and policies defined in the 1997 publication Sustainable Development: A Strategy for Ireland, were designed to inform the development and delivery of policies and programmes in the area of environmental protection and sustainable development. According to the DOE (1997), sustainable tourism involved a positive approach to harmonising the interactions between tourism, the physical environment and host communities. The strategy went on to highlight that "Among the

major strengths which characterise Irish tourism is our clean physical environment" (DOE,1997: 117). Furthermore, the strategy emphasised the threat of tourism degrading the very product it relied so heavily upon;

“However, it is important that tourism development itself should not become a force which threatens this foundation” (DOE, 1997: 125).

Other national tourism policy, as set out, for example, in Bord Fáilte's Development Plan for the period 1994-99, Developing Sustainable Tourism, had already provided good foundations for sustainability in this sector. The specific actions which were recommended to be taken under this Strategy were additional to or in association with current policies. These were designed to ensure a full integration of sustainable development principles in the sector and were to involve the following actions;

- Tourism development will be taken into account, as appropriate, by the Department of the Environment in the preparation of land use policy guidelines for planning authorities, developers and the public.
- Planning authorities will make provision in their development plans for sustainable tourism, and ensure through the planning process that over-development does not take place.
- Bord Fáilte will consider the implementation of a managed network of scenic landscapes by 1999.
- The Department of Tourism and Trade/Bord Fáilte will issue appropriate guidelines on good environmental management to the tourist accommodation sector.
- The Department of Arts, Culture and the Gaeltacht will maintain the Irish environment and physical cultural heritage, which are recognised as being of high quality, will provide the foundation on which to build sustainable tourism and take advantage of these international trends (DOE, 1997: 115).

Clearly the integration of environmental considerations into other policy areas was a key means of securing balanced development (DOE, 1997). However what is the penetration rate of this and other sustainable tourism communication into other policy areas? The clear actions outlined above should be visible in local authority tourism policy and plans.

The principle guide to development in Ireland is seen as the National Development Plan (NDP). The NDP for the 2000–2006 period aimed to address infrastructural deficits and to achieve more balanced regional development under the Regional Operational Programmes. This in turn financed the Tourism Product Development Scheme 2000-2006 which was funded with a budget of €139.6 million and supported a wide range of new product developments with an emphasis on;

“Regional spread, cluster development, specialist niche market products and environmental sustainability” (Tourism Policy Review Group, 2003).

Moreover, the tourism measure allocation of €139.6 million of public funding supported three sub-measures in the Southern and Eastern and Border Midland and Western (BMW) regions:

- The development of major attractions and clusters of existing attractions;
- The development of special interest products;
- The support of environmental initiatives to tackle problems that threaten the sustainability of tourism Fáilte Ireland (2002).

The clear shift in national policy is more evident here. Additionally the funds administered by Fáilte Ireland under the terms of the Tourism Product Development Scheme 2002–2006 were required to comply with planning and environmental regulatory requirements. However what is noticeable is the State (DATS and Fáilte Ireland), through investment grants, is asking tourism developers to have regard to environmental sustainability;

“State-funded projects must comply with planning and environmental regulatory requirements and have regard to environmental sustainability and best practice in relation to environmental protection” (Fáilte Ireland, 2002: 12).

These developments at policy level supporting environmental sustainability and environmental protection are hardly surprising in the context of wider EU and Global directives and strategies.

With the shift in National policy towards sustainable tourism planning the question remains as to how this policy actually reflects on grass roots planning for tourism. As previously stated, the majority of physical land use planning conducted in Ireland takes place at a Local Authority level within the CDPs. However what is evident from the DAST, FI, RPA, RTAs, CTC, and Local Authorities is that there is little mention within policy on the role of host community in sustainable tourism planning. Moreover, there is a considerable gap in knowledge within the literature on the penetration rates of sustainable tourism development policy within sustainable tourism plans in Ireland. In fact there is no current research on the state of the tourism component within the Local Authorities CDPs.

This lack of current applied research on the level of sustainable tourism planning and host communities' participation within the planning process could justify alarm bells in relation to the Tourism Development Targets 2003-2012 as set down by the Tourism Policy Review Group (2003) to:

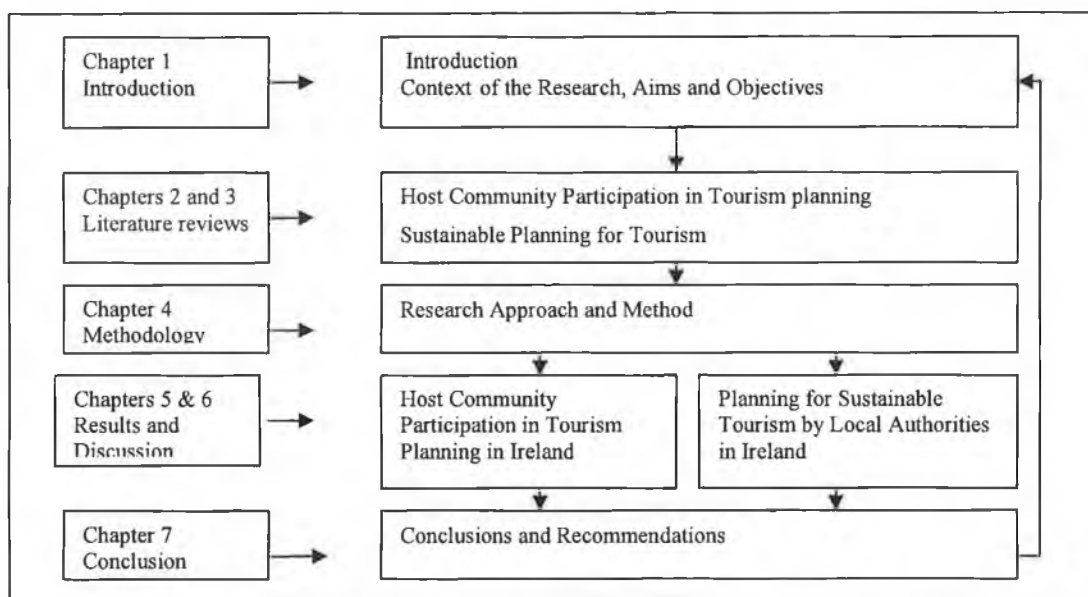
- Double overseas visitor spend to €6 billion over the 10 year period to 2012, with an associated increase in visitor numbers to 10 million
- Increase the share of promotable segments (holiday, conference, language study and incentive travel) from 45% to 50% of total visitor numbers
- Increase the number of domestic holiday trips from 3 million to 4.3 million, with associated revenue earnings increasing from €0.6 billion to €1 billion
- Double the number of overseas visitors staying at least one night in the Border Midland and Western (BMW) region.

If this increased growth in tourism arrivals to Ireland is to continue what are the possible corresponding associated pressures put on the natural resources, host communities and the L.A.s to plan for and manage these in a sustainable manner? This thesis seeks to identify if Ireland is currently planning for tourism in a sustainable manner that will protect the very product the visitors come to see.

### 1.8 STRUCTURE OF THESIS

The layout and structure of this thesis in relation to the Local Authority perspective on host communities' participation in planning for sustainable tourism in Ireland can be seen in Figure 1.2 after which a brief summary of each chapter is given.

Figure 1.2 Structure of Thesis





Following on from this introductory chapter, chapter two essentially deals with the theoretical background from which concepts are taken and utilised to develop and construct a research framework. The discussion of the various theoretical concepts provides a comprehensive contextual guideline. The fundamental aim of this chapter is to highlight the relevant issues concerning sustainable tourism planning that existing research has not addressed to date in Ireland, thus allowing the research to focus on the development of a theoretical platform from which the extent and depth of sustainable tourism planning in Ireland can be examined.

Chapter three first clarifies the terms ‘community’, ‘host’, ‘host community’ and ‘participation’. The relevant theoretical concepts are then discussed and reviewed. This discussion focuses on major typologies and models put forward in relation to the host community’s participation in sustainable tourism planning. The principle aim of this chapter is to reveal the issues concerning host communities participation in sustainable tourism planning, so as to identify a theoretical framework to assess and measure the level of participation in the making of CDPs in Ireland.

Chapter four discusses and justifies the research approach and methodology in the context of the research aims and objectives. The research procedure is outlined in relation to research aims and the nature of the investigation, highlighting a multi-methodological approach, which initially employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for the collection and analysis of data. This is followed by a discussion on the development and design of the specific research tools to suit the research conditions, such as the participation analysis tool designed to capture a wide range of data at various stages of planning.

Chapter five discusses the empirical results pertaining to the actual level of host community participation by combining both qualitative and quantitative fieldwork. This begins with assessing participation and the law and the statutory obligation to consult. The primary focus of this chapter is to assess the process of consultation for Local Authority development plans which are evaluated in the context of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning. An indepth assessment of the process and format of the public consultation meetings generates a number of key findings from the triangulation of both textual analysis of managers’ reports, relevant theory and in-depth

interviews with planners. Finally, host community participation in tourism planning with other relevant tourism agencies at local, regional, national and E.U. level is reviewed.

Chapter six presents the analysis and findings of the assessment of current theory and the detailed content analysis of the tourism component of all the CDPs in Ireland. Essentially the tourism component of every Local Authority CDP's in Ireland was analysed with the aid of a sustainable tourism planning framework. The analysis then concludes by highlighting the current level of sustainable tourism planning within the Local Authority CDPs in Ireland.

A concluding chapter articulates the major issues that have emerged throughout the thesis. An adequate participation model or process with establishment of clear roles for all stakeholders is seen to be critical in facilitating meaningful participation from host communities when making development plans. The current level of sustainable tourism planning in CDPs is reflected upon. The mechanisms and tools needed to be put in place to support and encourage adequate sustainable tourism planning are recommended in order to manage and mitigate the positive and negative impacts of tourism locally. Finally, this provides valuable baseline data and challenges future researchers to investigate from a longitudinal perspective host community participation in sustainable tourism planning, thereby further expanding knowledge and understanding of tourism planning in Ireland.



## CHAPTER 2

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### HOST COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM PLANNING

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*Is scath a cheile a mharienn na daoine.*

*It is in the shelter of one another that people do live. (anon)*

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Sustainable development must be built by, through and with the commitment of local communities. Stewart and Hams, (1991) argue that the requirements of sustainable development cannot merely be imposed but that active participation by local communities is needed. However, the terms ‘community’, ‘host community’ and ‘participation’ can be interpreted in a myriad of ways. Before entering a full discussion of host community participation in tourism planning, it is first necessary to explore the various potential interpretations of these terms and to define their meaning and function. This chapter therefore clarifies some of the issues surrounding the terms; community, host, host community and participation. The major typologies and available models in relation to host communitys’ participation in sustainable planning for tourism are also reviewed.

#### 2.2 COMMUNITY PROBLEMATIC

According to Agenda 21, sustainable development will only be achieved, through planned democratic, cooperative means, including community involvement in decisions about the environment and development. This concept is not new and increasingly many consultants, policy writers and academic commentators continue to advocate community involvement in tourism planning (Young, 1973; Bosselman, 1979; Krippendorf, 1982; D’Amore, 1983; Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1988; Keogh, 1990;

McIntosh and Goldner, 1990; Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 1994; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Bramwell, 2000; Oppermann and Weaver, 2000; Mason, 2003; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Mason, 2003; Boyd and Singh, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). The associated implementation of sustainable tourism is reliant on a number of key factors, one of which is host community participation. This was reinforced with six out of the twelve aims for sustainable tourism focused on community, with aim six dedicated to local control:

“To engage and empower local communities in planning and decision making about the management and future development of tourism in their area, in consultation with other stakeholders” (UNWTO/UNEP, 2005:9).

This requirement is specifically supported within the ‘Action for More Sustainable European Tourism’ (EU, 2007:5) and in the mandate of Local Agenda 21(LA 21). This requires local government to make community involvement central in the implementation of strategic development initiatives and programmes. Agenda 21 requires:

“every local authority to consult its citizens on local concerns, priorities and actions regarding the environment, development and other (e.g. social) issues, to encourage local consideration of global issues, and to encourage and foster community involvement” (Jackson and Morpeth, 1999:3).

In order to analyse host communities’ participation in sustainable tourism planning, it is necessary to first explore definitions of community and secondly, discuss the relationship communities may have with tourism.

The term “host community” is problematic as it assumes the existence of community. In fact the term community has long been contested within the tourism literature. Despite its ambiguity, the concept continues to retain an intuitive appeal. According to Delanty (2003), current theory highlights how social and political scientists, historians and philosophers have been divided on their use of the term community, leading many to question its usefulness. But virtually every term in social science is contested, and if we reject the word community we will have to replace it with another term. This problem of defining the term is further accelerated by the current growth and expansion of the cyber or virtual community. Indeed there is increased discussion on the virtual community in the wider literature (Castelels, 2001; Delanty, 2003; Shields, 1996). Theory suggests the

emergence and now development of technologically mediated communities where the cyber or virtual community are bringing about new kinds of social groups, which are polymorphous, highly personalised and often expressive. They however can also take more traditional forms, reconstituting families and rural areas and even political movements (Delanty, 2003). The emergence of e-planning for tourism in Ireland and the EU certainly recognises the growth of this element of community. It is therefore essential that this research clearly outlines the context in which the term community will be used in order to assess sustainable tourism planning in Ireland. A rather simplistic approach to community was taken by Jamal and Getz (1995) when they examined collaboration in tourism planning. They state the term community refers to “a body of people living in the same locality”. However others (Porteous, 1989; Joppe, 1996; Sproule and Suhandi, 1998; Mayo, 2000; and Delanty, 2003) have argued the term cannot solely be defined in geographic terms and is much more complicated. For instance, Delanty argues:

“Contemporary community is essentially a communication community based on new kinds of belonging. No longer bound by place, we are able to belong to multiple communities based on religion, nationalism, ethnicity, lifestyles and gender” (2003: 194).

This reinforces the argument that communities can comprise specific groups, from different geographical areas, for example tenants and landowners, farmers and organic farmers, bed and breakfast owners, hotel owners, planners, politicians and even new and old residents. Different interest groups within the community according to many tourism scholars (Sproule and Suhandi, 1998; Murphy, 1999; Gunn, 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Mason, 2003; Inskip, 1991) are likely to be affected variably by change associated with tourism. How these groups then respond to change is influenced by kinship, religion, politics and the strong bonds which have developed between community members over generations. What must also be highlighted is, depending on the particular issue, the community may be united or divided in thought and action (UNFAO, 1990). This is well documented in Eipper’s (1989) discussion of corporate persuasion, state compliance and community impotence in relation to a multinational oil company and host community conflict off Whiddy Island in West Cork.

The current debate on community argues that ‘community’ does not simply exist but may also emerge periodically to represent opposition or resistance to some extent (Shuttles, 1970; Dalton and Dalton, 1975; Anderson, 1983; O’Carroll, 1985; Porteous,

1989; Delanty, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). Thus, community can also represent the mobilisation of interest groups seeking to achieve some predefined goal. Delanty (2003) states that for sociologists, community has traditionally designated a particular form of social organisation based on small groups, such as neighbourhoods, small towns, or a spatially bounded locality. Anthropologists have applied it to culturally defined groups. In other usages, community refers to a political community, where the emphasis is on citizenship, self government, civil society and collective identity. Philosophical and historical studies have focused more on the idea of community as ideology or utopia. What must be understood is these different usages of the term are unavoidable and have reflected the changing society we live in and the forces which act upon it.

Therefore it is evident that although communities can have much in common, they are still a very complex phenomenon which cannot be conceptualised simply in geographic terms. The complexity and issues of the term community has further ramifications therefore for planners as pointed out by Jackson and Morpeth (1999: 6):

“Review of even some of the notions involved suggest that without some recognition of the detail and issues, many of the otherwise well conceived community schemes associated with sustainable development initiatives will be doomed to failure, or will result in tokenism in terms of embracing the level and potential of community involvement envisaged by Agenda 21”.

This thesis is primarily concerned with analysing the level of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning at the local authority level in Ireland and it is not intended to be a theoretical discussion on the existence of community. However the problematic of defining a community and its implication in relation to community involvement in planning is recognised (Gunn, 1985; Cohen, 1988; Sproule and Suhandi, 1998; Keogh, 1990; McIntosh and Goldner, 1990; Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 1994; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Jackson and Morpeth, 1999; Murphy, 1999; Gunn, 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Mason, 2003; Delanty, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). Early into this field was Hillery (1955) with his survey of 94 different definitions of the term and his conclusion that the only element they all appear to have in common was a conviction that community in some way deals with people. Cohen argued in his book ‘The Symbolic Structure of Community’ that community is to be understood as less a social practice than a symbolic structure (Cohen, 1985). This argument seems to be reflected in Anderson’s (1983) work on ‘Imagined Communities’.

This inevitably led to a view of community as shaped by what separates people rather than by what they have in common. Furthermore, O'Carroll (1985) suggested that 'community' can be conceptually coherent if we distinguish clearly between the 'communal' and the 'local', and restrict 'community' purely to that meaning for which Bell and Newby (1976) proffer the term 'communion'. Thus 'community' would then refer only to a type of effectual relationship between individuals, with no preconceptions about the basis on which this might rest. Trovey (1984: 152) strongly contradicts this argument, pointing out that community would rapidly become a superfluous and uninteresting concept. These different uses of the term are unavoidable. However, Delanty (2003) argues that a closer look reveals that the term community does in fact designate both as an idea about belonging and a particular social phenomenon, such as expression of longing for community, the search for meaning and solidarity, and collective identities.

It must be argued at this stage, that it seems evident that while the problems associated with defining community in tourism have been more than highlighted, little or insufficient attention has been given by tourism academics to the detailed definition of the term "community" in terms of tourism planning and more detailed analysis is needed from the academic community. Furthermore, it must be stated that this research is primarily concerned with what may be apparently happening under the label of "community" in relation to tourism planning in Ireland, if anything. In order to facilitate this analysis, and to assist the more complicated definition of "host community", the following definition of community will be used in this thesis:

"community' is self-defining in that it is based on a sense of shared purpose and common goals. It may be geographical in nature or a community of interest, built on heritage and cultural values shared among community members" (Joppe, 1996: 475).

With this definition in mind, it allows us to move from the problematic geographic definitions of community and embrace the notion of e-communities/virtual communities or as Delanty (2003) prefers communication communities while accepting communities are ultimately metaphysical systems that tend to outweigh even their physical and anthropological constructs. The understanding that communities are symbolic constructs is perhaps rudimentary with respect to any attempt to launch tourism in various social settings (Boyd and Singh, 2003: 30). It is however necessary for the purpose of this thesis to understand that 'community' needs to be discussed in relation to the relatively

modern term of 'host community' which will be discussed and clarified here in relation to participation in sustainable tourism planning.

### 2.3 HOST COMMUNITY

Again it appears through an analysis of the literature that in relation to tourism planning there are insufficient detailed comprehensive definitions of the term 'host'. Even the most prominent definitions seem weak and vague in terms of allowing consistent empirical analysis. One of the few definitions found in literature is given below:

"The host is a national of the visited country who is employed in the tourism industry and provides a service to tourists such as hotelier, front office employee, waiter, shop assistant, custom official, tour guide, tour manager, taxi and bus driver" (Reisinger and Turner, 2003: 34).

This definition is clearly problematic as it does not include the unintentional host who may not be working in the tourism industry. The tourist may simply unintentionally compete for parking with a resident with whom they have little interaction, or meet a community member walking on the beach or in the local pub who may in fact act as a host to the tourist. According to Medleck (2003:86) these residents of tourism destinations are also considered as part of the host community.

The reason for the lack of definitions may lie in the growth of tourism research which has witnessed an expansion of terminology associated with tourism (Gunn, 1988; Keogh, 1990; McIntosh and Goldner, 1990; Getz, 1994; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Oppermann and Weaver, 2000). One such term is 'Host Community', which may be somewhat misleading as it implies that there are guests to complement the supposed host. Mason (2003) argues that tourists are not always welcome and a more appropriate term could be;

- Local community,
- Resident community or
- Destination community.

However, as the term host community has been broadly accepted by tourism academics and is commonly in use in the tourism literature, this research will employ the term 'host community'. Other factors which seem to complicate matters is that the host community can in fact act as an attraction or tourism product for tourists. The cultural manifestations of the community, including dance, music, temples, craft and festivals, build up important attractions for the tourist (Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1988; Keogh, 1990;



McIntosh and Goldner, 1990; Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 1994; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Bramwell, 2000; Oppermann and Weaver, 2000; Boyd and Singh, 2003; Mason, 2003). In Ireland actually meeting members of a particular community and staying with them for example in a bed and breakfast may prove to be an important motive for certain tourists. The different forms of contact between host and tourist bring a myriad of benefits but also in some cases conflict. These need to be understood if planners are to actively engage the host community in sustainable tourism planning.

## 2.4 FORMS OF TOURIST-HOST CONTACT

Tourist-host contact can take many forms; it may merely consist of a friendly greeting on the street or business transaction in a café or tourist attraction. DeKadt (1979) has identified three major contact situations between tourist and hosts;

- When tourists purchase goods and services from residents
- When tourists and residents find themselves side by side at an attraction and
- When the two parties come face to face during the process of information exchange.

The contact between host and tourist can have both positive and negative outcomes, it may result in mutual appreciation, acceptance, respect, tolerance and attraction (Dann, 1978; Bochner, 1982; Murphy, 1985; Reisinger and Turner, 2003), develop positive attitudes (Mathieson and Wall, 1982), reduce ethnic prejudices, stereotypes and racial tension (Mann, 1959; Cohen, 1971; Robinson and Preston, 1976) and generally improve the social interactions between individuals from different cultures. This interaction may also lead to cultural education, enrichment and pride (Nunez, 1963; Li and Yu, 1974; UNESCO, 1976; Vogt, 1977).

However the same tourist-host contact may also develop negative perceptions, attitudes, stereotypes, prejudices and increase tension, hostility, suspicion and in some cases violent attacks (Bloom, 1971; Bochner, 1982; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Mitchell, 2001). Differences in national origin, cultural values and cultural gaps (Jackson, 1989) generate clashes of values, conflict and disharmonies (Peck and Lepie, 1977; DeKadt, 1979; Boissevain, 1979; Biddlescomb, 1981; Cooke, 1982; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Choy, 1984; Hall, 1984; Murphy, 1984; Ngunjiri, 1985; Reisinger and Turner, 2003). It may be possible also to have division among the community in relation to tourism with

some individuals or groups being against tourism (Mathieson and Wall 1982; Gunn, 2000; Mowforth and Munt, 2003) and other members becoming advocates for tourism (Inskeep, 1991; Mason, 2003; Page, 2003) while other members of the host community may not be concerned at all (Keogh, 1990; McIntosh and Goldner, 1990; Bramwell, 2000). With this in mind it is necessary to discuss the make up of the host community.

## 2.5 HOST COMMUNITY A HETEROGENEOUS GROUP

When discussing the term host community, the current literature suggests that it is wrong to assume that host community is a homogenous entity. In fact they are just as heterogeneous as tourists (Doxey, 1975; Knopp, 1980; Murphy, 1985; Long and Richardson, 1989; Lankford, 1994; Cooke, 2000; Mason, 2003; Boyd and Singh, 2003). A host community can be made up of indigenous first nation peoples, long term colonial residents, recent domestic and new migrants. This is then coupled with the obvious demographic segmentation of age, gender and lifecycle. Furthermore, within the host community there will be various groups made up of varying value positions. For example, in Ireland within a rural community you may have a gun club and a local bird watching group. According to some scholars (Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Mason, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004) the host community is likely to have individuals and groups with several different value positions, political persuasions and attitudes to socio-cultural phenomena, including tourism.

A spatial definition of host community seems sensible as it allows the people in a specific geographic area to be discussed within the context of the tourist-host relationship. However as suggested earlier this is very simplistic and may possess certain obvious problems as some communities extend past geographic boundaries. For example the Arainn community not only includes people living on Arainn (Inish Mor) but the members of the community who may be living in Inish Mann, Galway, Dublin even New York. The same issue arises when attempting to define community by the values and behaviour it shares. According to Mason (2003), this approach is problematic as many geographic settlements are made up of majority and minority groups in any one community. Hence, geographic settlements include many tourist destinations, exhibit variations of community in terms of ethnic background, length of



residency and age of residents and income. Swarbrooke (1999: 125) divides host communities in terms of:

- Elites and the rest of the population;
- Indigenous residents and immigrants;
- Those involved in tourism and those not involved;
- Property owners and property renters;
- Younger people and older people;
- Employers, employees and self employed;
- Those with private cars and those relying on public transport;
- Affluent and less well off residents;
- Majority communities/ minority communities.

Clearly these deviations highlight the heterogeneous nature of the host community. To ensure effective participation from the host community in tourism planning it is necessary for planners to understand and embrace the heterogeneous nature of community (Murphy, 1985; Gill, 1997; Mason, 2003). With these divisions in mind it is necessary to look deeper into the purpose and function of community. Murphy and Murphy (2004) suggest in their review of community definitions that community has three general dimensions: social functions, spatial area and external recognition. The 'social function' has been described by Murphy and Murphy as people working together to create a place of their own, such as a neighbourhood. These social functions have been described as follows:

“Interest in community is based on the practical grounds that people increasingly are coming together to identify their needs and through cooperative actions improve their social and physical environment” (Dalton and Dalton, 1975:13).

A practical example of this in Ireland may be the local people involved in the tidy towns competition which has been run by Fáilte Ireland for over three decades. This social cohesion can take on a community development approach “which encourages citizen participation, with or without government assistance, in efforts to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the locality, with emphasis on self-help” (Dalton and Dalton, 1975: 1). This social function dimension of community has a strong link with the role of community in sustainable tourism planning. A sociological definition of community highlighted by Gill (1997) and Murphy and Murphy (2004) as being particularly relevant to community tourism is:

“An aggregation of people competing for space. The shape of the community, as well as its activities are characterised by differential use of space and by various processes according to which one type of people and/ or type of social function succeeds another in the ebb and flow of structural change in a competitive situation” (Warren, 1977: 53).

This definition recognises the ecological principles that conceptualise change as an outcome of competition which is highlighted in Murphy’s (1984) ecological model of tourism planning where he recognises that residents have to compete with tourists for basic community resources such as space (parking, restaurants) and facilities (public transport, housing). This can sometimes be seen to unite emerging interest groups over land development issues such as for example Mullaghmore, Kinsale Head or the Keep Ireland Open Campaign. This does not exist in isolation however as all too often there are opposition interest groups which also fulfill the social function of community.

The ‘spatial function’ of community does not generally exist in isolation of the ‘social function’ or ‘external recognition function’ of community. Small Irish coastal villages dependant on tourism such as Bundoran in Donegal or Doolin in Clare are obvious to planners. In larger more urban settings, planners generally attempt to identify neighbourhoods in a manner that retains the social characteristics and dynamic of a community (Gunn, 1988; Inskip, 1991; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). However, the task of describing and locating a community on a map can prove to be a more difficult process. More often the problems emerge not in determining where the core of the spatial community is but where does it end and another begin. Interestingly, on a spatial level, community seems to react if their territory or comfort zone is threatened. This seems to be highlighted by Shuttles (1970) who states the term ‘limited liability’ is given to the neighbourhood level because participation in the community is a voluntary choice. Most people of the area will participate in organisations and political interest groups, but some will not be activated unless their particular street or territory is threatened.

In particular, we have seen the normally quiet areas of Ireland generate considerable demonstration over such threats, for example, the Shell to Sea Campaign led from the Rosport Five incident in 2005. The common terms used to describe such community groups which have primarily developed to stop a particular development they find undesirable are ‘NIMBY’ (Not In My Back Yard) and ‘NOTE’ (Not Over There Either). Such spatial functions of community are not uncommon in relation to tourism

development in Ireland (for example Mullaghmore and Duganmore Golf courses in County Clare). It is paramount then such spatial functions of community are recognised by the tourism industry and associated planners.

The third dimension of community is 'external recognition' as communities generally need some form of recognition externally by society. Although a group can band together and create a strong sense of belonging, even with an internally recognised spatial context, it is of limited utility unless these two dimensions have been recognised and acknowledged by some external agency (Murphy and Murphy, 2004). The media quite often provides external recognition for a community, however it is also important to realise that this can also be achieved by open and inclusive planning processes.

Therefore in terms of this thesis on sustainable tourism planning at local authority level in Ireland it is acknowledged that:

Host communities are heterogeneous and the vested interests of these groups may be varied and complex and have various dimensions: social functions, spatial area and external recognition. It must also be recognised that host communities are not just passive recipients of tourism.

In Ireland in particular the residents of tourist destinations may have a significant stakeholder's role in the tourism industry. They may be actively involved in the provision for tourism for example ghillies, musicians, bed and breakfast owners. As the involvement of the host community has gained more momentum in the tourism planning debate, the involvement and inclusion of the term 'stakeholders' has emerged and this needs some attention. Although the host community is an important component of stakeholders in tourism planning, it is also noted that not all stakeholders are part of the host community. Stakeholders can be defined as any person, group or organisation that is affected by the cause or consequence of an issue. According to Bryson and Crosby (1992: 65), these include all individuals, groups, or organisations directly influenced by the actions others take in relation to tourism in the community. The citizens living in a community with tourism will often find they have multiple roles and views regarding the industry. Murphy and Murphy (2004) suggest that in many communities residents with no apparent link to the industry could in effect be indirect stakeholders, since so many of their local governments invest in tourism-related services such as piers, parks and parades. It is seen as increasingly important for tourism planning in destinations to involve the multiple stakeholders affected by tourism,

including environmental groups, business interests, public authorities and community groups (Gartner, 1996; Williams et al., 1998; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). The theory suggests, though it is often difficult, costly and time consuming to involve a range of stakeholders in the tourism planning process, this involvement may have enormous benefits for sustainability. In particular, participation by multiple stakeholders with varying interests and sometimes conflicting perspectives might encourage more consideration for the associated social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues affecting sustainable development (Bramwell and Lane 1993; De Araujo and Bramwell, 2000; Mason, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). Furthermore, Bonnilla (1997) and Timothy (1998) argue that participation in tourism planning by many stakeholders can help promote sustainable development by increasing respect for the environment, harmony and equality.

It is evident that in relation to this thesis it is important to note that the assessment and involvement of the relevant stakeholders in the sustainable tourism planning process is therefore critical.

## 2.6 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM

One of the criteria essential to the conditions of sustainable tourism planning is participation of the host community. Tourism literature has well documented the evolution and ground swell of opinions that communities should be actively involved in planning for tourism (Gunn, 1972; Doxey, 1975; Knopp, 1980; Murphy, 1985; Long and Richardson, 1989; Lankford, 1994; Cooke, 2000; Mason, 2003; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004). One of the first texts on tourism planning was produced by Gunn who advocated the use of forums to ensure public participation:

“By means of forums with community leaders and constituencies, designers can foster open discussion of the desired goals of tourism development” (1972: 66).

However it is important to realise communities also provide a basic motive for tourists to travel, to experience the way of life, products and festivals of different community's. In the early 1980's Murphy argued that if tourism makes use of a communities resources then the community should be a key player in the process of planning. Furthermore Murphy (1985: 17) argued that:

“As tourism relies upon the involvement of local people, as part of the tourism product, then if the industry is to be self-sustaining, it should involve the community in decision making”.

The potential benefits of host community involvement in tourism planning are substantial. It gives planners an improved understanding of the relevant impacts of tourism within the community (Doxey, 1975; Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1995; Mason, 2003). In Haywood’s paper ‘Responsible and responsive tourism planning in the community’ he argues:

“As a democratic and egalitarian movement, and as a fundamental instrument of constructive social and political change, public participation has the potential for providing new ‘social bargaining tables’ that can turn conflicting views into truly integrated awareness of wider implications of debated issues” (1988: 108).

The argument that the quality of community life can be enhanced by orientating tourism planning towards resolving probable conflicts, mitigating negative impact, and moving towards desirable alternatives while allowing planners to integrate tourism and gain acceptance by the majority of the community through participation is reinforced throughout the literature (Murphy, 1985; Ritchie, 1988; Simmons, 1994; Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996). This argument is supported by Tosun (2000: 615) who states:

“It is believed that a participatory development approach would facilitate implementation of principles of sustainable tourism development by creating better opportunities for local people to gain larger and more balanced benefits from tourism development taking place in their localities”.

Host community participation has thus evolved in its relationship with tourism and is now seen as a method of improving the image and professional basis of tourism development and planning (Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Tosun, 2004) while also respecting and meeting the needs of the host community (Murphy, 1995; Tosun, 1998) as well as supporting a more democratic approach to planning with the host community (Syme, MacPherson, and Seligam, 1991; Simmons, 1994; Tosun, 2004).

There has been a significant shift towards participation in recent years and today a once marginal activity has become the mainstream work of many NGO’s, development agencies, and tourism consultants. In fact the 1990’s was seen as a decade of participatory development and according to Henkel and Stirrat (2001: 168) “it is now

difficult to find a development project that does not claim to adopt a “participatory” approach involving “bottom up” planning, acknowledging the importance of “indigenous” knowledge and claiming to “empower” local people”. Through the evolution and development of Local Agenda 21, participation has become part of the apparatus of development, an inseparable process. Swarbrooke (1999) suggested the rationale for community involvement in tourism as follows:

- It is part of a democratic process;
- It provides a voice for those directly affected by tourism;
- It makes use of local knowledge to ensure decisions are well informed;
- It can reduce potential conflict between tourists and members of the host community.

This rationale put forward by Swarbrooke is supported by Local Agenda 21 in relation to sustainable development and community involvement. It is also important to consider this within the context of this thesis.

Local Agenda 21 emerged from the 1992 Rio Earth Summit and LA 21 challenges local authorities, according to Jackson and Morpeth (1999), to adopt policy goals encompassing not only sustainable development but also to incorporate participative, collaborative processes, which involve local communities in defining their own sustainable futures. However it is important to note as Boyd and Singh, (2003: 19) argue, that although mechanisms for accomplishing this have been proposed with the intention of facilitating judicious use of common endowments for the benefit and perpetuation of community values and for the promotion of community health and well being, putting these mechanisms in place is a daunting task.

Assuming the host community may be involved in tourism planning what conditions are necessary to ensure effective participation? According to Mason (2004), the successful involvement of a community in tourism planning will depend on a number of particular factors being present:

- The nature of the political system at national and local level;
- The degree of political literacy of the local population;
- The nature of the particular tourism issue;
- The awareness of the tourism issue in the community;
- The history of involvement (or lack of it) in tourism-related issues; and
- The attitudes and behaviour of sections of media.



Mason's factors seem to ignore the problematic associated with the term community in that it is accepted and utilised, but is not defined or used consistently. It also does not indicate the amount of time or resources needed to be present to achieve successful community involvement.

These limitations and problems are not unnoted, the association of participation with 'empowerment' and 'sustainability' and the multi-beneficial direct and indirect impacts identified as arising from it have tended to place it on a pedestal (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Host community participation in tourism planning is fundamentally about degrees of citizen power and influence within the policy-making process, and such embodies a relationship between the state (bureaucrats and politicians) and the public (rest of us) (Bahaire and Elliott-White, 1999). As this thesis focuses on the level of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning, the limitations to participation must be discussed and the whole notion of assessment of degrees of participation must be critiqued.

## **2.7 PARTICIPATION NOT A PANACEA**

Participation however has also been under attack in the literature (Rahnema, 1992; Desia, 1995; Cooke and Kothair, 2001; Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Participation it is argued should be subject to critique and must be alive to the possibility that participation has the potential for unjustified exercise of power (Cooke and Kothair, 2001). According to Brandon (1993), phrases such as, 'targeting local people' and 'eliciting community-based participation' rest on gaining community support for projects. Literature has not questioned the good intentions or ethical and theoretical value that lie behind participation, but it is the uncritical manner in which participation is conceptualised and practiced that has attracted attention, debate and critique. The problems with participation seem to centre around the manner in which participatory exercises have been conducted and the way in which it has been subsumed into contemporary planning practices. Cleaver (2001) argues that a new faith in participation arises from three key tenets:

- That participation is inherently good;
- That good techniques can ensure success;
- That considerations of structures of power (and politics) should be avoided.



It is necessary before discussing the application of participation to tourism planning in Ireland to first consider Cleaver's three points.

With Cleaver (2001) arguing that participation is in fact an "act of faith in development" (2001:37), Henkel and Stirrat (2001) suggest that what the "new orthodoxy boldly calls empowerment" has special resonance in what Michel Foucault (1980) calls "subjection" where the technical framework, approach and means of participation in Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) is preordained and fixed.

Ultimately, critics (Taylor, 2001; Hailey, 2001; Kothari, 2001) argue, this form of participation actually drives participants of the process to seeing and representing their world within the context of the PRA experts vision. Or perhaps, local people are simply pragmatic and are able to off-load local knowledge into predetermined structures, but with the view to realising opportunities and resources from external programmes.

The host community involved in the tourism planning process may in fact merely become actors, with participants possibly acting out roles for planners. Kothari (2001) argues that PRA represents an act with participants distinct, 'contrived' roles and practitioners or facilitators acting as stage managers or directors who guide, and attempt to delimit the performance of participants. Thus, planners are not gaining a balanced representative view from participants. This is suggested by Cooke (2001), who claims that participatory processes may lead a group to say what it is they think you and everyone else wants to hear, rather than what they truly believe.

There also exists a further assumption that members of the community are willing and able to participate equally. Most critically some literature suggests (Cooke, 2001; Taylor, 2001; Hailey, 2001; Cleaver, 2001; Mowforth and Munt' 2003) participation simultaneously veils and legitimises existing structures of power. In Taylor's (2001) view, participation is simply not working, because it has been promoted by the powerful, and is largely cosmetic, but most ominously because it is used as a "hegemonic" device to secure compliance to, and control by, existing power structures.

Therefore, in the context of this thesis, it is understood that while participation is not a panacea and does not automatically or necessarily lead to a change in underlying structures of power, the exclusion of the host community from the involvement and decision-making process in tourism planning is today inexcusable.

The actual typologies, techniques and appraisal methods of participation in tourism planning require discussion. This should act as an aid and provide possible tools to analyse the possible level and depth of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning.

## **2.8 TYPOLOGIES OF PARTICIPATION**

The actual concept and principle of local participation may be easy to promote and discuss in relation to sustainable development. This has been demonstrated in the LA 21 discourse on local community involvement in planning. However, the practice and actual application of host community participation is much more complex (Haywood, 1988; Mowforth and Munt, 2000; Mason, 2003; Tosun, 2004). The first issue in relation to community involvement is whether to engage in public participation at all, and if so, what degree of participation is to be pursued by the planners.

If the planners are consulting the literature it suggests firstly that host community participation may be implemented in a myriad of different ways (Arstein, 1969; Inskeep, 1987; Haywood, 1988; Green and Hunter, 1992; Gunn, 1994; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000; Mowforth and Munt, 2000; Mason, 2003; Tosun, 2004) and secondly, these methods of facilitating host community participation have the propensity to allow varying degrees of participation. Thirdly, host community participation may take place at different levels (local, regional, or national) and various forms in numerous ways under site specific conditions (Inskeep, 1987; Green and Hunter, 1992; Gunn, 1994).

Researchers have developed a number of models or frameworks which have been useful in this process (Arstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000). These typologies of community participation have emerged over the past four decades to help determine the level of participation. To ensure consistency in analysis and comparison of the typologies, they have been reviewed here in relation to tourism planning, host community involvement in the decision making process and with respect to the distribution of power. According to Arnstein, citizen power is:

“The redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens to be deliberately included in the future. It is the means by which they can induce significant social reform, which enables them to share in the benefits of affluent society” (1969: 216).

Historically, Arnstein’s (1971) much cited text “A Ladder of Citizen Participation” employed the idea of a ladder of participation to encapsulate the different meanings of community involvement. This according to Haywood (1988), Mason (2003) and Murphy and Murphy (2004) distinguished between eight different degrees of participation from manipulation, therapy, information, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power through to full citizen control (see Table 2.1).

The relevance of Arnstein’s model to tourism has been best illustrated by Murphy and Murphy (2004) where they highlight and provide commentary on the following levels of Arnstein’s model. ‘Manipulation’ (non-participatory) at level one of the ladder is described as the ‘decide-announce-defend’ approach where the public cannot change what has been predetermined. This involves educating the public as to what will be done, often through a set presentation to local government and through supportive stories in the media. The host community involvement in the decision-making process is non-existent at this level. There is no distribution of power from the planners to the community.

Level two is referred to by Arnstein as ‘Therapy’, and appears to involve a very low level of participation. It may provide an opportunity for the public to share its frustrations and concerns, often through a ‘special meeting’ at the local government level. The focus may be on identifying and managing ‘problem people’. In reality this may involve presenting a resort development’s supposed benefits to members of the public and provide them with an opportunity to have their say on the issue without providing feedback mechanisms for modifying the proposal. The host community involvement in the decision-making process and distribution of power is tokenistic at this level.

‘Informing’ or level three, involves a low level of participation and the first legitimate step to participation and distribution of power. Public concern over a pending decision can lead to minor alterations to the decision, but the scope of the changes is limited. This again may involve informing the community of a resort development concept and

provide limited opportunities for them to suggest small changes, such as those relating to the appearance of a resort.

Table 2.1 Typology of community participation

8.	Citizen control	Degrees of citizen control
7.	Delegated Power	
6.	Partnership	
5.	Placation	Degrees of citizen
4.	Consultation	Tokenism
3.	Informing	
2.	Therapy	Non-participation
1.	Manipulation	
Typology of community participation		

Source: Adapted from Arnstein (1971)

The academic commentary on Arnstein's typology (Haywood, 1988; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000; Mason, 2003; Murphy, 2004) suggests that the next level, that of 'consultation', involves minor degrees of participation, whereby special forums exist for the public to share its views through mechanisms, such as surveys and workshops, designed to draw out public goals, ideas and concerns in relation to pending decisions. This level controls the extent of public discussions on tourism and uses these discussions as a means of assessing community support for the proposed resort and other pending tourism decisions. The distribution of power is still quite minimal and remains with the planners. While some changes to the proposal will be considered in response to the public's expressed views, whether it should be built will not be questioned.

Level five 'placation', involves a moderate level of participation. At this level the public seems to influence the decision in a broad based manner, while certain individuals or groups have the opportunity to more closely advise the decision-making bodies. It caters for the creation of task forces, committees or other groups that are seen to represent the

broader interests of the community and these groups advise the decision making bodies. A public advisory group with members hand picked by elected representatives could be created to make recommendations for significant changes to the resort proposal. Here there is clearly some move towards placing power to make decisions with the host community. However, it must be argued at this stage that depending on the level of legitimacy that the decision making body gives to this group, only politically palatable recommendations will be adopted while more radical recommendations are deferred for further study.

The next level referred to as 'Partnerships', involves a high level of participation. The actual decision-making is shared with members of the public. Redistribution of power is through negotiation between the established decision-making bodies and members of the public through the establishment of joint committees. A joint committee made up of members from established decision-making bodies and the public reviews issues and makes recommendations that decision-making bodies adopt, as long as these recommendations are supported by all committee members.

'Delegated power' (level seven), involves a very high level of participation in terms of actual decision-making being led by members of the public. The balance of power is weighed in favor of members of the public through the establishment of joint committees. A joint committee made up of members from established decision-making bodies and the public, where members of the public are in the majority, review the issues and make recommendations that the decision-making bodies will adopt as long as these recommendations are supported by a majority of the committee members.

Finally 'Citizen Control' according to Arnstein and other academic commentators on the model (Haywood, 1988; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000) involves top level participation. This is the highest level of public participation (level eight), in the sense that the general public holds all decision-making power, and creates cooperatives that are responsible for planning, policies and decisions that effect community members. Murphy and Murphy (2004) for instance contend that certain ecotourism groups establish cooperative tourism boards, to plan and operate local tourism ventures, including resorts. The political success of such a process will be determined by the extent to

which the public's representatives in this process are seen to legitimately represent their community and be in a position to make the best possible decisions for their community.

The typology provided by Arnstein and the examples and expansion provided by Murphy and Murphy (2004) of typical tourism planning application have been very useful in determining the degree of participation afforded to the host community in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland. However current theory in this area suggests that this typology does not exist in isolation (Arnstein, 1969; Inskip, 1987; Haywood, 1988; Green and Hunter, 1992; Gunn, 1994; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000; Mowforth and Munt, 2000; Mason, 2003; Tosun, 2004). Therefore, other typologies have also to be reviewed as part of this research. Furthermore, it is also worth noting that Arnstein's model is not without its limitations and these also need to be discussed.

Wilcox (1994) suggests that the rungs in the ladder need renaming and that the ladder may not be an appropriate metaphor, implying as it does a single means of ascent/descent and that the rungs are equally spaced and hence are easily attained. The ladder is also value laden in that it implies that all communities should aspire to and ascend to the higher levels as these are desirable in a democratic society. With these factors taken into account, it is still argued by some scholars that Arnstein's metaphor retains intuitive appeal and alerts us to degrees of participation and what is 'offered' by planning authorities or demanded by citizens (Bahaire and Elliott-White, 1999).

To ensure that the best available model for assessing participation is utilised in this thesis, it is important to examine the theory on other typologies presented in the literature which may attempt to address some of the criticisms of Arnstein's model. A significant argument put forward by Pretty (1995) was that participation can mean different things to different people. This led to the creation of a more detailed typology of participation which also included a critique of each form of participation. Furthermore Pretty, (1995) identified and described seven different types of participation ranging from 'manipulative participation' where actual power lies with groups beyond the local host community, to 'self-mobilisation', in which the power and control over all aspects of the development rest squarely with the local community (see Table 2.2).



Table 2.2 Typology of Participation

Typology	Characteristic of each type
Manipulative participation	Participation is simply a pretence: peoples representatives on official boards but they are unelected and have no power.
Passive participation	People participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened: involves announcements without listening to people's responses.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions: external agent defines problems, does not concede any share in decision making
Participate for material incentives	People participate by contributing resources (e.g.labour) in return for food, cash, yet people have no stake in prolonging practices when incentive ends.
Functional participation	Participation seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals, especially reduce costs: people may participate by forming groups to meet predefined project objectives
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and strengthening of local institutions: participation is seen as a right; the process involves interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives. Groups take control of local decisions and have definite stake
Self mobilisation	People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions to change systems: they develop contacts with external institutions for resources and advise; self mobilisation can spread if governments and NGO's provide an enabling framework of support. This may or may not challenge existing distributions of wealth and power.

Source: Modified from Pretty (1995)

In theory, the application of Pretty's typology is facilitated by a recognition of local circumstances, the unequal distribution of power between local and other interest groups, and different interpretations of the term 'participation' (Mowforth and Munt, 2000; Mason, 2003; Tosun, 2004). Mason (2003) argues that in Pretty's typology it is only under the headings of 'interactive participation' and self-mobilisation' that local people are actively involved in decision-making. The range and type of participation presented in Pretty's model allows for different degrees of external involvement and local control (Mowforth and Munt, 2000), while also reflecting the power relationship between them. Furthermore it must be argued that for local people involved, the decision-making process is only a feature of the interactive participation and self mobilisation level, while in the functional participation level most major decisions have been made before they are taken to the local community. The usefulness of Pretty's model to this thesis is it allows for analysis at each level for differing degrees of external involvement and local control, and attempts to reflect the power relationships between them. This should allow for clear identification of the actual level of



participation afforded to host community involvement in the decision making process in tourism planning in Ireland and is also reflective of the distribution of power at all levels. However this model is clearly more relevant to development studies than the focus of this thesis. Nonetheless, it will be useful in providing a level of comparison to Arnstein's model during the host community participation analysis stage of the research.

Building on Pretty's model, a final typology is presented in the literature which it is argued is the most relevant to the thesis. This is put forward by Tosun (2004) who has purposefully developed a typology of community participation for tourism. The typology as illustrated in Table 2.3 classifies types of community participation under three headings: 'spontaneous community participation', 'coercive community participation' and 'induced community participation'. The appeal of the typology developed by Tosun is that it elaborates on each type of community participation with special reference to the tourism industry. It may be useful in relation to this thesis to further elaborate on this typology to gain a sound conceptual framework for the empirical component of the study.

On closer analysis the highest degree of participation in Tosun's typology, 'spontaneous participation' corresponds to degrees of citizen power in Arnstein's typology and self mobilisation and interactive participation in Pretty's model. It represents an ideal mode of community participation. This ideal type provides full managerial responsibility and authority to the host community (Tosun, 2004). It is typically a bottom up or 'grass roots' style of planning. It actively encourages active participation in decision-making and in relation to this thesis on sustainable tourism planning represents authentic participation and is categorised by what Tosun (2004) calls self planning.

'Induced community participation' in tourism development is comparable with degrees of citizen tokenism in Arnstein's typology, and consultation or participation for material incentives as described by Pretty (1995). Basically in this situation the host community is to hear and be heard. In essence, they have a voice in the tourism planning process.

Table 2.3 Normative typologies of community participation

7. Self-mobilization	8	Citizen control	Degrees of Citizen Power	<u>Spontaneous Participation</u> Bottom-up; active par.; direct participation; par. in decision making, authentic participation; self planning
6. Interactive participation	7	Delegated power		
	6	Partnership		
5. Functional participation	5	Placation	Degrees of Citizen Tokenism	<u>Induced Participation</u> Top-down; passive; formal mostly indirect; degree of tokenism, manipulation; pseudo-participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
4. Participation for material incentives	4	Consultation		
3. Participation by consultation	3	Informing		
2. Passive participation	2	Therapy	Non-participation	<u>Coercive Participation</u> Top-down, passive; mostly indirect, formal; participation in implementation but not necessarily sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; paternalism, non-participation, high degree of tokenism and manipulation
1. Manipulative participation	1	Manipulation		
Pretty's (1995) typology of community participation	Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation		Tosun's (1999a) typology of community participation	

Source: Adapted from Tosun (2005).

However it must be argued that it is clear that they do not have the power to ensure that their views will be utilised by the remaining powerful interest groups such as multinational tourism companies, County Councils and government bodies. As a result, it represents a certain level of tokenism in relation to host community participation within the tourism planning process. This type is the most common mode to be found in developing countries where a host community only endorses decisions regarding tourism development made for them rather than by them (Tosun, 1999). This type of

participation is synonymous with traditional top down forms of planning. On behalf of the community it is passive and indirect, in that they may participate in implementation and sharing the benefits of the tourism industry, but not in the decision-making process.

Finally, Tosun's last degree of community involvement 'coercive participation' is manipulated and manufactured as a replacement for authentic and meaningful host community participation. In relation to Arnstein's model it represents the lowest rungs of the ladder, 'manipulation and therapy'. This coincides with the passive and manipulative participation in Pretty's typology. In fact the purpose of this level of participation is not to meaningfully engage the participants but according to Tosun (2004: 494):

"It enables power holders to educate or cure host communities to turn away potential and actual threats to future tourism development. Some decisions may be taken to meet basic needs of host-communities by consulting local leaders so as to reduce socio-political risks from tourists and tourism development. Although it seems that tourism development is to take place based upon host communities' priorities, it is heavily skewed towards the fostering and development of tourism, and would primarily be concerned with meeting the needs and desires of decision makers, tourism's operators and tourists."

This level of participation accords well with the superimposed nature of tourism activity that is infrequently grafted onto an economy and society in a top-down manner (France, 1988). It is suggested by Tosun that these three typologies may be useful as a tool to identify the spectrum of community participation from passive to authentic and interactive.

Therefore, the insight and debate provided by Arnstein (1971), Pretty (1995) and Tosun (2006) and the adoption of a multi-typology assessment approach allow the researcher to draw from all three typologies and utilise the discourse provided by each to assess at a basic level, host community participation in sustainable planning for tourism. A basic means is stressed here as these typologies are not without their limitations.

There are some limitations with these typologies. Firstly, they do not consider the total population of citizens to be included in the tourism planning process. Also the actual time and duration of the participation is not addressed. Tosun (2004) points to the fact that there is no analysis of significant roadblocks (paternalism, racism, gender discrimination and cultural remoteness of local people to tourism). However, taking

these limitations into consideration, the typologies do provide a simple way to gauge at a basic level the spectrum of participation which may be taking place during community tourism planning and thus will be useful to this thesis.

## 2.9 POWER

The focus of power is very evident in the typology of tourism-destination community relationship scenarios: win-win, win-lose, lose-win or lose-lose, as discussed by a number of authors (Carter and Lowman, 1994; Nepal, 2000; Boyd and Singh, 2003). The win-win scenario is one where both community and tourism benefit, effectively there is general power sharing. The win-lose scenarios may exist where the community benefits but tourism does not necessarily, thus the community hold the majority of the power, extremely rare on a wider level. The third scenario is lose-win where the community loses while tourism gains and the tourist industry holds the majority of power. Finally, the lose-lose scenario indicates the community and tourism both lose out. Loss of community power occurs due to short-term economic gain at the expense of long-term community and environmental loss. While it is imperative to note that while the four scenarios illustrated are broad-based and generalised their relevance in explaining the success and failures in community tourism is undeniable (Boyd and Singh, 2003: 30).

With these broad-based and generalised scenarios in mind there is a need to address power in relation to host community participation in tourism planning and this has been highlighted from the review of the typologies of participation (Arnstein, 1971; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000). Power has been defined by West (1994) as the ability to “impose one’s will or advance one’s own interest”. While power in the decision making process has been defined as: “The potential or actual ability to influence others in desired direction” (Gordon et al., 1990: 589).

Community tourism analysts tend to assume, often implicitly according to Reed (1997), that the planning and policy process is a pluralistic one in which people have equal access to economic and political resources. Reed also argues this assumption runs through ecological models of tourism planning put forward by Murphy (1985). For example, the tourist system is frequently described as being highly fragmented. This

observation, Jamal and Getz (1995: 193) argue, has led to the assumption that: “no single organisation or individual can exert direct control over the destination’s development process”. This argument has been supported by Reed (1997) who argues that such interpretations mask the pivotal role that actions of individuals can have at the local level. At a larger scale, the design and management of, for example, Disney World in Florida have created problems in Greater Orlando that the residents perceive are exacerbated by, if not entirely created by, the Disney Corporation (Warren, 1993).

The level of participation that the public obtains is a direct reflection of the local power dynamic. Susskind and Field (1996) suggest that power is a reflection of resources, including money, intellect, experiences, negotiation and leadership skills as well as the ability to inspire. Those without substantial resources can increase their power by making strategic alliances, rallying support for their views and conducting themselves well in the collaborative decision making process.

Power is also profoundly influenced according to Murphy (2004) by laws, institutions, cultural norms and language, which largely determine the extent to which the views of various stakeholder’s groups will be incorporated into tourism planning. Thus it is worth noting that the final steps for example of Arnstein’s (1971), Pretty’s (1999) and Tosun’s (2004) models may be unachievable for political or economic reasons. Yet according to Webler (1995) there are still strong arguments for the earlier steps, such as partnerships, as a way of complementing existing systems.

Furthermore, the work by Blank (1989:54) on the community tourism imperative suggests that “community leadership is heterogeneous...drawn from a number of power bases”. The varying power relations regarding tourism planning have been viewed as an instrument to be managed and balanced. Jamal and Getz (1995) argue that it is possible to address the issue of power and authority by including legitimate stakeholders and identifying a suitable convener at an early stage in the collaborative planning process. To these ends, they propose criteria for identifying legitimate stakeholders based on identifying the right and capacity to participate. Where power is not initially equal, they suggest that a local authority, for example local government, may be a suitable convener when the issues need to be resolved.

However, this is contested by Reed (1999) who argues that reliance on local authorities to convene power relations assumes that these authorities will be neutral arbiters in the land development process. Yet, political theorists have demonstrated that governance institutions have their own agendas in the formulation and implementation of policy (Clark, 1984; Dye, 1986; Rees, 1990), while applied researchers have illustrated how these agendas have been advanced (Reed, 1995). In specific relation to tourism development, Hollinshead (1990) argues that government agencies may act as regulators, players, or partners exercising influence and control through their regulatory and service function. This is specifically interesting in the context of Ireland, and the application of the participation models may allow the power balances to be highlighted in relation to tourism planning. It must be stressed however that this research is not intended to be a discourse on the power relation between local authorities and the host community.

## **2.10 IMPEDIMENTS TO LOCAL PARTICIPATION**

It is evident at this stage that some literature suggests that involving local communities in decision making about tourism development does not necessarily ensure success (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). In fact Middleton and Hawkins (1998) suggested that, there is little evidence that effective community-led tourism has been implemented; they argue that the main reason community-led planning has failed is due to the fact that a community does not really exist and hence obtaining a consensual view on tourism development is virtually impossible. Interestingly, Murphy (1985) earlier indicated, that it is relatively easy for a community to unite in opposition to a tourism development. However, it is far more difficult for a community to conceptualise, agree and then achieve its own long term tourism future (Middleton and Hawkins, 1998). The process of community engagement has been discussed by Jenkins (1993:62) in detail and he suggests six impediments to local participation in tourism planning:

- The public generally has difficulty in understanding complex and technical planning issues;
- The public does not necessarily understand how the planning process operates or how decisions are made;
- The problem of attaining and maintaining representation of all views in the decision making process;
- Apathy among some if not a majority of citizens;
- The increased cost of decision-making which takes much longer as a result of community participation;



- The overall efficiency (particularly in terms of time; money and the smooth running) of the decision-making process is adversely affected.

These impediments to local participation also highlight the difficulty in encouraging active meaningful host community participation. It will be important to discuss these in relation to the research in hand. However, these impediments taken into consideration, it is also necessary to discuss the limitations to community participation.

Firstly, it must be recognised that there is little research into this area in relation to tourism. Tosun (2000), Timothy and Tosun (2003) suggest operational, structural and cultural limits to community participation in planning. However these are in the context of developing countries. As Ireland may be considered relatively developed this body of work is of minor relevance to this thesis, which focuses more on the various methods employed by planners to facilitate meaningful participation.

## **2.11 METHODS OF PARTICIPATION**

From a historical perspective the whole notion of host community partnerships and workshops to bring together industry and community emerged in the 1980's. A range of approaches or tools such as conciliation, articulation and mediation were recommended by Haywood (1988). This was followed by 'what if scenarios' to give clarity and purpose to the community (Ritchie, 1993). The move from cooperation to collaboration was then noted and argued for by Getz and Jamal (1994) which allowed for a process of joint decision-making within the planning process.

Community involvement in tourism planning can exist in a variety of ways (Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Ritchie, 1993; Jamal and Getz, 1995). In deciding whether to proceed with public participation, and if so how far to move, an appraisal of the community's tourism environment may be necessary. This may ask what are the issues, who are the concerned publics and what are their reactions to these issues? The design and length of participation must be decided upon. Here Haywood (1988) argues logistical costs and administrative convenience tend to support small groups, while the need for adequate representation can necessitate a larger one.

One of the outcomes of this thesis is to determine what form, method and or techniques of participation have been utilised in sustainable planning for tourism in Ireland. Therefore this next section will discuss the methods and tools which are available to



planners to facilitate meaningful participation from the host community when planning for sustainable tourism.

## **2.12 THE TOOLS OF PARTICIPATION**

The tourism planning literature highlights an increasing number of tools for facilitating community participation. Mowforth and Munt (1998) identify tools and techniques such as meetings, public attitude surveys, stated preference surveys, contingent valuation method, Delphi technique, and workshops. However they also stress;

“Those techniques which allow for consultation and participation are still young in their development and suffer various shortcomings” (Mowforth and Munt, 1998: 219).

In order to assess the tools that may be utilised by Local Authorities to facilitate participation, they first need to be described. By far the oldest tool available is that of the public meeting which is usually held before elected or appointed officials, such as village boards or forward planners, using formal rules of order, and resulting in an official vote or recommendation. This is the most structured and formal method of participation used in the latter part of the planning process after most information and comments have been gathered and considered. This is a good tool for eliciting commentary and consideration by elected and appointed representatives of the community, and it gives the community’s official “stamp of approval” to the plan. This method allows participation by the public, but because it occurs late in the planning process it is not the best method for gathering the public’s opinions for establishing goals and objectives of plans, or choosing various alternatives. Mowforth and Munt argue;

“It is debatable whether any of the relatively sophisticated techniques that have become available recently are able to improve on the traditional and well-used technique of the meeting. Local communities the world over traditionally use both formal and informal meetings to debate the course of development and issues which may affect them” (2003: 221).

Meetings are not without shortfalls, for example they are not necessarily all inclusive (Murphy, 1985; Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Middleton and Hawkins, 1998). The use of public meetings may also be criticised for supporting low levels of participation. Arnstein (1971) viewed this as the ‘decide-announce-defend’ approach which involves educating the public as to what will be done, often through a set presentation to local government and through supportive stories in the media. Furthermore, the format of

such meetings may differ significantly and they may be dominated by certain individuals which is problematic in advocating balanced inclusive community participation (Simmons, 1994; Green and Hunter, 1995; Murphy, 1995). Therefore, public meetings carried out in isolation are not seen as a particularly effective tool in facilitating host community participation.

Gunn (1972: 66) one of the first texts on tourism planning advocated for the use of forums to ensure public participation. By means of forums with community leaders and constituencies, designers can foster open discussion of the desired goals of tourism development. Forums and committees generally consist of a group of people in the community that deal with the planning project from conception to completion. It usually consists of volunteers or appointees who work together with officials, investing considerable time in the process. This tool can be very valuable because committee members develop a high level of investment in the project. However, it does not allow a direct method of participation for all members of the public thus resulting in a low level of overall community participation (Tosun, 2004). Committees should be representative of residents and interest groups where individuals may voice their views through committee members. This in reality may be difficult to ensure as members of the forum are often voluntary (Mowforth and Munt, 2003), and thus under significant pressure from other sources and the resulting time constraints. The use of focus and advisory groups made up from the community members is similar to the committee, but, unlike a committee that meets regularly during the entire length of the process, each focus group typically meets once at an early phase of the process. The focus group is a good method to promote dialogue between different groups in the community to identify issues and concerns toward establishing goals and objectives for the plan.

The Charette or “community design charette” is an innovative approach that is widely used by physical planners and designers (Murphy, 1995). This involves a workshop involving local citizens facilitated by architects, landscape architects and planners to identify opportunities and constraints on maps so that issues are spatially defined for planning purposes. The planner or facilitator then assists participants at the workshop in giving form to alternative proposals for their community through mapping and drawings. A multi-meeting intensive collaborative effort involving community members and sometimes officials help to create a detailed design plan for a specific area (Gunn, 1994; Murphy, 1995; Bahaire and Elliott-White, 1999; Mowforth and Munt, 2003).

They address and form solutions for problems in a short period, resulting in a comprehensive physical plan for a designated area of policy. Therefore, this method would not be useful for an overall general plan for a large area, but might be useful for addressing a small sub-area of the community. The charette is one of the fastest and well known methods of developing consensus among various individuals and community groups, however it is also extremely time consuming and costly to planners.

Another method advocated by planning theory is the survey, namely public attitude surveys and stated preference surveys, of which exists four principal types: postal, telephone, focus group interviews and in-person (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). In-person interviews are the most expensive but reveal a great deal of in-depth qualitative data that can often be invaluable to planners, with mailed surveys proving to be the least expensive (Inskeep, 1991). However the data is often very formal and structured and it takes a longer time to collect data, and the response rate is characteristically low. Telephone surveys are less expensive than in-person surveys, and can provide statistically significant data in a relatively short time. Surveys are very useful for assessing the opinions and desires of the community to participate in tourism planning within destinations. However they can be limited to the collection of opinions of stakeholders in order to provide fuller information for the public sector planners. According to De Araujo and Bramwell (2000), this can be largely a one way consultation process when there is little direct dialogue between the stakeholders and planners. This can occur when the opinions of stakeholders are collected using self completion questionnaires, focus group interviews, drop in centres and telephone surveys. De Araujo and Bramwell (2000) argue that it is likely to be less complex to collect people's opinions than to involve them in direct dialogue with public sector planners or seek negotiations and consensus building through collaborative planning.

While these one-way processes seem less time consuming and seem to be capable of involving a greater number of participants, they are often criticised for being one way and advocate top-down planning (Inskeep, 1991; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Gunn, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2004; Mowforth and Munt, 2004). However, it must be recognised that these practices can offer very valuable information for decision-making in collaborative working groups (Simmons, 1994; Yuksel et al, 1999). It must be noted that they also allow stakeholders to be consulted at several stages in the planning process if the planners maintain a database of participants and keep them informed

about the developments. Therefore, these may be useful tools if not solely used in isolation to engage meaningful host community participation.

The current growth and expansion of the cyber or virtual community has witnessed increased use of electronic communications such as web sites, email, and cable television by planners and local governments to communicate with host communities. Indeed there is increased discussion on the virtual community in the literature (Sheilds, 1996; Castells, 2001; Delanty, 2003). Information regarding the planning process can be put on the web site or broadcast on cable access channels with citizens posting questions and comments directly to a site or responding by email. This is a convenient and relatively inexpensive tool. Citizens who may not be able to attend scheduled meetings may access the information at any time and on their own schedule.

Theory suggests that the emergence and new development of technologically mediated, cyber or virtual communities are bringing about new kinds of social groups, which are polymorphous, highly personalised and often expressive (Delanty, 2003). Thus the emergence of e-planning for tourism must be recognised as a new and potentially powerful tool to facilitate host community participation and the analysis should qualify the current state of e-planning in Ireland.

A final technique which attempts to involve the notion of participation in the making of decisions is the Delphi technique. This is used to set threshold values or critical levels of standards for specific aspects of a development (such as maximum visitor numbers). This is a judgemental technique involving the subjective assessment of those who take part, although it is often seen as a means of collecting expert or informed opinion and of working towards consensus between experts on a given issue (Green and Hunter, 1992). The technique initially uses the actual responses from a questionnaire in relation to the planning issue, followed by a feedback second session on all responses. The third stage simply repeats the first stage but the participants have the benefit of knowing all other responses, this is simply repeated until a consensus is reached.

This model has the advantage of anonymity, or at least separation of the participants, thereby reducing peer pressure in the formation of opinions thus permitting more honest responses. It must be argued however that a disadvantage to this technique is the

method of selection of participants which is not extensive and is made by either planners or interested parties who wish to see the proposal go ahead (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Furthermore, in terms of Pretty's typology though such techniques may help to improve the level of participation, they are unlikely according to Mowforth and Munt (2003), to attain a high level unless they focus on the degree of decision-making devolved to the local community as well as its active involvement in the operation of the scheme. Therefore, it may be suggested that without adequate sustained and dedicated funding, time and trained professional application, the process is open to problems and low levels of participation.

The tourism planning literature increasingly highlights an increasing number of specific approaches, models, techniques and ladders for implementing community participation. Murphy (1988) identifies partnerships and community workshops to bring together the industry and the community. Haywood (1988) argues participants in a community participation process require a range of tools such as conciliation, mediation, articulation, and identification of super-ordinate goals. This has led other authors such as Ritchie (1993) to identify vision statements and 'what if' scenarios to give clarity and purpose to the community tourism participation process. The next section of this thesis will discuss a cross section of approaches identified in the literature (Pines, 1984; Gray, 1985; Drake, 1991; Simmons, 1994; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Bonnilla, 1997; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Mason, 2004).

### **2.12.1 Pine's participation ladder**

As reiterated throughout the tourism literature, community involvement in tourism can exist in a range of formats. Once a community is involved in participation however, the participation may proceed through various stages as is illustrated in Table 2.4. It must be highlighted that there are a number of varying processes outlined for host community participation and they all offer unique attributes depending on values within the community, the types of tourism, and the resources available.

As can be seen from Table 2.4, Pine (1984) demonstrates a basic process of participation based on a nine stage process. While the process is over two decades old it still holds some important features relevant to the process of participation today. What

is interesting about this process is it was based on three case studies, in Finland, England

Table 2.4 Participation ladder

(1)	Information	Introduction of existing tourism policy to citizens by the authority
(2)	Animation	Stimulation of perception among citizens
(3)	Participation (stage 1)	Opening of dialogue between citizens and authority
(4)	Participation (stage 2)	Initiation of tourism planning on a basis of partnership
(5)	Participation (stage 3)	Joint research- identification of strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats, etc.
(6)	Participation (stage 4)	Determination of tourism objectives and strategies
(7)	Participation (stage 5)	Joint decision making regarding resource allocation, development and management
(8)	Operationalisation	Implementation of tourism strategy by administrators
(9)	Participation (stages 6-1)	Review of tourism policy and achievements

Source: Adapted from Pine (1984)

and Ireland, the latter being important to the focus of this thesis. This represents the first mention in the literature in relation to host community participation and while it is not specifically relevant to tourism it does address community development and voluntary associations. However, Pine's ladder of participation is problematic in its assumptions and simplicity. It, for example, offers no time line for the process or numbers of participants which can be facilitated, nor does it address what resources are needed to move through the ladder to the next stage.

### 2.12.2 Drake's model of local participation in tourism development

In contrast to Pine's ladder and within the context of nature based tourism, Drake (1991) suggested a model of local participation in tourism development. Drake argued that local participation referred to the ability of local communities to influence the outcomes of development projects that had an impact upon them. Drake created a nine phase model, which is presented in Table 2.5.



Table 2.5 Drake's nine phase model of local participation in nature based tourism

**Phase 1:** Determine the role of local participation in the project. This includes an assessment of how local people can help

**Phase 2:** Choose research team. The team should include a broad selection

**Phase 3:** Conduct preliminary studies. The political economic and social conditions of the community should be studied, via documents and surveys. The following should be identified: needs, local leaders, community commitment to the project, media involvement/interest, traditional use of land, role of women, land ownership and cultural values

**Phase 4:** Determine the level of local involvement. This will be somewhere along a continuum from low to high intensity

**Phase 5:** Determine an appropriate participation mechanism. This is linked to the intensity of involvement, the nature of existing institutions and characteristics of local people. It is likely to involve consultation and sharing

**Phase 6:** Initiate dialogue and educational efforts. The use of the press is important in this phase as a means by which to build consensus through public awareness. Key community representatives can be used in this process. Workshops or public meetings could be organised to identify strengths and weaknesses of the project.

**Phase 7:** Collective decision-making. This is a critical stage which synthesizes all research and information from the local population. The project team presents the findings of their research to the community, together with an action plan. Community members are asked to react to the plan, with the possible end result being a forum through which the team and local people negotiate to reach a final consensus based on the impact of the project.

**Phase 8:** Development of an action plan and implementation scheme.

**Phase 9:** Monitoring and evaluation. Although often neglected this should occur frequently and over the long term. The key evaluation is to discover whether goals and objectives set out early in the projects life-cycle have been accomplished or not.

Source: Modified from Mason, (2004:119)

Drake's model, it must be argued, tends to lend itself more to real application within the field of tourism planning than Pine's ladder and therefore may facilitate more integrated community involvement in sustainable tourism planning. Research objective three "To critically examine the process in place to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning" within this thesis will examine if any particular process as identified by Drake and Pine is being utilised by Local Authority planners in Ireland.



### **2.12.3 Participatory ecotourism planning model**

Another model which seems to be growing in use is the participatory ecotourism planning model which has been utilised with some success according to Bonnilla (1997). It is not possible to go into a detailed account of each participation method discussed in this literature review, however for the purpose of illustration a short summary is provided (see Table 2.6). The process evolved between 1996 and 1997 when Conservation International conducted two participatory ecotourism planning processes in major regions of the Peten, Guatemala and Inca Region, Perú. Despite obvious differences, both countries and regions share problems created by a rapid development of the tourism industry and a poor or non-existing planning framework. As a result of processes occurring simultaneously, both were enriched by the exchange of experiences and the original plan of each one was subsequently improved by the new ideas and methods developed by the other. Bonnilla (1997) put forward this overview of the methodology used.

The first workshop in Peten took place over three days with more than forty essential problems and barriers identified, and more than sixty corrective or preventive actions proposed. Even though during the first day of work old conflicts between stakeholders were revived, the methodology employed permitted all of the discussion to concentrate on the proposal which allowed concrete principles and actions to be generated that had the approval of all sectors involved. The second workshop in Peten, also took place over three days and generated the base for the tourism policy, presenting principles, guidelines and actions, considering all aspects of the situation: such as environment, legal, socioeconomic and business. The single most important issue in the success of the methodology according to Bonnilla (1997), is the participation of all those involved in the activity. The actors and builders of the policy are all those who will be affected or must take responsibility for its implementation. Of course, it is impossible to have everybody involved in tourism in the region attend a workshop, so the identification of suitable representatives of all sectors is critical.

Table 2.6 Participatory ecotourism planning model

**Phase I: Preliminary Assessment.**

Phase I permits the assessment of three critical issues necessary to the success of the process. These are:

- a) Relevant aspects of the industry, including data on the current offer, demand, trends.
- b) Existing legal and administrative framework.
- b) Stakeholders involved in the local and regional tourism scene.

**Phase II: Strategic Participatory Planning Workshops.**

Phase II involves stakeholders in a three stage planning process:

- a) Participatory analysis of the actual tourism situation, identifying barriers and bottlenecks for the activity in the region.
- b) Classify barriers and bottlenecks according to two relevant factors: Aspects of the activity, including business, socioeconomic, environmental and legal-administrative; and geographic distribution, establishing priorities and the main barriers for each area that supports or has potential for tourism activity.
- c) Definition of strategic plan, defining general principles of policy, priorities, strategies, actions, who is responsible for the action and indicators of progress.

**Phase III: Validation and Conformation of Steering Committee.**

Once a strategic plan is created it is critical that proper follow-up puts into action the strategies proposed. The next step is then the establishing of a steering committee which includes all sectors involved, maintains the communication flow and implements the action plan.

Source: Modified from Bonnilla (1997: 23)

Typically, there are four major sectors involved in tourism in a given region, government sector, private sector, community sector and non government sector. The core of the methodology is composed by the planning workshops (see Table 2.6). These three-day long workshops follow an interactive methodology loosely based in ZOPP (ziel orientated project planning, or objective orientated project planning), a participatory planning strategy developed by the German cooperation agency GTZ in the 1980's. The main virtue of ZOPP is that it provides a graphic interface to understand how barriers and problems relate to each other, from cause to consequence. Because it is based on the writing of concise sentences in 4 by 6-inch cards, it prevents long verbal discussions and makes it easier to admit or attack an idea or concept without involving the person who proposed it. The objectives of the workshops are:

- To generate participatory analysis of the actual tourism situation, identifying barriers and bottlenecks for the activity in the region;
- To classify barriers and bottlenecks according to two relevant factors: (i) Aspects of the activity, including business, socioeconomic, environmental and legal-administrative. (ii) Geographic distribution, establishing priorities and the main barriers for each area that supports or has potential for tourism activity;
- To create a strategic plan, defining general principles of policy, priorities, strategies, actions, who is responsible for the action and indicators of progress.

The process outlined is centred on community participation and this may lead one to ask how many planning workshops are necessary. The information gathered by Phase I helps decide the number of workshops. If the region for which the strategy is being planned is divided into sub-regions which have very different degrees of tourism development, or very marked differences, then probably it is a good idea to have at least one workshop for each region.

The resources, expertise, time and detail needed to engage a community in sustainable tourism planning has become increasingly more obvious from the literature and examples explained. The process just discussed should offer enough detail to determine if similar models, time and resources are being employed in tourism planning in Ireland. The work of Bonnilla, (1997) and Mowforth and Munt (2003) have also highlighted a trend for participatory approaches to enquiry and research. Participatory Action Research (PAR), Participatory Research Methodology (PRM), Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRS) and Rapid Ethnographic Assessment (REA) and a bewildering array of other acronyms and initials have entered into use (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Although they are often formally stated to involve many steps in the process, essentially they follow the three step procedure of participatory enquiry, collective analysis and action in the locality.

More sophisticated survey techniques, public attitude surveys, stated preference technique and contingent valuation methods all suffer the disadvantage of being conducted, administered, promoted and published by persons outside the local community affected by tourism development (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). However the degree of attention within the current literature in relation to the collaborative and

partnership approach offers the public a collaborative or partnership role with the planning process.

#### **2.12.4 Collaboration and partnership approach**

The collaboration process for tourism planning has been advocated by many tourism scholars (Haywood, 1988; Gray, 1989; Inskip, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Gunn, 2002; Reid and Mair, 2004; Murphy, 2005). There are a number of interpretations and models put forward by the relevant tourism commentators which are similar in essence. However the collaborative process can vary according to many dimensions, and for analytical purposes it is helpful to conceptualise each dimension as a continuum, along which specific examples can be located. In this context, some authors place the ideas of collaboration between stakeholders within a broader conceptual framework of the network of stakeholders relevant to an issue and of the diverse relations between these parties (Amin and Thrift, 1995; Healy, 1997; Thompson, 1991; Bramwell and Lane, 2000). Collaborative planning in tourist destinations is usually considered to involve direct dialogue among the participating stakeholders, including the public sectors planners, and thus has the potential to lead to negotiation, shared decision making and consensus building about planning goals and actions (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999).

For the purpose of this literature review the author will concentrate on the definition and model put forward by Jamal and Getz (1995) in their seminal paper “Collaboration Theory and Community Tourism Planning”. The definition put forward was adapted from Gray’s (1989) work on collaboration theory and is as follows “Collaboration for community-based tourism planning is a process of joint-decision making among autonomous, key stakeholders of an inter-organisational, community tourism domain to resolve planning problems of the domain and/or manage issues related to the planning and development of the domain” (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 188). With this definition in mind for participation in tourism planning in Ireland it is worth considering the five key characteristics of collaboration which have been outlined by Gray (1985:236):

1. The stakeholders are independent;
2. Solutions emerge by dealing constructively with differences;
3. Joint ownership of decisions is involved;
4. The stakeholders assume collective responsibility for ongoing direction of the domain;
5. Collaboration is an emergent process, where collaborative initiatives can be understood as emergent organisational arrangements through which organisations collectively cope with the growing complexities of their environment.

Gray suggested a three stage model through which collaboration develops (see Table 2.7). The first stage consists of an initial problem setting which helps identify key stakeholders and issues. This is then followed by the second stage in the process which is concerned with direction setting. This helps identify and create a shared vision of future collaborative interpretations allowing a sense of common purpose to emerge.

The final stage of the process is implementation, where a shared vision, plan or strategy is implemented with a focus on selecting a suitable structure for institutionalising the process. Here tasks and goals may be assigned along with monitoring of ongoing processes to ensure compliance to collaboration decisions. The literature suggests numerous potential benefits for collaboration when the rich diversity of stakeholders affected by tourism attempt to collaborate and generate tourism plans. Some of these are quite obvious, like decreasing conflict from stakeholders who realise they need to work together towards a common shared goal. Overall the stakeholders may benefit from fewer adverse tourism impacts, increased competitiveness and enhanced equality (Gray, 1996; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Parker, 2000). A comprehensive list of potential benefits of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning has been generated by Bramwell and Lane (2000) and can be seen in Table 2.8. There are also limitations and obvious potential problems with collaboration in tourism planning. The most obvious is the need if it arises to overcome the whole issue of mistrust which may have already set into the tourist destination.

Table 2:7 A collaborative process for community-based tourism planning

Stage and Propositions	Facilitating Conditions	Actions/Steps
<p>Stage 1 Problem- setting Propositions applicable: P1,P2,P3,P4,P5</p>	<p>Recognition of interdependent Identification of a required number of stakeholders Legitimate/skilled convener Positive beliefs about outcomes Shared access power Mandate (external or internal) Adequate resources for process</p>	<p>Define purpose and domain Identify convener Convene stakeholders Define issues to resolve Identify and legitimize stakeholders. Build commitment to collaborate by raising awareness of interdependence Balance power differences Address stakeholders concerns Ensure adequate resources available to allow collaboration</p>
<p>Stage 2 Direction-setting Propositions applicable: P1, P2, P3, P5</p>	<p>Coincidence of values Distribution of power among stakeholders</p>	<p>Collect and share information Appreciate shared values, enhance perceived interdependence Ensure rules and agenda for direction setting Organize subgroups if required List alternatives Discuss various options Select appropriate solutions Arrive at shared vision or plan .</p>
<p>Stage 3: Implementation Propositions applicable: P1, P2, P5</p>	<p>High degree of ongoing interdependence. External mandates Redistribution of power Influencing the contextual environment</p>	<p>Discuss means of implantation and monitoring solutions, shared vision, and plan or strategy Select suitable structure for institutionalizing process Assign goals and tasks Monitor ongoing progress and ensure compliance to collaboration decisions</p>

Source: Modified from Gray (1985) and Jamel and Getz (1995).

This may be connected to environmental impacts which in itself raises complicated issues on guardianship and long term management of resources. Another significant potential problem relates to the issue of power, the process may challenge the vested interests and power of otherwise dominant organisations (Gray, 1996; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Parker, 2000). The collaboration or partnership may be set up as a tokenistic gesture to avoid tackling the bigger issues directly with all citizens involved.



Table 2.8 Benefits of collaboration and partnership in tourism planning

- There may be involvement by a range of stakeholders, all of whom are affected by the multiple issues of tourism development and may be well placed to introduce change and improvement
- Decision-making power and control may diffuse to the multiple stakeholders that are affected by the issue, which is favorable for democracy
- The involvement of several stakeholders may increase the social acceptance of policies, so that implementation and enforcement may be easier to affect.
- More constructive and less adversarial attitudes might result as a consequence of working together.
- The parties who are directly affected by the issues may bring their knowledge, attitudes and other capacities to the policy-making process.
- A creative synergy may result from working together, perhaps leading to greater innovation and effectiveness.
- Partnership can promote learning about the work, skills and potential of the other partners, and also develop the group interaction and negotiating skills that help to make partnerships successful.
- Parties involved in policy-making may have a greater commitment to putting the resulting policies into practice.
- There may be improved coordination of policies and related actions of the multiple stakeholders.
- There may be greater consideration of the diverse economic, environmental and social issues that affect the sustainable development of resources.
- When multiple stakeholders are engaged in decision-making the resulting policies may be more flexible and also more sensitive to local communities and to changing conditions.
- Non-tourism activities may be encouraged, leading to a broadening of the economic, employment and societal base of a given community or region.

Source: Adapted from Bramwell and Lane (2000)

Again Bramwell and Lane (2000) have provided a list of potential problems which are shown in Table 2.9. There are numerous examples in the literature of specific case studies demonstrating the success of collaborative community tourism planning (Murphy, 1988; Jamel and Getz, 1995; Bahaire and Elliott-White, 1999; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Parker, 2000; Hall, 2000; Mason, 2003; Burns, 2004; Tosun, 2005). These case studies have been useful in providing in-depth insight into the process. They allow the researcher to identify the resources needed, time and the number of people involved within the process. Murphy (1988) for example provides an insight into such a collaborative planning exercise in Greater Victoria, British Columbia, Canada. Here 53 agencies and groups collaborated to solve the logistical and marketing difficulties being faced by this fragmented domain. The process involved a two day workshop attended by 150 people, with the result being shared common marketing vision and objectives. From the work put forward by the aforementioned authors, it is evident that the collaborative



process for community based tourism planning may offer a very applicable process which could be utilised in county based tourism planning in Ireland.

Table 2.9 Problems of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning

- In some places and for some issues there may be only a limited tradition of stakeholders participating in policy-making.
- A partnership may be set up simply as ‘window dressing’ to avoid tackling real problems head on with all interests.
- Healthy conflict may be stifled.
- Collaborative efforts may be under-resourced in relation to requirements for additional staff time, leadership and administrative resources.
- Actors may not be disposed to reduce their own power or to work together with unfamiliar partners or previous adversaries.
- Those stakeholders with less power may be excluded from the process of collaborative working or may have less influence on the process.
- Power within collaborative arrangements could pass to groups or individuals with more effective political skills.
- Some key parties may be uninterested or inactive in working with others, sometimes because they decide to rely on others to produce the benefits resulting from partnership.
- Some partners might coerce others by threatening to leave the partnership in order to press their own case.
- The involvement of democratically elected government in collaborative working and consensus building may compromise its ability to protect the ‘public interest’.
- Accountability to various constituencies may become blurred as the greater institutional complexity of collaboration can obscure who is accountable to whom and for what.
- Collaboration may increase uncertainty about the future as the policies developed by multiple stakeholders are more difficult to predict than those developed by an authority.
- The vested interests and established practices of the multiple stakeholders involved in collaborative working may block innovation.
- Some collaborative arrangements may outline their usefulness, with their bureaucracies seeking to extend their lives unreasonably.

Source: Adapted from Bramwell and Lane (2000)

The collaboration process for community-based tourism planning provides a dynamic process orientated strategy which Jamal and Getz (1995) suggest may be suitable to manage turbulent planning domains at the local level. It aids public-private sector interactions and should therefore provide an effective mechanism for community involvement in tourism planning in Ireland, through the selection of key stakeholders to represent the public interests. It is also worth pointing out that Jamal and Getz (1995) argue that with the pace of change associated with tourism and intensifying competition resulting from the globalisation, sustainable tourism development at the local and global level will therefore require much greater cooperation than practiced to date. What is even more significant is they suggest that in the future in emerging tourism domains, it

may be necessary to specifically implement a collaborative community-based planning process and form relevant organisations to manage the tourism development affairs of the community and the region.

This raises the question as to what form of method of participation, if any, was being deployed at the Local Authority level in Ireland. Furthermore, despite wide scale recognition of the value of the various tools available to facilitate participation (Delbecq and Van de Ven, 1971; Glass, 1979; Murphy, 1985; Simmons, 1994; Middleton and Hawkins, 1998; Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Pretty, 1999; Richards and Hall, 2000; Tosun, 2004; Murphy and Murphy, 2004) on closer analysis of the theory on community participation in tourism planning, it is evident that little in-depth critical appraisal has been carried out of the various tools available for facilitating participation. Research by Simmons (1994) only provides a subjective rather than empirical appraisal of methods (see Table 2.10). This clearly establishes a knowledge gap which if filled may facilitate tourism planners to utilise the best tools available to encourage meaningful and appropriate host community participation in sustainable tourism planning.

Table 2.10 Education of citizen participation methods in tourism

Method	Type of Communication	No. of Participants	Representativeness of Participants	Efficiency		Perceived Personal Usefulness	
				Cost	Time	for Public	for Planners
Interviews with key stakeholders	Two Way	Low	High	High	Medium	Medium	Low
Community survey	One way	High	High	High	High	Low	Medium
Focus groups (including a nominal group technique session)	Two way	Low	Medium	Medium	Medium	High	High

Source: Modified from Simmons (1994)

### **2.13 TOWARDS A FRAMEWORK OF ASSESSING HOST COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION**

Sustainable development must be built by, through and with the commitment of local communities. Stewart and Hams (1991) argue that the requirements of sustainable development cannot merely be imposed, active participation by local communities is needed. The absence of an existing framework that could be used to assess levels of host community participation in sustainable planning for tourism in Ireland resulted in the development of a specific framework being generated for the purpose of this thesis.

In order to probe planners and analyse the actual level of host community participation in the sustainable planning process it was necessary to construct a framework capable of incorporating the majority of themes which have emerged from the literature review. This includes the host community problematic, methods of facilitating participation through to typologies of participation such as Tosun's (1999) normative typologies of community participation. Additionally, the framework needed to incorporate the legal or statutory obligation to consult, as well as the process for designing new County Development Plans.

In light of the discussion around this literature, this thesis requires a framework for assessing community participation in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland. It is however important to put this framework into the context of the Local Authority County Development Planning process involving communication and interrelationships (Figure 1.1) in order to appreciate the complexities and stages of the planning process within which participation takes place.

Specifically, the framework needs to assess the major themes which emerge throughout the review of theory and assessment of the DOE (2000) process for making County Development Plans (see chapter 3). Therefore an outline of the framework is provided in this chapter with a more detail version (Figure 4.2) being provided in chapter four.

The first theme is concerned with the need to define host community in order to facilitate meaningful participation. It assesses if the Local Authorities and any state tourism related bodies have defined or identified community, host community,

Figure 2.1 An outline of the framework for assessing community participation in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland

<b>1 Host Community</b>	<b>4 Draft plan</b>
The need to plan for tourism communities addressed. Legal obligation to consult addressed and fulfilled. Communication of the initiation of the consultation process.	Inspection copy of draft plan made available to host community and sent to various stakeholders and authorities. Alterations and impacts to draft plan from host community and various agencies submissions
<b>2 Process of Consultation</b>	<b>5 Information host community of changes to draft plan and final plan, E-Planning</b>
Specific participation model used. External Facilitator used. Mechanism in place for consultation. Method of participation (tools used)	<b>6 Training and Support for Planners to Facilitate Consultation</b>
<b>3 Host Community and Stakeholders Submissions on Planning Concerns</b>	<b>7 Community participation at higher levels (Regional, National and EU)</b>

destination community or stakeholders. It also analyses Local Authorities legal obligation and legal processes outlined for public consultation. In particular, it assesses the legal process of consultation followed in terms of communication, notification of public meetings, oral submissions and manager's reports on submissions.

Theme two assesses if specific participation models were applied to facilitate host community involvement. It identifies if an external facilitator was used and if the Local Authority had a particular mechanism in place for community consultation. It then breaks the process up into the following subcategories to ensure that all the components were assessed; number of public consultation meetings held, time of public meetings, presentations and exhibitions given, question and answer sessions facilitated, participatory workshops facilitated at public meetings, written submissions taken at meetings and individual clinic facilitation.

Theme three is concerned with the assessment of submissions. In order to identify the level of participation, it is necessary to assess the number of submissions made at the various stages of the planning process and identify through content analysis how many of these submissions directly relate to tourism. The framework allows these results to be compared and contrasted on a national level between counties in terms of tourist arrivals to the region.

Theme four examines some aspects of the draft plan preparation and its exposure to the host community and prescribed bodies. In particular it determines the nature of alterations to the draft plan, focusing on County Councillors impact on the alteration of the plan and the second managers' report on relevant submissions from community, stakeholder or prescribed bodies.

Theme five of the framework examines communication within the planning process and the emergent area of electronic planning (e-planning) and assesses the level of e-planning engaged in by Local Authorities. It is also concerned with determining the detail and depth of the e-planning portals being employed by the forward planners.

Theme six within the framework incorporates the assessment of levels of training and support available to planners who were responsible for facilitating this process. In particular, it notes external and in-house training for planners on public consultation. It assesses the level of support offered by literature and guides on the consultation process available to planners and finally assesses if the available resources provided by the Local Authority for running the consultation process is a limitation.

Theme seven addresses levels of community participation at a regional, national and European level. This allows the researcher to provide a bottom-up assessment of participation, assessing levels of community involvement from the local plan level to the wider European level.

## **2:14 CONCLUSION**

The need for community participation in sustainable tourism planning has been clearly identified from world summit level to the implementation of LA 21. However, this reality is yet to be fully realised. Some concern has been raised in relation to the problematic of community in that the term "host community" has been used widely by planners, academics and policy writers with assumptions made in relation to the definition, homogeneity and willingness to participate in sustainable tourism planning processes. While there is an abundance of international literature and case studies on the need for and application of community involvement in tourism planning, there still exists the fundamental debate as to whether communities exist in a functional sense, and

if they do, are they prepared and willing to be involved in determining their own futures.

There exists the need for more specific and in-depth assessment in order to help define the host community and assess the validity of engaging in and uses of particular methods employed to facilitate long-term meaningful host community participation in sustainable tourism planning. There is also a need to identify the actual relative impediments and limitations encountered by Local Authorities planners when facilitating this process. Furthermore, community involvement, or public participation, in tourism planning in Ireland remains an ambiguous concept and relatively little research exists on the topic to date. This research should attempt to address this gap and help clarify some of the issues for Local Authority planners, Fáilte Ireland, and host communities. In order to assess the extent of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning the most relevant themes from the literature were taken and incorporated into a framework. The level of host community participation, however, needs to be assessed in context of the process, depth and application of planning for sustainable tourism which is discussed in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 3

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### SUSTAINABLE PLANNING FOR TOURISM

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We are fortunate that our mixed record on environmental performance has not damaged our green and positive image abroad. Ireland's distinctive landscapes and seascapes continue to draw visitors to Ireland more than any other attraction. These are very fragile resources that are coming under increased pressure to accommodate greater levels of development. Tourists put a high value on our natural environment. If we want them to keep coming, we have to do so too (Sean Quinn, CEO, Fáilte Ireland, 2004).

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

To comprehend host communities' participation in sustainable tourism planning it is necessary to understand the complexities of tourism. The phenomenon of tourism is not limited to what exists within host destinations, but is also a function for example of the various interactions of different factors in contemporary Irish society. With the changing economic and social conditions the Republic of Ireland (Ireland) has witnessed a growth in demand for tourism development, which has seen the evolving planning approaches attempt to meet the new challenges and demands of this development. This chapter examines the various approaches to tourism planning and the complexity of sustainable planning for tourism and its corresponding interaction with host community.

#### 3.2 TOURISM

Contemporary Irish society is well accustomed to tourism, in fact the majority of Irish society seems to accept and live with the realities of tourism within their community. Society also has also come to expect tourism as a personal break or escape from work,



(Flanagan, 2000; Deegan and Dineen, 2001). However tourism development in Ireland has not been flawless and communities have brought Local Authorities to Court on grounds of poor planning (Mullaghmore High Court Appeal 2000)<sup>1</sup>. Tourism development is not a simple panacea. There are issues and problems in defining tourism due to its diverse and multifaceted make-up. The problem of defining tourism has received considerable attention (Murphy, 1985; Holden, 2000; Ryan, 1991; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Gunn, 2002; Inskip, 1991; Bull, 1991; Holloway, 1998). According to Tribe (1997), many different tourism definitions have been put forward over the years. Some are intended to be universally applicable to any situation, while others have been designed to fulfil a specific purpose or mandate.

The phenomenon of tourism is fundamentally an activity engaged in by humans, involving the temporary act of travel from one place to another. Wall and Mathieson (2006:3) encompass these points in their succinct definition of tourism as:

“The temporary movement to destinations outside the normal home and workplace, the activities undertaken during the stay, and the facilities created to cater for the needs of tourists”.

Tourism is a multifaceted activity with important impacts on host communities. This intricate concept of tourism is portrayed in the definition provided by McIntosh and Goeldner (1995:10) who state:

“Tourism may be defined as the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments, and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors”.

This places tourism in a broad stakeholder context, as noted by Oppermann and Weaver (2000:3), who view tourism as:

“the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments, and host communities, origin governments, universities, community colleges and non governmental organisations, in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors”

This latter definition expands the emphasis on stakeholders involved, all of which play an increasingly important role in tourism development. These definitions are useful in

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<sup>1</sup> Mullaghmore High Court Appeal 2000, marked the end of a five year battle between the host community versus the Local Authority (Clare County Council) and National Parks and Wildlife Service, over the siting and initial building without full planning permission of a tourism interpretive centre on Mullaghmore mountain in County Clare. The host community won their case and the site had to be returned to its original state.

facilitating the examination of the tourist phenomena and contribute to the field of tourism planning and assessing the effects on economy, the physical setting, society and the environment.

Despite the economic significance of tourism, debate continues as to whether or not tourism truly benefits all entities involved. Two sides of thought exist regarding its role in the community (Leg, 1985; Smith, 1989). Tourism can create jobs and business opportunities, enhance facilities in communities and increase the standard of living among the local residents. However, tourism can also damage natural and cultural resources, which cause disruption on infrastructure, overcrowding of destinations, overuse of facilities thereby minimising the quality of the destination and life of the community. To ensure a balance between the positive and negative impacts of tourism, a planned approach must be taken, that leads to ensuring a balance between the needs and wants of the tourists versus the needs and wants of the local residents.

### **3.3 THE NEED TO PLAN FOR TOURISM COMMUNITIES**

Tourism is generally perceived as a potential basic industry, which provides increased employment opportunities, tax revenues and economic diversity to host communities. The mass adoption of tourism on a global scale has been associated with several idealistic notions concerning its contribution to society, but experience has shown that tourism, like many other human activities, can have both positive and negative impacts (Murphy, 1995). The impact on the social and cultural fabric of the host community is equally important but less clearly defined and measurable and it is has therefore received less attention from researchers. One of the earliest commentators on the need for such research was outlined by Rothman (1978: 12) who states:

“Very little is known of how permanent residents feel about their communities or how they react to the presence of large numbers of transients in their community”.

Almost three decades after Rothmans’ paper the availability of quality research on residents’ perceptions of tourism has increased but is by no means complete.

Rothman’s research was followed by a number of researchers who concluded that the detrimental effects of resentful and hostile residents strongly suggest the need to keep in

touch with resident perceptions and attitudes (Knopp, 1980; Murphy, 1985; Long and Richardson, 1989; Lankford, 1994). Improving the public's perception of both the positive and negative impacts of tourism was needed. The traditional focus on the economic benefits of tourism appears to be insufficient (Perdue, Long and Allen, 1990). Resident's perceptions have been shown to be influenced by a number of factors, including personal economic reliance on the tourism industry, the importance of the industry to the locality, and the overall level of tourism development in the community (Murphy, 1985). Research has revealed that heavy tourism concentration (Madrigal, 1993; Pizam, 1978), greater length of residency in the community (Liu and Var, 1986; Madrigal, 1993; Um and Crompton, 1987), and native-borne status (Canan and Hennessey, 1989) have all been linked to greater negative perceptions of tourism. However, other variables such as economic reliance and distance of residence from the central tourism zone have been linked to more positive perceptions of the tourism industry (Pizam, 1978; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Madrigal, 1993).

Evidence of a need for a changed approach to community involvement in tourism planning then seemed to evolve from studies that showed that while economic impacts of tourism are generally welcomed (Keogh, 1992; Kendall and Var, 1984; Liu and Var, 1986), other social and ecological impacts of tourism development are negatively perceived (Cooke, 1982; Keogh, 1992; Pizam, 1978; Liu, Sheldon and Var, 1987). If such perceptions are allowed to gather momentum the end result could reflect deteriorating and in some cases even hostile actions towards the tourism industry and tourists. The potential benefits of host community involvement in tourism planning are substantial. It gives planners an improved understanding of the relevant impacts of tourism within the community (Mason, 2003; Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1995; Doxey, 1975). Therefore it was argued there was a need for increased public participation and, in particular, a more community-oriented approach to tourism planning (Cooke, 2000; Getz, 1983; Haywood, 1988; Keogh, 1990; Loukissas, 1983; Murphy, 1988).

Such community involvement in tourism planning can assume a number of different forms and serve several purposes, but a basic aim of any public participation programme should be to provide concerned citizens with adequate information. This requires identifying the issues at stake in the community and the potential public or interest groups involved (Keogh, 1990; Lucas, 1978). Identifying these interest groups

and the varied issues at stake will obviously vary, but there are a number of general considerations which must be taken into account when planning for tourism. Therefore the strategies for tourism development must reflect the local residents' views to ensure community consensus on development policies and programmes. If resident's perceptions and preferences do not support tourism development policies and programmes, then programmes are likely to fail or be ineffective in their implementation (Pearce, 2000).

Host community participation has thus evolved in its relationship with tourism and is now seen as a method of improving the image and professional basis of tourism development and planning (Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Tosun, 2004) while also respecting and meeting the needs of the host community (Murphy, 1995; Tosun, 1998) as well as supporting a more democratic approach to planning with the host community (Simmons, 1994; Syme, MacPherson and Seligam, 1991; Tosun, 2004).

Furthermore, there has been a significant shift towards participation in recent years and today a once marginal activity has become the mainstream work of many NGO's, development agencies and tourism consultants. In fact, the 1990's was seen as a decade of participatory development and according to Henkel and Stirrat (2001: 168) 'it is now difficult to find a development project that does not claim to adopt a "participatory" approach involving "bottom up" planning, acknowledging the importance of "indigenous" knowledge and claiming to "empower" local people'. Through the evolution and development of Local Agenda 21, participation has become part of the apparatus of development and an inseparable process.

While the actual concept and principle of local participation may be easy to promote and discuss in relation to sustainable development (this has been demonstrated in the LA 21 discourse on local community involvement in planning), the practice and actual application of host community participation is much more complex (Haywood, 1988; Mowforth and Munt, 2000; Mason, 2003; Tosun, 2004). First, the literature suggests that host community participation may be implemented in a myriad of different ways (Inskeep, 1987; Green and Hunter, 1992; Gunn, 1994; Haywood, 1988; Arstein, 1969; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2000; Mowforth and Munt, 2000; Mason, 2003; Tosun, 2004).

Second, some methods of facilitating host community participation have the propensity to allow varying degrees of participation.

### 3.4 TOURISM PLANNING APPROACHES

Planning tourism at all levels is essential for achieving successful tourism development and management. The experience of many tourism areas in the world has demonstrated that on a long-term basis, the planned approach to developing tourism can bring benefits without significant problems and maintain satisfied tourist markets. Places that have allowed tourism to develop without the benefits of planning often suffer from environmental and social problems. They are detrimental to residents and unpleasant for many tourists, resulting in marketing difficulties and decreasing economic benefits (Inskeep, 1994). Planning has been described by Gunn and Rose (1984) as a multidimensional activity and seeks to be integrative, embracing social, economic, political, psychological, anthropological and technological factors. It is concerned with the past, present and future and has evolved in its approaches which have been shaped by different political, socio-economic and cultural conditions. Tourism planning according to Tosun (2004: 1):

“has followed a significant evolution in development and planning paradigms that moved from myopic and rigid concerns to more comprehensive, flexible, responsive, systematic and participatory approaches”.

These approaches have been the focus of much critique over the years (de Kadt, 1979; Smith, 1977; Murphy, 1985; Ritchie, 1988; Getz, 1987; Tosun and Jenkins, 1998; Burns, 1999; Ivars, 2004). A continuum with two poles representing Tourism First (in which developing the industry is the focus of the planning) and Development First (where planning is framed by national development plans) was suggested by Burns (1999). This highlighted how tourism planning has evolved from its earlier approaches, which reflected a generally uncomplicated view of tourism, to a more sophisticated and integrated approach. On closer inspection there seems to be four broad tourism planning approaches as suggested by Getz (1987) and Hall (2000): boosterism, economic, physical-spatial and community-orientated. Ivars, (2004) details two more approaches: a strategic approach and planning for sustainable tourism.

The current literature would suggest the evolution and growth of tourism planning is causing the addition of even more approaches, such as the tourism collaboration and

partnership approach (Bramwell and Lane, 2000), and the strategic stakeholder management for tourism communities approach (Murphy and Murphy, 2004). Furthermore, Burns (2004) has suggested a Third Way in tourism planning which is based on Anthony Giddens proposal for a Third Way in politics and applies them to tourism in the context of the developing world. The growth in approaches supports the evidence that tourism planning is ever evolving and developing to meet the changing needs of the tourist, community, environment, socio-political conditions, and the public and private sectors (Smith, 1977; de Kadt, 1979; Murphy, 1985; Getz, 1987; Ritchie, 1988; Inskip, 1994; Tosun and Jenkins, 1998; Burns, 1999; Gunn, 2002; Ivars, 2004). In order to highlight the evolution of tourism planning and to establish a framework for participation in sustainable planning for tourism, the various approaches listed above will be briefly discussed.

Boosterism is characterised by what Burns (1999) describes as Tourism First. It has dominated tourism development since the emergence of mass tourism in the 1970's and is essentially based on a favourable uncritical assessment of tourism as a positive development force which tends to ignore the potential negative social, environmental and economic impacts. In fact it has been criticised by Hall (2000) as a way of planning as it is essentially characterised by its lack of planning. In relation to this thesis it is argued that boosterism has not embraced the concept of sustainable development nor evolved to incorporate meaningful community participation as central to the planning approach.

The economic approach revolves around the concept of tourism as an export earner and used as a tool for achieving certain economic aims. It highlights the potential ability of tourism as a development tool for regional development and economic restructuring. This approach advocates state intervention in promotion and advocates economic priority over environmental and social impacts while attending to any factors which will in the short term jeopardise the economic efficiency and involve selection of the most profitable markets, development opportunity costs, control over demand satisfaction and estimates of economic impacts (Ivars, 2004). This narrow economic-centred approach generally avoids assessing the economic cost of tourism in terms of leakages and distribution of benefits socially (Burns, 1999; Ivars, 2004). Again the economic approach places little emphasis on the long term social and environmental sustainability



of the destination, and the need to actively engage in meaningful participation with the host community is not central to this planning approach.

The physical-spatial approach (Gunn, 1979; Inskip, 1991; Hall, 2000) integrates the geographic or land use aspect which attempts to regionally distribute the economic activities of tourism in the context of rational land use. What is significant in this approach is that both town and country planning and tourism planning converge as a result of the recognition that its development in both have an environmental basis. Therefore, this approach mainly concentrates on the preservation of the natural resources that the industry relies on and on the management of the environmental impacts (Ivars, 2004).

The community orientated approach (de Kadt, 1979; Smith, 1977; Murphy, 1985) emerged from the growth and awareness of the criticisms of the negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism, and advocated a more holistic approach to planning which promoted local tourism development control to allow the community to benefit the most from development, reducing the possibility of conflict or irritation which could jeopardise the future of the tourism industry. Essentially this shift in the planning approach was characterised by a greater community involvement in the tourism planning process and this was clearly illustrated by the seminal work of Murphy (1985).

The strategic planning approach focuses on the competitiveness of destinations in a complex changing environment. It essentially came from the business context into the regional and urban planning field in the late 1980's and is very influenced by economic restructuring for declining destinations or sectors (Borja and Castells, 1997; Ivars, 2004). This approach has been noted to be progressively incorporated into tourism planning and is essentially characterised by the analysis of the competitive environment as a fundamental element of the destinations strategy, definition of a wide scope for planning on the basis of foresight and prospective techniques, stress on social participation and the creation of coordination and cooperation channels among stakeholders, and the rise in value of planning as a process that is permanent, flexible and integrated into management (Porter, 1982; Ansoff, 1988; Hall, 2000; Ivars, 2004). The link between strategic planning and management has been recognised by Hall and Page (1999) who suggest that strategic planning can be regarded as a process that involves concurrently integrating planning and management. In essence this means that



the proactive planning approach of planning should be intertwined with the frequently reactive reality of management. However, even this relationship is not straightforward. Mason and Leberman (2000) indicated there is evidence that planning policies have been put in place without considering the issue in detail beforehand. They noted, planning, in many cases, is reactive rather than proactive, particularly when policy documents are often prepared for a five to ten year period. This means that the information in the plan is dated by the time it takes effect and new issues may have arisen in the interim. The strategic approach therefore represents a continued emphasis towards some form of social participation and cooperation among stakeholders and the rise in value of planning as a process that is permanent, flexible and integrated into management. However sustainable development is not core to the approach but rather a factor to be considered in the assessment of the destination's competitiveness within the market.

Planning for sustainability has its origins in the environmental movement which grew in prominence in the 1970's, with the concept of sustainable development first highlighted in detail in the World Conservation Strategy (1980). Planning for sustainable tourism has evolved from this wider movement. Sustainable tourism planning represents another paradigm shift in the approaches to tourism planning in that it sees conventional tourism as a triangle of forces with host communities, visitors and tourism businesses in an unstable relationship (Flanagan, 2001). In such situations, the growth requirements of the industry can lead to domination of host areas and their habitats by visitors and the relative tourism business. Krippendorf (1987) endorses the above viewpoint in "The Holiday Makers" where the need for balance and harmony in an integrated partnership approach between the community and host is emphasised. A soft approach is suggested which places people as the central focus, with short term achievable goals, acceptance of one's own role as a tourist, organisation of a better distribution of the flow of tourists and the creation of equal partnerships between the host community and the visitor.

As tourism relies heavily on the natural resources of a country or specific area, it lends itself well to the idea of sustainable development (Sadler, 1988; Wall, 1993). However, as Butler (1991) pointed out, the enthusiasm for linking sustainable development with tourism may often be tempered by reality. Butler listed two aspects of the reality. Firstly, there are still many unknowns about tourism's link with the environment, and secondly, there is still a paucity of empirical information to demonstrate clearly that

tourism can be sustainable in nature. In spite of these concerns Ahn, Lee and Shafer (2002) contend that the sustainable development approach to planning tourism is acutely important because most tourism development, involving stakeholders such as tourists, tourist businesses and community residents, depends on attractions and activities related to the natural environment, heritage and culture. If these resources are degraded or destroyed, then tourism itself will have lost its own *raison d'être*. For tourism development to be sustainable, Butler (1991) suggested that such prerequisites as co-ordination of policies, pro-active planning, acceptance of limitations on growth and commitment to a long-term vision, should be fulfilled during the early stages of planning.

In summary, the shift in planning paradigms from myopic and rigid concerns to more flexible, inclusive and participatory approaches essentially highlights how tourism planning by its nature seeks to sustain tourism as an agent for socio-cultural and economic development. The growth of the participatory development approach is seen by Tosun (2004) and Bramwell and Lane (2000) to facilitate the implementation of the key principles of sustainable tourism development by enriching the lives of the local community and bringing more balanced benefits from tourism development in their communities. This according to Tosun (2004:1) may result in more positive attitudes to tourism development and conservation of local resources (Inskeep, 1994), increasing the limits of local tolerance to tourism. These may then ensure both visitor satisfaction and ongoing benefits for the residents of destination areas (Simmons, 1994). Furthermore, it has also been suggested that this approach reflects and meets the concerns of local communities in a better way as well as developing a more democratic local community (Syme, MacPherson and Seligman, 1991; Simmons, 1994; Bramwell and Lane, 2000). As this thesis assesses the sustainable planning for tourism approach within an Irish context it is necessary to address the literature that has emerged on this topic.

### **3.5 SUSTAINABLE PLANNING FOR TOURISM**

The principles of sustainable development have their origins in the 1987 report from the World Commission on the Environment and Development, more commonly referred to as the Brundtland Report. This report led in turn to the development of Local Agenda 21. The application of its principles to tourism are especially relevant due to its ambivalence, for it can help preserve and improve the environment but can also have serious negative impacts. The adoption of the Brundtland Report saw an abundance of

concepts and models regarding sustainable tourism, many of which have only recently been examined from a practical and academic perspective. By 1993 seventy different definitions had been proposed (Steer and Wade-Grey, 1993) with practitioners from a wide variety of fields utilising the term in varying contexts, approaches and biases (Heinen, 1994). In addition there were moral, ethical and ideological positions taken in relation to sustainability (Briguglio et al., 1996).

In tourism, there are an abundance of definitions for sustainability and sustainable development (Butler, 1999; Sharpley, 2000; Page and Dowling, 2002; Liu, 2003). As suggested, in the Brundtland Report, sustainable development is

“development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987:6).”

From the tourism perspective, some researchers, for example Bramwell and Lane (1993) have broadened the meaning of sustainable development into a concept that implies long-term viability of good quality natural and human resources. Others (WTO, 1996; Hunter and Green, 1995) suggest that sustainability includes quality of life for host communities, visitor satisfaction and conservative use of natural and social resources. Whatever the position, a common theme among these perspectives is that sustainable tourism development includes a focus on attaining some level of harmony among stakeholder groups to develop a desirable quality of life that lasts (Ahn, Lee and Shafer, 2002).

The motivation behind the search for sustainability in tourism has been driven by what Prosser (1994) describes as the four forces of social change: growing environmental awareness and cultural sensitivity; dissatisfaction with existing products; realisation by destination regions of the precious resources they possess and their vulnerability; and the changing attitudes of developers and tour operators. With these forces considered, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) now called the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) provides the following definition of sustainable tourism development:

“Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems” (WTO, 1993 :7).

Sustainable tourism has been defined as a model form of economic development that is designed to:

- Improve the quality of life of the host community;
- Provide a high quality of experience for visitors;
- Maintain the quality of the environment on which both the host community and the visitor depend (UNWTO, 2001: 11).

According to Font and Shallows (2002), there is an urgent need to make a greater effort to promote codes, standards and best practices in sustainable tourism across the globe, through accreditation bodies such as the UNWTO and the Sustainable Tourism Stewardship Council. To date, there exists a myriad of general sustainable tourism international guidelines describing universal policies for national governments and industry such as the Charter for Sustainable Tourism, (WTO, 1995a), and Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry (WTO, 1995b). However, integrated initiatives involving participation at local community level have been unjustly ignored (Hinch, 1996: 107).

This may be due to the fact that the concept of sustainable tourism is still evolving (Diamantis and Ladkin, 2000). It has also received criticism due to its lack of precision and to the absence of a clear identification of its principles. To date the deliberation on sustainable tourism is still continuing. Liu (2003: 459) states that “the debate on sustainable tourism is patchy, disjointed and at times flawed”. While many case studies exist that explore the ways of applying sustainable principles to practice, often through small eco- or alternative tourism projects, they provide at best micro solutions to what is essentially a macro problem (Wheeller, 1991).

The validity of the sustainable development concept, and its specific applicability to tourism are rarely, if ever questioned (Sharpley, 2000). With a few recent exceptions (see Mowforth and Munt, 1998; Butler, 1999; Sharpley, 2000; Page and Dowling, 2002; Liu, 2003), there appears to be a rigid acceptance that the principles and objectives of sustainable development can be easily transposed onto most tourism development contexts (Inskeep, 1999). However, in order to advance sustainable tourism research onto a more scientific platform, the evolving sustainable tourism planning approach must consider the four most critical issues of importance surrounding sustainable tourism development as highlighted by Liu (2003). First is a balanced view about the concept of sustainability. We must not forget the role of humans in “mastering,

harnessing and utilising nature” (Liu, 2003: 473) rather than simply considering ourselves as part of nature. Second, there is an urgent need to develop policies and measures that are not only theoretically sound but also practically feasible. Third, a systems perspective is necessary in order to improve our understanding of the characteristics and changing patterns of tourism and its dynamic interaction with the environment. Finally, an interdisciplinary approach should be adopted in researching sustainable tourism where synergies between different disciplines are developed to produce a more holistic synthesis.

With these points considered, it is possible to agree with Ivars (2004) who stresses that sustainable tourism planning is an undeniably valid paradigm which inspires planning schemes on the basis of an essential principle that is the common denominator of different research works in the field: the balance between economic growth, environmental preservation, and social justice (Butler, 1993; Coccossis, 1996; Hall, 2000; Ivars, 2004). This is reinforced by the Mohonk Agreement (2000: 2) which considers sustainable tourism to be any kind of:

“tourism that seeks to minimise ecological and socio-cultural impacts while providing economic benefits to local communities and host countries.”

In terms of host community participation in the sustainable tourism planning approach, it would appear that in essence the philosophy of sustainable development supports as a key component the incorporation of a collaborative process to actively involve communities in defining their own sustainable futures. This collaborative policy-making, according to Jackson and Morpeth (1999), may tap into an existing, participative process, or might acknowledge the need to find new methods of communicating and identifying the complex needs of heterogeneous communities.

Sustainability, sustainable tourism and sustainable development are all relatively well established terms with Butler (1999) and Harris and Leiper (1995) being among the few academics who have explored their meanings and differences. This thesis intends to assess what is taking place under the label of sustainable tourism planning in CDPs within contemporary Irish society. In doing so it borrows from Liu (2003: 460) and suggests ‘sustainability’ to be broadly considered as state-focused which implies steady life conditions for generations to come and ‘sustainable development’ as more process-oriented and associated with managed changes that bring about improvement in conditions for those involved in such developments. Similarly, sustainable tourism is

conveniently defined as all types of tourism that are compatible with or contribute to sustainable development. Furthermore, it must be noted that ‘development does not necessarily involve ‘growth’ as it is essentially a process of realising “specific social and economic goals which may call for a stabilisation, increase, reduction, change of quality or even removal of existing products, firms, industries or other elements” (Liu and Jones, 1996: 216).

### 3.6 LEVELS OF TOURISM PLANNING

In order to appreciate the complexities of sustainable planning for tourism, it is necessary to gain an understanding of the varying levels where planning may occur. International tourism planning tends to be predominantly concerned with issues concerning transportation services, international best practice or guidelines and the development of major attractions and facilities. These developments are controlled and monitored through organisations such as the UNWTO, the International Air Transport Association (IATA), European Union (EU) and more specialised organisations such as Tourism Concern and the International Ecotourism Organisation (TIES). Predominantly this level of planning depends on individual countries working and cooperating together (Inskeep, 1991). International organisations like IATA and International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) deal with transportation issues, and the World Trade and Travel Council (WTTC) communicate with the International Hotel and Restaurant Association (IHRA) in establishing quality standards. Such associations in conjunction with the regional commissions set standards that are inter-related in the tourism industry. Formulation and implementation of these issues promote development and set the standard for other countries to follow in the development process.

Planning at international level in relation to sustainable planning for tourism is primarily centred on global agreements, protocols, world reports, international best practice and guidelines. Examples of these would be;

- Brundtland Report (1987)
- Rio Earth Summit, Local Agenda 21 (1992)
- Kyoto Protocol (1997)
- Charter for Sustainable Tourism, Lanzarote (WTO, 1995a)
- Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry (WTO, 1995b)
- Mohonk Agreement (2000)



The Rio Earth Summit (1992) saw 179 countries endorse local Agenda 21, a cross-national agreement on working towards sustainable development. As part of this process, local authorities in signatory countries were asked to prepare by 1996, Local Agenda 21 plans; these were to set out policies and actions to realise the objectives of Agenda 21 within their region of responsibility. Agenda 21 challenges local authorities to adopt new ways of setting and framing policy goals to include not only the central tenets of sustainable development but also, as a key part, to incorporate a collaborative process to actively involve communities in defining their own sustainable futures. Furthermore, Jackson and Morpeth (1999:2) highlight that “this collaborative policymaking may tap into existing participative processes, or might acknowledge the need to find new methods of communicating and identifying the complex needs of heterogeneous communities”. As Ireland was one of the countries which endorsed Agenda 21, this thesis will attempt to determine if Local Agenda 21 has resulted in facilitating host community participation in defining their own sustainable futures through tourism planning at the CDP stage. With little research in this area available on Ireland the thesis looked to the neighbouring U.K. The work by Jackson and Morpeth (1999) highlighted that while sustainable development in tourism practice is emerging, this remains largely outside the Local Agenda 21 process, the significance of which and the relevance to tourism has been slow to be recognised. Their research recommended more attention to Local Agenda 21’s relevance to tourism as advocated and through sustainable forms of tourism development.

While these international agreements, reports, charters and guidelines, offer valuable examples of best practice with detailed sustainable development guidelines that highlight areas of critical importance that need to be addressed by sectors of the industry, they all suffer from a common weakness. They suffer from a lack of commitment without statutory legislation on the part of national governments and a difficulty in enforcement (Mowforth and Munt, 2003; 107). There is also little evidence in the literature discussing the penetration rates of these reports, charters and guidelines into the local tourism plans. This thesis has specifically tried to identify if such international sustainable planning communication has penetrated and thus informed the CDPs in Ireland.

The EU has the propensity to impact quite significantly on the lives of host communities in tourism destinations through the generation of EU directives. The new Water Frameworks directive and the Travel, Package Holidays and Package Tours



directive are examples of this. Within the European member states there is a mechanism to encourage the international EU directives to be adopted by its member states. Once a directive has been passed by the EU, the member states then have a set time to adopt the directive into the legal framework of their individual countries. This has proven very effective with directives such as:

- 90/314/EEC On package travel, package holidays and package tours (O.J. L 158, 23.06.90: 59).

This directive became law in Ireland in 1995 and is referred to as the Package Holiday and Travel Act 1995. This act imposes direct liability on the organizer of a holiday for the non- performance or improper performance of the obligations under the holiday contract regardless of whether they are to be performed by the organizer or by another party involved in the provision of the holiday. There have been many other directives directly or indirectly relating to tourism some of which are outlined below:

- 92/43/EEC On the conservation of natural habitats and of wild fauna and flora (O.J. L 206, 22.07.92: 7).
- 98/18/EC On safety rules and standards for passenger ships (O.J. L 144, 15/05/98: 1-115).
- 85/337/EEC On the assessment of the effects of certain public and private projects on the environment (O.J. L 175, 05.07.85: 40).

While the mechanism within the EU to turn directives into law seem to be working there are no current directives directly relating to sustainable planning for tourism. Instead there is a proliferation of EU guidelines relating to sustainability and tourism. These include the following which are by no means an exhaustive list of E.U. guidelines for tourism planners and managers:

- Using natural and cultural heritage for the development of sustainable tourism in non-traditional tourism destinations (2002).
- Towards quality coastal tourism: Integrated quality management (IQM) for coastal destinations (2000).
- Towards quality rural tourism: (IQM) for rural destinations (2000).
- Using natural and cultural heritage for the development of sustainable tourism in traditional tourism destinations (2002).
- Early warning system for identifying declining tourist destinations and preventative best practice (2004).
- Improving information on accessible tourism for disabled people (2004).
- A handbook for the tourism industry: making Europe accessible for tourists with disabilities (1999).
- EU flower (Eco-label) for tourist accommodation (2002).
- Actions for More Sustainable European Tourism (2007).

These specific guidelines and integrated quality management systems for sustainable tourism, while being of enormous practical use to planners at the local level, all tend to require funding and manpower support to be adopted. As there is no legal requirement for any member state to adopt these guidelines, the EU is predominantly relying on proficiency of the National Tourism Development Authorities and Local Authorities to adopt these guidelines. Again little work exists on the penetration rates of these guidelines into Local Authority development plan as such, the second aim and specifically objective (c) of this thesis endeavors to provide some insight into this, specifically assessing whether the main EU guidelines for sustainable tourism have been adopted in the CDPs in Ireland.

If these directives and guidelines impact on the lives of the host community, what level of participation are they afforded in the generation of these directives and guidelines for sustainable development of tourism? Besides the obvious democratic channels of the host community communicating with their democratically elected regional Minister of the European Parliament (MEP), to what extent does the EU make any effort to encourage direct host community participation in tourism planning at EU level. outside the traditional lines of lobbying regional MEP's? This research will attempt to identify and examine any processes which may be in place to facilitate this.

### **3.7 PLANNING AT NATIONAL LEVEL**

Planning at the national level is critical as it encourages sustainable development of the industry and promotes planning at the regional and local level. National tourism planning should be carried out in light of broader national development goals and objectives (Pearce, 1999). Governments, particularly in less developed countries need to adopt strategies that will encourage sustainable development at the national level. It is paramount for the prevention of adverse effects caused by mass tourism that appropriate planning is conducted at this level as it will in turn encourage development and economic growth. National planning faces issues affecting and relating to tourism policy, structure, access to the country, transportation networks, education and training and the marketing of tourism. According to Inskip (1991: 35) the national level of tourism planning is focused on several elements (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 The elements of national level tourism planning

- Tourism policy
- A physical structure plan including identification of major tourist attractions, designation of tourism development regions, international access points and the internal transport network of facilities and services
- The general amount, type and quality level of accommodation and services required
- The major tour routes in the country and their regional connections
- Tourism organisational structures, legislation and investment policies
- Overall tourism marketing strategies and promotion programs
- Education and training programs
- Facility development and design standards
- Socio-cultural, environmental and economic considerations and impact analysis
- National level implementation techniques, including staging of development and short term development strategy and project programming

Source: modified from Inskeep (1991:35)

It is necessary to put Inskeep's elements of national tourism planning into perspective in Ireland. The Department of Arts Sports and Tourism (DATS); Tourism Ireland (TI) and the National Tourism Development Authority 'Fáilte Ireland' have been found through the analysis of the literature to generally match most of the elements discussed by Inskeep (1991). Evidence of integration of legislation and policies include:

- The National Development Plan 2000-2006, (2000).
- Sustainable Development: A Strategy for Ireland, (1997).
- National Spatial Strategy, (2005).
- The National Biodiversity Plan, (2005).
- The Sustainable Energy Act, (2002).
- The Heritage Act, (1995).
- The Irish Wildlife Act, (2000).

This integration of National plans, policies and legislation appears in a wide range of National Tourism Development Authority 'Fáilte Ireland' plans such as; A Strategy for Irish Tourism 2003 – 2012; Tourism Development Strategy 2000-2006 and New Horizons 2006. For example, the aim outlined by the Department of the Environment (DOE) in the Sustainable Development Strategy, (1997:7) was:

"to ensure that economy and society in Ireland can develop to their full potential within a well protected environment, without compromising the quality of that environment and with responsibility towards present and future generations and the wider international community".

This can be seen to transfer directly into the National Tourism Development Strategy 2000-2006, which states:

“In accordance with the National Sustainable Development Strategy, environment must be brought to the heart of sectoral performance in agriculture, forestry, marine resources, energy, industry, transport, spatial planning, and, of course, tourism itself. There is a need for constant vigilance to protect the key assets of tourism, and in particular our scenic landscapes. The time has come for the tourism industry to clearly articulate specific environmental priorities in relation to local holiday destinations” (Fáilte Ireland, Tourism Development Strategy 2000: 4).

This is further reinforced with the principle areas of the Tourism Development Strategy (2000-2006) addressing the need to embrace, not just the physical capacity of a destination but also the levels of use at which the ecology is protected, the visitor experience is undiminished and the resident community is not overwhelmed. The recommended zonal planning process offers the opportunity to resolve conflicts and agree visitor management strategies in the context of a partnership of community, tourism industry and Local Authorities’ interests. The critical challenge according to the strategy was to agree growth targets with respect to peak season carrying capacities and then to put in place product development action plans which are in harmony with these targets. The essence of the strategy was to “achieve a more sustainable tourism industry with the adoption of distinctly different approaches as to how we guide tourism development in the different types of areas in the framework” (Fáilte Ireland, 2000: 6). In essence from a national tourism planning perspective this admitted that:

“despite decades of campaigning, many of the scenic landscapes in coastal, lakeshore, waterways and upland areas are still at risk. Ribbon development, and inappropriate single house construction, much of it for holiday homes, are still amongst the main difficulties. There are so many areas of outstanding landscape around the country that it is futile to expect to protect them under our National Parks policy which is based on taking land into public ownership” (Fáilte Ireland, Tourism Development Strategy 2000-2006: 13).

The National strategy stressed that a system of Protected Landscape Designation was needed, as endorsed by the Heritage Council. The EU-funded study "Tourism and the Landscape", carried out by Bord Fáilte and An Taisce, advocated a partnership between local communities and official agencies to arrive at consensus at the local level. The development of such a consensus should become an integral background to the zonal plans proposed under the Tourism Development Framework. The strategy went on to state that if the plans can bring forward consensus recommendations for Protected Landscape Designation, this could become the catalyst for a National Landscape Policy, backed up by appropriate legislation.

Furthermore, the Tourism Development Strategy 2000-2006 went on to stress that eco-tourism is a growing specialist market, but to benefit fully from it Ireland needed an enlightened conservation policy in relation to its flora and fauna and their natural habitats. The EU has established a wide-ranging regime of conservation measures including National Heritage Areas, Special Protection Areas, Special Areas of Conservation and the Rural Environment Protection Scheme. Furthermore, the strategy stated that outstanding conflicts in respect of these areas should be resolved now to ensure compliance with obligations under EU directives. Finally, the strategy stressed the need for constant vigilance to protect the environmental quality which is so vital to tourism. The development control process is crucial to this protection and it is important for tourism interests to make more use of the statutory review process of Development Plans. Tourism needs and priorities which emerge from the zonal plans must be forcibly brought to the notice of officials and elected representatives during the review process. As a general principle the location of tourism facilities in existing towns and villages is the best policy in the interest of conserving sensitive habitats and the countryside.

This strategy seems to be advocating a proactive and sustainable approach to tourism planning at a national level. The merit of this thesis will be to develop a planning tool which would encourage a nationwide approach to planning sustainably for tourism development and allow for the communication and implementation of the national strategic direction in relation to tourism development. Examples of this can be seen in New Zealand where the Ministry of Tourism have provided the Local Authorities with a 'Tourism Planning Toolkit' to facilitate the sustainable development of tourism within New Zealand.

### **3.8 PLANNING AT REGIONAL AND LOCAL LEVEL**

Managing the positive and negative impacts of tourism with a focus on sustainability has been difficult when it comes to operationalising research, planning and policy. Sustainability has largely been used conceptually as a "good idea" but has been difficult to enable through specific initiatives (Briassoulis, 1992; Boyd, 1995; Linden, 1993; Muller and McCool, 1995; Muller, 1997; Ahn, Lee and Shafer, 2002). Regional and local area planning is where the core applied activities for sustainable planning takes place. At this level necessary considerations should include national policy, access and transportation issues and the initiation and coordination of stakeholders.

It is at this applied level of planning for sustainability that tourism academics have presented the majority of models specific to various aspects of tourism planning. The following are some of the models that have been discussed in relation to regional and local level planning:

- PASLOP (Lawson and Baud-Bovy, 1977) revised by (Baud-Bovy, 1982)
- The destination lifecycle model of the evolution of tourism (Butler, 1980).
- LAC planning framework (Stankey, Cole, Lucas, Peterson, and Frissell, 1985)
- ROS model (Driver and Brown, 1978; Clarke and Stankey, 1978).
- Tourism: A Community Approach, (Murphy, 1985)
- Normative Model of Participatory Tourism Planning (Timothy, 1999)
- Managing Stakeholders: A Tourism Planning Model, (Sautter and Leisen, 1999).
- Model of Competitiveness and Sustainability, (Gunn, 2000)
- Bridging Tourism Gaps Model (Murphy and Murphy, 2004)

It is important to stress at this stage that the focus of this thesis is to assess the level of host community participation in sustainable planning for tourism. Therefore, the models are discussed in order to set the scene for the discussion on frameworks that are needed to assess the actual level of sustainable planning for tourism at local or regional level.

From a regional and local perspective it is also important to note that there are eight Regional Planning Authorities (RPA) in Ireland, set up in 1994 under the Local Government Act 1991 (Regional Authorities) Establishment Order 1993. There are also seven Regional Tourism Authorities, (RTA) in Ireland. Unfortunately these geographic regions do not match the RPA's and again while their role is currently being changed by Fáilte Ireland (The National Tourism Development Authority). Within the regions of the RPAs and RTAs are the Local Authorities who are responsible for:

- Making development plans
- Granting and declining planning permission
- Exempted development
- Appeals against planning permission
- Planning enforcement

It is important to note in the context of this chapter that the main instrument for regulation and control of development is the Development Plan which must be made every six years. According to the National Tourism Development Authority (Fáilte Ireland), the balanced development strategic implies a commitment to planning at a zonal level. Such planning should include the Local Authorities, the tourism industry and various agencies whose actions impinge on tourism, including the new County



Development Boards (CDPs). The RTA's, as the partnership bodies linking all these interests, are ideally placed to coordinate this planning activity (Bord Fáilte, 2000).

Planning at a regional level is similar to national planning but it depends on the size of the country and region (Inskip, 1991). It is important however that regional and local area planning is carried out regardless of the size of the country. Regional planning is viewed differently in every region "depending on the concentration of activities and facilities available to tourists" (Pearce, 1989: 257). Therefore, regional and local planning can take on many forms and a variety of models have been presented and discussed over the past few decades (Lawson and Baud-Bovy, 1977; Collins, 1979; Baud-Bovy, 1982; Murphy, 1985c; Getz, 1986; Gunn, 1991; Hall, 2000). One of the early models devised and applied to support the planning and development of tourism was the Product Analysis Sequence for Outdoor Recreation (PASLOP) model by Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977). This model was later revised by Baud-Bovy (1982) and stressed that planning should be a continuous process due to the impacts of tourism over time, most notably the economic and political. This early tourism planning model concentrated on the various aspects affecting the tourism industry like competitors, resources and facilities and it outlined step-by-step guidelines to achieve a successful plan.

The PASLOP approach was criticised for being product and landuse fixated. It introduced neither the notion of encouraging social participation by a full range of actors, nor the idea of monitoring impacts until the implementation stage (Burns, 2004). Furthermore, Burns (2004) suggested a detailed Schematic for a Third Way in Tourism, Planning based on Anthony Giddens (1998) proposal for a Third Way in Politics and the PASLOP model. However this schematic, has to date not been applied to a real planning setting. In relation to practical and applicable models proposed to facilitate sustainable tourism development, the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) planning framework, has according to Muller and McCool (1995), good potential as a tool that can assist in operationalizing the sustainability concept. The LAC framework developed by Stankey, Cole, Lucas, Peterson, and Frissell (1985) embodies the prerequisites for sustainable development (Ahn, Lee and Shafer, 2002). As a management process, the LAC framework outlines a sequence of steps that can help to define a set of desired conditions for any area when change is imminent, as well as the management actions necessary to maintain or restore those conditions (Stankey et al., 1985). The LAC



framework searches for relationships between existing and desired or “acceptable” conditions, and relies on management judgment for implementing suitable strategies where problems are identified (Stankey et al., 1985).

The relevance of LAC in this thesis is that step one is critical where issues and concerns are defined by community residents, user groups, visitors, planners and managers. The LAC planning system also highlights a move away from carrying capacity by addressing desired conditions rather than a capacity number, and the system recognises that conditions (and thus their acceptability) vary considerably. A central theme at the heart of the LAC process is the amount of change that is acceptable to stakeholders (Stankey et al., 1985). Applying the system to communities and urban regions provides an opportunity to ask residents, as a critical part of the resource, how they feel about development and change.

A further contribution to the LAC framework is the Recreational Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) model (Driver and Brown, 1978; Clarke and Stankey, 1978). This model was developed to assist managers and planners of tourism and outdoor recreation, to consider methods to align physical settings with appropriate user activities. The literature has highlighted a tendency for these models to evolve and move toward embracing the various stakeholders.

Embracing the community was central to Murphy’s (1985) seminal work “Tourism: A Community Approach”, in principle however this was difficult to apply. Nonetheless the philosophy behind the concept of embracing the host community has grown in popularity with tourism academics developing tourism planning models. Examples of this would be Timothy (1999) who developed a normative model of participatory tourism planning with participation being central to the planning approach. Here participation generally refers to empowering local residents to determine their own goals for development, and consulting with locals to determine their hopes and concerns for tourism. The concept also includes the involvement of other stakeholders and interest groups in decision-making. Increasing income, employment, and education opportunities of locals are the most apparent ways of involving community members in the benefits of tourism development (Echtner, 1995; Brohman, 1996; Pearce et al., 1996). Tolerance of tourist activities appears to be strengthened if opportunities are provided for active resident participation in the ownership and operation of tourism facilities (D’Amore, 1983). The main focus of Timothy’s model is the involvement of

community members in decision-making, participation of locals in the benefits of tourism and education of locals about tourism.

This approach is reinforced by Sautter and Leisen (1999) in their *Managing Stakeholders a Tourism Planning Model*, which introduces the relationship/transaction strategy continuum as a tool for applying and managing stakeholder theory in development. In this application, planning authorities are directed to identify and proactively consider the transaction versus the relationship orientations of key stakeholders. Congruency across this orientation increases the likelihood of collaboration in service delivery. The whole idea of strategically managing the various stakeholders was again reinforced by Murphy and Murphy (2004) who present a bridging tourism gaps model which again has not been applied but is suggested as a practical tool to help destinations focus on the important factors in developing and maintaining tourism as a beneficial and vital part of their communities.

The destination life cycle model of the evolution of tourism, devised by Butler (1980), borrowed the idea of the product life cycle. Butler (1991) suggests that prerequisites such as coordination of policies, proactive planning and commitment to long term vision should be fulfilled during the early stages of planning. This model, among many others, proposes to stay close to the vision of sustainable development where a holistic and integrated approach should be adopted.

Academics have modified Butler's model to allow for an extension to the cycle with others suggesting a framework for analysing development. However, these depend on the characteristics of specific destinations (Waldrop, 1992; Russel and Faulkner, 1999). Butler's destination life cycle is recognised in many studies within the literature as a useful model for description and analysis of the evolution of tourism (Meyer-Arendt, 1985; Williams, 1993; Baum, 1998; Russell and Faulkner, 1999). Many authors have emphasized the usefulness of Butler's model and conclude that it is a practical framework for research and development (Wall, 1982; Hovinen, 1982; Haywood, 1986; Getz, 1992; Bianchi, 1994; Prosser, 1995; Russell and Faulkner, 1998). In terms of sustainable planning for tourism in Ireland, this model offers planners a chance to firstly assess and recognise where their destination is situated on this model and in turn give them an opportunity to plan and manage the destination life cycle on a sustainable basis.

However, when developing a region in order to extend its destinations life cycle through planning for sustainable tourism, the planning models need to focus on the supply and demand component of the overall tourism system as “the two main drivers of tourism are supply and demand” (Gunn, 2002: 33-72). Planners need to address these issues when future developments are being considered. A destination must possess the ability to provide supply side factors, in order to satisfy market demand. Supply side factors are the key to reaching the ultimate in correct tourism development (Taylor, 1980: 56), involving attractions, transport, accommodation, sporting facilities and infrastructure (Pearce, 1981). Other issues were also outlined including spatial patterns of supply, demand, geography of resorts, tourist flows, and impacts of tourism and models of tourism space. Such topics have an enormous effect on the tourism industry and are paramount for development without the focus being purely on economic and political development (Pearce 1997: 247).

Many authors share Pearce’s (1997) views and concerns for geographical issues and interrelated aspects of tourism planning (Murphy, 1979; Hellenier, 1979; Hyma and Wall, 1979; Collins, 1979). The regional planning concept as highlighted by Gunn (2000) illustrates tourism’s geographical scale. The concept of the model illustrates three geographical parts of a region which include the circulation corridor, community attraction complex (destination) and non-attraction hinterland. The aim of this model assists planners in identifying potential destination zones for future development. Gunn adapted a model of competitiveness and sustainability to reveal a series of building blocks that provide several levels of analysis. Gunn’s (2002) model highlights how at the base are the supporting factors and resources that include infrastructure, accessibility, facilitating resources, hospitality, and enterprise. This foundation supports the core resources and attractions, which in turn is built upon by policy, planning and development. At the apex are the qualifying and amplifying determinants that help a destination’s competitiveness and sustainability. Again this model is presented to stimulate scholars and practitioners to make further study of regional and destination analysis for future planning (Gunn, 2002).

In relation to the particular regional planning approach, Gunn (2002:160) argues that while planners approach planning from different perspectives, most concepts include regional planning fundamentals such as:

- Research of natural and cultural resources,
- Market study,
- Synthesis of research information,
- Variation in geographic potential,
- Environmental sustainability,
- Potential impacts on local societies.

As the regional and local level planning process in Ireland is predominantly determined by the Local Authorities and legislation such as the Planning and Development Act (2000), this thesis will assess through aim two and objective (c) if any particular tourism planning model is being applied at the Local Authority level when making CDPs. Again there seems to be a gap in the literature on the application of tourism planning at Local Authority level in Ireland. The representation of the process for designing CDPs was highlighted in Figure 1.1 and this combined with the models discussed here provide the researcher with the tools to develop a framework capable of determining the current level of sustainable tourism planning at the local level.

### **3.9 TOWARDS A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING FRAMEWORK**

Sustainable tourism development comprises a number of interrelated goals “socio-cultural equity and ecological environmental quality; economic feasibility for host community and the satisfaction of tourist expectations” (Dymond, 1997: 280). Sustainable tourism planning aims to reconcile the tensions that exist between these three goals and seeks an equilibrium in the long term (Lane, 1994), although some authors dispute the narrow focus of this interpretation (Green, 1995; Hunter, 1995). It is important to make a distinction between the goal of sustainable tourism and this process of sustainable tourism development. To reach the goal of sustainable tourism, sustainable tourism development must be planned for and operationalised before any tangible process can be made. Achieving sustainable tourism development requires an in-depth integrated approach to planning. Tourism development must be assessed on an ongoing basis in order to identify the relevant impacts and provide valuable information to guide subsequent responses (Cronin, 1990; Dowling, 1993). In order to facilitate this, tourism planners need a base of meaningful measures which correspond to the ecological, social, economic and planning environments present in an area defined by spatial and temporal boundaries (Dymond, 1997). In this thesis, the first factors to be considered in the development of a sustainable tourism planning framework are the core indicators for sustainable tourism.

### 3.9.1 Core indicators

According to Manning and Dougherty (1995) the use of indicators of sustainable tourism provides cost effective and operational means of supplying the tourism manager and planner with this information. Core indicators are one of the most recent tools of sustainability which arose from the Rio Summit of 1992. One important aspect that has been built into these indicators from their inception has been the participation of the local community in their formation. These indicators for sustainable tourism can also be used as an early warning system to trigger planning and management strategies, thus preventing irreversible tourism impact damage (Miller, 2001). Furthermore, it is worth highlighting that the Irish Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) commissioned a €320,000 research project into the use of indicators for tourism planning in Ireland in 2006, the results of which are not yet officially published. The EPA's injection of specific research funding in this area reinforces the future role core indicators may play in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland.

In relation to the scope and range of indicators it is worth noting the core indicators, developed by the UNWTO for sustainable tourism to facilitate the tourism planning and management process which have been applied to a limited number of global tourism contexts (UNWTO, 1995). The eleven core indicators which are proposed by the UNWTO (1995) are outlined in Table 3.2:

Table 3.2 Core indicators of sustainable tourism

Core indicator	Specific measures
1. Site protection	Category of site protection according to the International Union for the Conservation Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) index
2. Stress	Tourist numbers visiting the site (per annum, peak month)
3. Use Intensity	Intensity of use in peak period (persons per hectare)
4. Social impact	Ratio of tourist to locals (peak period and over time)
5. Development control	Existence of environmental review procedure or formal controls over development of site and use densities
6. Waste management	Percentage of sewage from site receiving treatment (additional indicators may include structural limits of other infrastructural capacity on site, such as water supply)
7. Planning Process	Existence of organised regional plan for tourist destination region (including tourism component)
8. Critical ecosystems	Number of rare / endangered species
9. Consumer satisfaction	Level of satisfaction by visitors (questionnaire based)
10. Local satisfaction	Level of satisfaction by locals (questionnaire based)
11. Tourism contribution to local economy	Proportion of total economic activity generated by tourism only

Source: Modified from Dymond (1997) and UNWTO (1995: 58).



Local Authorities according to Howden (1992) are in a position whereby they have the responsibility for economic development, protecting community attributes and managing the natural environment. They also provide an existing and critical operational link between ministerial and legislative directives and the varied components of operating the tourism industry. Therefore, local authorities are at a logical level to focus on the collection of indicators of sustainable tourism data in the general operationalisation of sustainable tourism development (Dymond, 1997). In fact, Dymond found in his research on 86 local authorities in New Zealand that local authorities were positive about the ability of the UNWTO (1995) core indicators to meet their decision-making needs. As this thesis is concerned with the actual assessment of the tourism component of Local Authority CDPs, determining the host community level of participation in this framework alone will not be suitable as it is designed primarily to meet the tourism manager decision-making needs. However this thesis will utilise and adapt some elements and components of the framework (see Figure 2.1) with the core indicators for sustainable tourism (Table 3.2). A matrix that can be used to evaluate alternative tourism plans has been provided by Inskeep, (1991) and can be seen in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Sample matrix for evaluating alternative tourism plans

Evaluation Factor	Ranking
Reflects overall national/regional/local development policy	
Reflects overall national/regional/local development policy and objectives	
Optimizes overall economic benefits at reasonable cost	
Provides substantial employment and increased income to local communities	
Provides opportunities for local entrepreneurs to establish tourism enterprises	
Helps develop economically depressed areas	
Provides tourist attractions, facilities and services which residents can also use	
Does not preempt other important resource areas	
Minimizes negative socio-cultural impacts	
Helps achieve archaeological and historic preservation	
Helps revitalise traditional arts and handicrafts	
Is not disruptive to present landuse and settlement patterns	
Minimizes negative environmental impact	
Reinforces environmental conservation and park development	
Makes maximum use of existing infrastructure	
Makes maximum multipurpose use of new infrastructure	
Provides opportunity for staging development	

Source: modified from Inskeep (1991: 134)

The UNWTO (2001) states that Inskeep's matrix can be used to evaluate alternative plans and sometimes, parts of different alternative plans are combined to determine the optimum final plan. An essential consideration in evaluating alternative plans are environmental and socio-cultural impacts, with the selected plan likely to result in the least negative impacts (UNWTO, 2001:53). When Inskeep's matrix is compared to the core indicators of sustainable tourism, it is evident that a number of indicators are not present within the matrix, such as stress, waste management and critical ecosystems. It also pays little attention to the concept of overall sustainable development and associated factors such as the biodiversity of the region the plan is intended for. Therefore the direct transferability of this matrix for use by this thesis is not feasible. However, it may be possible to adapt and borrow some components of Inskeep's matrix in order to assess the planning component of the Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland.

A very useful framework for planning for sustainable tourism development is provided by the UNWTO (2001) which set the following response to Agenda 21 for travel and tourism. Under the IV priority area: Planning for Sustainable Tourism Development the objective was to:

“Develop and implement effective land use planning measures that maximise the potential environmental and economic benefits of travel and tourism while minimising potential environmental damage” (UNWTO 2001: 23).

The UNWTO (2001) recommendations of Priority Area IV on planning for sustainable tourism development are reproduce in Table 3.4 overleaf.



Table 3.4 Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism-Priority Area IV: planning for sustainable tourism development.

Government Departments, NTA's and where appropriate, trade organisations should:

- Work with local and regional planning authorities to raise awareness of the problems associated with poor tourism planning and management.
- Advise local authorities on the components of a sustainable tourism destination by providing guidance, such as that contained in the World Tourism Organisation publication, Sustainable Tourism Development: A Guide for Local Planners
- Guide tourism development in particularly sensitive or protected areas; in some instances, this may include recommending a full environmental impact assessment prior to the full development decision or even advising against any development.
- Ensure that planning regulations, measures or guidelines are implementable and capable of effective policing through voluntary or regulatory means.
- Help local and regional authorities to assess destination 'capacity' as regards the availability of critical resources (land, water, energy, infrastructure provision, etc.) environmental factors (ecosystem health and biodiversity) and cultural factors.
- Develop and promote cost-effective, efficient, less polluting transport systems
- Work with local authorities and companies to ensure efficient operation of public transport and maintenance of transport infrastructure.
- Ensure that new tourism developments are located in areas well served by high-occupancy public transport or where provision of such transport is included as part of the planning proposal.
- Work with government departments, communities and travel and tourism companies to provide safe cycleways and footpaths for tourist and resident use and to implement other measures to reduce the need to use private motor vehicles for travel to and within the holiday destination.
- Devote attention to efficient transport management.
- Integrate landuse and transport planning to reduce transport demand.
- Ensure that tourism and coastal development are complementary rather than conflicting by advising on the adoption of suitable policies, such as the Global Blue Flag, to conserve and enhance bathing beaches used by tourists.
- Use tourism as a tool for socio-economic development and environmental protection in sensitive areas such as coastal zones, mountainous regions and areas of great biological diversity.

Source: modified from UNWTO (2001: 23)

While this framework builds on Inskip's matrix as well as the core indicators of sustainable tourism, it is again evident that a number of factors for sustainable tourism development are not present: green housekeeping or ecolabelling, resort planning guidelines, disabled persons provision, waste management, disaster planning and guidelines for development of caravan and camping sites. Again this framework is used

to part adapt and borrow from in order to develop a specific framework capable of evaluating Irish tourism plans.

One of most comprehensive frameworks for developing sustainable tourism was devised by Mowforth and Munt (2003). Their framework presents eight major groupings of tools and techniques available for use in assessing or measuring various aspects of sustainability. The listing of tools includes area protection, industry regulation, visitor management techniques, environmental impact assessment, carrying capacity, consultation, codes of conduct and sustainability indicators. These various techniques can be seen in Table 3.5, but it must be stressed these are not exclusive. Each of these tools for sustainability are discussed in brief in relation to their suitability to evaluate the tourism component of the CDPs in Ireland.

#### 3.9.1.1 Industry regulation

Industry regulation in Ireland generally comes from local government in the form of planning restrictions. National government in the form of laws relating to business practice including the following examples: Game Preservation Act, 1930, The Package Holiday and Travel Act 1995, Waste Management Act, 1996, Decommissioning Act, 1997, Litter Pollution Act 1997, Tourist Traffic Act, 1998, The Irish Wildlife Acts 2000, The Planning and Development Act 2000, Sustainable Energy Act, 2000, National Tourism Development Authority Act 2003.

International bodies may also attempt to regulate industry in the form of international agreements and guidelines for governments e.g. The Charter for Sustainable Tourism, (WTO, 1995a). Government legislation and international agreements may also be explicitly or implicitly political, especially when they stem from a body such as the World Tourism Organisation whose overall goal is the promotion and development of travel and tourism as a means of stimulating business and economic development (WTO, 1991). Furthermore, other international agreements and guidelines, especially those stemming from the work of the scientific community such as agreements to reduce carbon dioxide emissions, may suffer from a lack of commitment without statutory legislation on the part of national governments and a difficulty in enforcement (Mowforth and Munt, 2003).

Table 3.5 The tools for sustainability

<p><b>1 Area Protection</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Categories of protected area status:</li> <li>National parks</li> <li>Wildlife refuges/reserves</li> <li>Biosphere reserve</li> <li>Country parks</li> <li>Biological reserves</li> <li>Areas of outstanding natural beauty (AONB)</li> <li>Sites of specific scientific interest (SSSI)</li> </ul>	<p><b>5 Carrying capacity calculations</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Physical carrying capacity</li> <li>Ecological carrying capacity</li> <li>Social carrying capacity</li> <li>Environmental carrying capacity</li> <li>Real carrying capacity</li> <li>Permissible carrying capacity</li> <li>Limits of acceptable change (LACs)</li> </ul>
<p><b>2 Industry regulation</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Government legislation</li> <li>Professional association regulations</li> <li>International regulation and control</li> <li>Voluntary self-regulation</li> <li>Corporate social responsibility</li> </ul>	<p><b>6 Consultation/participation techniques</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Meetings</li> <li>Public attitude surveys</li> <li>Stated preference surveys</li> <li>Contingent valuation method</li> <li>Delphi technique</li> </ul>
<p><b>3 Visitor management techniques</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Zoning</li> <li>Honey pots</li> <li>Visitor dispersion</li> <li>Channelled visitor flows</li> <li>Restricted entry</li> <li>Vehicle restriction</li> <li>Different pricing structures</li> </ul>	<p><b>7 Codes of conduct</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>For the tourist</li> <li>For the industry</li> <li>For the host</li> <li>For the hosts</li> <li>Host governments</li> <li>Host communities</li> <li>Best practice examples</li> </ul>
<p><b>4 Environmental impact assessment (EIA)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Overlays</li> <li>Matrices</li> <li>Mathematical models</li> <li>Cost benefit analysis (COBA)</li> <li>The planning balance sheet</li> <li>Rapid rural appraisal</li> <li>Geographic information systems (GIS)</li> <li>Environmental audit</li> <li>Ecolabeling and certification</li> </ul>	<p><b>8 Sustainability indicators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Resource use</li> <li>Waste</li> <li>Pollution</li> <li>Access to basic human needs</li> <li>Freedom from violence</li> <li>Access to decision-making process</li> <li>Diversity of natural and cultural life</li> <li>Holiday foot printing</li> <li>Local production</li> </ul>

Source: modified from Mowforth and Munt (2003:107)

The promotion of voluntary self-regulation by the industry is often seen as a method of fending off restrictive government legislation. According to Butler (1991:208) it has to be appreciated that tourism is an industry and as such, is much like any other industry. "There is no more reason to expect tourism, on its own accord, to be 'responsible', than there is to expect the beer industry to discourage drinking or the tobacco industry to discourage smoking - even though many agree that such steps would be socially desirable." The tool of regulation is clearly one which allows specific groups to take control of the industry. The debate around regulation therefore tends to represent a power struggle between various interest groups.

### 3.9.1.2 Carrying capacity

Carrying capacity has gained recognition in the ecological sciences with many authors highlighting the relevance of the concept in the tourism context. It is still invoked as part of the effort to ensure sustainable tourism planning (Canestrelli and Costa, 1991; Hawkins and Robert, 1997; and Savariades, 2000). Today the tourist carrying capacity is defined as the level of human activity an area can accommodate without adverse effect on the natural environment, resident community or on the quality of visitor experience (Woods, 2002). The range of carrying capacities which can be applied to an area have expanded and at present include; physical, ecological, social, environmental, real, effective or permissible. However carrying capacity, has been criticized by many authors (Graefe, Vaske and Kuss, 1984; Stankey, 1991) as it holds out to the promise of being objective though it requires subjective and judgemental decisions. Although it is an appealing concept, it has failed to take into account relationships between use and impact, or to consider perspective measures regarding what kinds of conditions should be in place.

### 3.9.1.3 Area protection

Achieving sustainable tourism development requires an integrated process. Any development should be assessed on an ongoing basis in order to identify any impacts and provide information to guide subsequent responses (Cronin, 1990; Dowling, 1993). To this end, it is evident that in most developed countries, as in Ireland, large areas of land have been protected from previously identified impacts through some form of designation, as is the case with national parks. These designations usually place areas under legislated protection. Tourism within these protected areas, if permitted, can be considered as practicing more sustainable forms of tourism than those with low or no legal designation for the area. However, designation of area protection does not ensure the automatic existence of more sustainable forms of tourism (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Some governments (e.g. Guatemala, Brazil) have designated large areas of land for protection but have not put in place the legislation, finances, tools and manpower to implement these designations. This is not limited to developing countries and it must be noted that the Irish government has placed a moratorium on employing any additional staff for the National Parks and Wildlife Service on a regular basis over the past decade. So while area protection can be considered a tool for sustainability it also can be rendered tokenistic when it has not been adequately resourced and supported from an

enforcement point of view.

#### 3.9.1.4 Sustainability indicators

In order to make the decisions required for sustainable tourism development, tourism planners and managers require a base of useable and meaningful measures corresponding to the ecological, social, economic and planning environments present in an area defined by spatial and temporal boundaries (Dymond 1997). The use of sustainability indicators provides an operational and cost-effective means of supplying tourism managers with the information they require (IWGIST, 1993; Manning and Dougherty, 1995).

Sustainability indicators have been previously discussed in this chapter under the UNWTO (1995) core indicators of sustainable tourism. What is useful with this tool from a local authority planning perspective is the indicators themselves namely; resource use, waste, pollution, local production, access to basic human needs, access to decision-making processes and diversity of natural and cultural life, can be used as an early warning system to trigger planning and management strategies, thus preventing irreversible tourism impacts (Manning and Dougherty, 1995). The task of applying and monitoring these indicators at a national or regional level raises some important issues including the question of how, and by whom, should indicators of sustainable tourism be applied.

Due to its holistic nature, the achievement of sustainable tourism requires the support of both the public and private sectors of the tourism industry. The private sector has become involved with sustainable tourism development predominantly through the development of environmental codes of conduct (UNEP, 1995) and the undertaking of environmental audits (Burns and Holden, 1995). However, with respect to the general concept of sustainable tourism development, an effective and holistic strategic framework for planning the long-term future development of an area is required. Such a framework is seen by many authors as being the responsibility of government bodies, particularly local government, and should not be left up to the private sector and other components of the public sector (Cronin, 1990; McKercher, 1993; Hunter, 1995; Patterson and Theobald, 1995; Miller, 2001; Choi and Sirakaya, 2005). Criteria identified by Miller (2001: 351) as to which indicators of sustainable development

should meet include; being easily understandable, enabling comparison, appropriate to the scale of operation, cost-effective and timely. These criteria seem very applicable for Local Authorities wishing to implement indicators for sustainable development within CDP across Ireland. However, the recent EPA draft report on “Sustainable Tourism Indicators, towards the mitigation of negative impacts on tourism destinations” (Flanagan et al., 2007) seems to have ignored these criteria. Which will no doubt have impact on their application of this model by Local Authorities across Ireland.

#### 3.9.1.5 Visitor management techniques

There has been a growth in the number and variety of visitor management techniques available to managers responsible for the movement and flows of tourists (Lavery, 1971; Elkington and Hailes, 1992; Gunn, 1991; Witt and Moutinho, 1994; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Wood, 2002). They vary in application and complexity from zoning, visitor dispersion, channelled visitor flows, restricted entry, vehicle restriction, differential pricing structures and interpretative gateways. In essence the destination itself, the resources available, the competencies of the tourism managers, and the number and type of tourism all play a role in determining the techniques to be utilised. One visitor management technique utilised in Ireland is the interpretative gateway. This allows the managers of the tourism attraction to control the movement of the visitors in an educational tour or through interpretative centres that highlight the sensitivities of the attraction they are about to visit. These interpretive centres have had a history of relying quite heavily on technology to educate the tourist in the form of audio-visual shows and interactive video monitors.

What is evident in relation to visitor management techniques is that they provide a means to manage and minimise the impact of the visitor. In relation to this research, these techniques are seen to act as tools of sustainable tourism but one must ask if visitor management techniques are not employed what is being put in place to manage such direct impacts.

#### 3.9.1.6 Consultation / participation techniques

This thesis devotes a whole chapter to community consultation in sustainable tourism planning and in essence it is considered a key tool of sustainability. The required associate input of sustainable development cannot be merely imposed on the host community. With various stakeholders involved, meaningful active participation is



required. Sustainable development must be built by, through and with the commitment of local communities (Stewart and Hams, 1991). In terms of Local Authorities planning for sustainable tourism, it is essential to invest in developing the techniques for promoting public involvement in the development of sustainable tourism. However it must be stressed that techniques that allow for consultation and participation are still young in their development and subject to problems of definition and interpretation. They are vulnerable to the type of distortion and bias which is introduced in the selection of inputs. They can also be hijacked to give an appearance of consultation with local people while in reality there is only consultation with so called 'experts' (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Therefore, this process must remain transparent and be well documented to allow for direct accountability of actions.

#### 3.9.1.7 Codes of conduct

There has been a proliferation of codes of conduct for tourism over the last decade. This growth has mainly been driven by the public sector predominantly through the development of environmental codes of conduct (UNEP, 1995). Their design, promotion, content, relevance, uptake, effectiveness and monitoring have become important features of the industry and are all worthy of attention (Mowforth and Munt, 2003). According to Mason and Mowforth (1995), there are two general points that can be made about almost all codes. Firstly, they attempt to influence attitudes and modify behaviour. Secondly, almost all codes are voluntary; statutory codes, backed by law are very rare. This allows even the most impressive code to be abused by the industry as public relation exercises or green washing. While codes of conduct are a useful tool for sustainability and are to be encouraged from a Local Authority tourism planning perspective, they become more effective and significant when they are monitored and independently evaluated.

#### 3.9.1.8 Environmental impact assessment

Many countries and regions have adopted environmental protection legislation and the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) procedure is being increasingly applied throughout the world to all types of development, including tourism projects, to ensure that any negative environmental impacts are analysed and minimised. Even though a sound environmental planning approach has been applied to prepare the tourism component of a plan, the EIA is still important in order to make certain no serious

impacts will result from the development (Inskeep, 1991). It has been described as “among the foremost tools available to national decision makers in their efforts to prevent further environmental deterioration” (Sniffen, 1995:18). The EIA may be applied at all levels of planning from national to local area plans. According to Green and Hunter (1992: 36), the EIA process is seen as a “means not only of identifying potential impacts, but also of enabling the interaction of the environment and development”. The approach taken to evaluate environmental as well as socio-cultural impacts is to view them as costs and benefits, even though they are more difficult to quantify than economic costs and benefits. An evaluation can then be made of the total economic, environmental and socio-cultural costs and benefits of tourism plans and projects in order to arrive at a meaningful total assessment.

It must be stressed that EIA’s are not an exact science and, like any other tool of sustainability, are open to manipulation. Clearly the results of the EIA are as good as the inputs both qualitative and quantitative which are open to degrees of subjectivity which are generated within the overall assessment. The selection and generation of inputs is therefore critical and the planner must recognise that, “if we are to account for the environment then the idea of a politically neutral social science has to be dropped” (Mulberg, 1993: 110). Therefore the EIA process must reflect a clear, transparent and neutral selection and generation of relevant inputs in order to be of any use as a tool of sustainability.

#### 3.9.1.9 Electronic planning

Recent developments in new technology have provided considerable challenges and opportunities to improve the management of sustainable planning processes. Electronic planning (e-planning) offers considerable opportunity for early and rapid change to the future delivery of planning services. Recent developments in new technology have provided considerable challenges and opportunities to improve the management of planning processes and make better use of resources. E-planning offers considerable opportunity for early and rapid change to the future delivery of planning services, with an emphasis on electronic delivery. This enables the provision of services to suit host community needs in a format, and at a time, most convenient to the individual. The provision of an online service can assist the host community in the planning process, and allow:

- electronic submission of, and payment for, applications;
- electronic consultation with all stakeholders;
- public access to an online planning resources.

This emphasis on electronic delivery enables the provision of services to suit community needs in a format, and at a time, most convenient to the individual (The UK planning service, 2005). However, while e-planning has huge potential to improve public participatory processes it is not yet being fully realised. Kingston, (2005: 17) fully argues the focus so far has been all about publishing and disseminating the plans, albeit with the ability to make on-line comments but not about deliberative participation. Many of the e-Planning tools developed so far are merely replicating old participatory practices in digital form with the main focus on making efficiency gains in terms of time and money.

### **3.10 TOWARDS A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSING CDPS**

It is important to note in relation to the tools of sustainability, that while Mowforth and Munt (2003) stress the importance of these tools in developing tourism in Third World countries, many of these tools may be directly applicable to a framework for sustainable development of tourism in the developed world and in this case, Ireland.

However, it is initially apparent that these tools seem to ignore the economic impact of tourism and the need for returns and profits to be made in order to stimulate entrepreneurial activity, coupled with the need to manage external leakages from the economy due to an over dependence on imports and foreign ownership. While the indicators and frameworks do not provide a specific comprehensive framework applicable to assess tourism plans as generated by Local Authorities across Ireland, by combining elements of all four frameworks it is possible to construct a specific framework which has greater applicability.

In light of this, the framework shown in Table 3.6 has been designed and will be utilised in this thesis to assess the level of sustainable tourism planning within CDPs in Ireland, and in so doing address the second major aim of this research.

The six separate areas within the framework are discussed firstly in isolation and then combined. The first area 'specifics of plan' allows the researcher to identify the

timeframe, the depth and integration of the plan and how this reflects on the intensity of tourist arrivals to the area. This allows the researcher to identify honey pots or underperforming regions within the country and determine how they were being planned for in terms of sustainable tourism development.

The second element of the framework deals with the support for sustainable tourism planning and determines if the plan supports sustainable development and if the plan mentions or attempts to plan for tourism in a sustainable manner. This will enable the researcher to identify if particular processes were being utilised by the Local Authorities for example, tourism zoning, resort planning guidelines, disabled provision, tourism signage policy and tourism development design standards, to name a few.

The third aspect of the framework allows for the assessment of the integration of regulations and guidelines for sustainable tourism as issued from the transnational level (UNWTO, EU) to the national and regional level plans, strategies and guidelines that were issued on sustainable tourism development. This allows the framework to assess if the Local Authority plan is benefiting from the higher levels of tourism policy formation within and outside of Ireland. In particular, it will assess if the following international guidelines are obvious from the tourism plan: the Charter for Sustainable Tourism, Lanzarote WTO, 1995; and Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism, The Mohonk Agreement, 2000; EU IQM coastal- rural- urban tourism. It also assesses if the overall national development policy, objectives, strategies, and legislation such as the Irish Wildlife Acts 2000, Sustainable Energy Act, 2000, DOE 'Sustainable Development'; Bord Fáilte 'Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites' 1982 are reflected in the tourism component of the plan.

The next section within the framework deals with planning for environmental impacts of tourism. This will address some of the core fundamental elements of tourism planning allowing the framework to assess the plan's ability to deal with concerns on tourism interaction with the environment and specifically looks at policies dealing with area protection, biodiversity, EIA, carrying capacity, ecotourism, energy conservation and green building standards.

Table 3.6 Sustainable tourism planning framework for assessing CDPs

<b>1 Specifics of plan</b>	<b>4 Planning for Environment impacts of tourism</b>
What year (period) does the development plan cover?	Impact of Tourism on Biodiversity,
Is there a specific County Tourism Development Plan ?	Tourisms interaction with environment- land use
Is there a specific tourism policy section in the Local Authority County Development Plan (CDP)?	Environmental impact assessment (EIA) conducted for tourism (Environmental Audit, GIS)
Number of pages dedicated to tourism planning within the development plan Tourist arrivals to the area (expressed in % of overall arrivals to country)	Tourism and carrying capacity calculations (Physical, ecological, social, environmental, real, effective and permissible carrying capacity, Limits of acceptable change, LAC's)
Number of specific tourism policies within the plan	Ecotourism (Ecolabeling)
Number of tourism strategies to implement the tourism policies within the plan.	Area Protection (National parks, wildlife reserves, sensitive areas and landscape, AONB, SSSI)
Tourism policy integrated within other areas of plan (accommodation housing/holiday home provision, waste water/ sewage, transportation)	Green house keeping for tourist accommodations (energy conservation, waste management, water conservation, green building designs supported)
<b>2 Sustainable Tourism planning supported</b>	<b>5 Planning for Economic impacts of tourism</b>
Sustainable development supported in plan	Economic impacts of tourism supported
Sustainable planning for tourism mentioned in plan	Econometric analysis of tourism earnings carried out
Sustainable planning for tourism supported in the plan	Management of leakages from tourism (imports, over dependence on foreign ownership)
Specific Tourism landuse zoning (Visitor management techniques employed - visitor dispersion, channelled visitor flows, restricted entry, vehicle restriction)	Provides opportunities for local entrepreneurs to establish tourism enterprises. Support local production (food, craft, materials and equipment)
Sustainable resort planning guidelines Makes maximum use of existing infrastructure Dedicated transport management, especially as regards air and road transport	Industry regulation ( professional association regulation, voluntary self-regulation, corporate social responsibility)
Sustainable tourism development and design standards	<b>6 Planning for the socio-cultural impacts</b>
Sustainability indicators integrated into plan (resource use, v.waste, pollution, access to basic human needs, access to decision making, local satisfaction, tourist satisfaction, tourism contribution to local economy)	Consultation/participation techniques utilised in planning process (meaningful levels of host community participation addressed; public meetings, public attitude surveys, stated preference surveys, round tables, collaboration)
Sustainable tourism policy on caravan /camping	Local satisfaction, ratio of tourists to locals
Tourism Signage policy	Helps achieve archaeological, historic preservation
Disabled provision mentioned	Protecting public rights of way for tourism
<b>3 Integration of regulations / guidelines for sustainable tourism</b>	Tourism disaster policy/ plan.
Global agreements obvious from tourism policy/plan (The Charter for Sustainable Tourism, Lanzarote WTO; Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism, Mohonk Agreement)	Intellectual and cultural property rights considered in provision and plan preparation
Reflects EU policy guidelines, the following are obvious from tourism policy/plan, EU disabilities, EU IQM coastal- rural- urban tourism.	Codes of conduct best practice examples Codes of conduct for;
Reflects overall national/regional/local development policy, objectives, strategies, legislation, (The Irish Wildlife Act 2000, Sustainable Energy Act, 2000, DOE 'Sustainable Development; BF 'Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites' 1982)	tourists, industry, host, governments, communities.

Source: adapted from (Inskeep, 1991; UNWTO, 1995; Dymond, 1997; UNWTO, 2001; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Hanrahan and Boyd, 2007).

Section five of the framework deals with the economics of tourism, an element often ignored by many of the other frameworks but here the economic impacts of tourism assesses and determines if the plan is capable of managing economic impacts and, for example, supports local production and the reduction of leakages. This aspect of the



framework also will aim to determine if a productive business environment is being supported for tourism entrepreneurs within the region.

The final area assesses planning for the socio-cultural impacts of tourism and is concerned with host community participation in the planning process. The use of visitor management techniques with plans such as visitor dispersion, channelled visitors flows, restricted entry, vehicle restriction, zoning and honey pots will be addressed.

All these individual sections (1-6) within the framework then combine to determine the overall level of sustainable planning for tourism as reached in each Local Authority plan. This will allow the researcher to provide the first baseline study on sustainable planning for tourism at the Local Authority level in Ireland.

### **3.11 CONCLUSION**

Host community participation in sustainable planning for tourism is a process full of complexities. As discussed in the previous chapter, host community and participation are problematic. To this end, the process of planning for tourism in a sustainable way is not straightforward. Initially, there are issues concerning the terms sustainable, sustainability and sustainable tourism. The review of literature has highlighted how some researchers have broadened the meaning of sustainable development into a concept that implies long-term viability of good quality natural and human resources. Others suggest that sustainability includes quality of life for host communities, visitor satisfaction and conservative use of natural and social resources. Whatever the position, a common theme among these perspectives is that sustainable tourism development includes a focus on attaining some level of harmony among stakeholder groups to develop a desirable quality of life that lasts.

The actual practical application of a planning approach is also quite complex with the dynamics of a changing tourism industry, environment, stakeholders and multiple supply and demand factors influencing the overall process. With this said the evolving planning approaches outlined have been provided in an attempt to meet the challenges and demands of increased tourism development, from the development first approach to the planning first approach which incorporated EIA's, community participation and indeed ownership. This chapter has examined the various approaches to tourism



planning and the complexity of sustainable planning for tourism and its corresponding interaction with the host community.

Finally, the levels of tourism planning have been discussed and various frameworks for assessing the level of sustainable planning for tourism were critiqued. The most essential elements within these frameworks have been modified and adopted to design a very specific framework for this thesis (see Table 3.6). This framework is essentially designed to meet some of the needs of the second aim and objectives (c) and (d) of the thesis. Therefore, it needed to be capable of assessing and comparing the level of sustainable planning for tourism. It is important to stress the extremely applied nature of this thesis and the reliance of this approach on the development of a practical set of tools within the research framework capable of meeting the aims and objectives. These were developed to give a clear indication of the current level of sustainable tourism planning within the Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland. The next chapter discusses the research approach and methods utilised to gather and critically analyse the data collected for this research.

## CHAPTER 4

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### RESEARCH APPROACH AND METHOD

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#### 4.1 BACKGROUND TO RESEARCH

The purpose and scope of this research was to investigate host communities participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland. Due to the diversity and nature of the tourism industry the success of this study was dependent on an extensive and proficient approach to the collection of data utilising a representative and balanced research approach. This chapter states the aims and objectives of the thesis and gives an overview of methodological considerations, data sources and how the research was informed by pluralistic methods. Finally, the fieldwork and surveys are discussed in relation to the procedures used in data gathering and the limitations encountered.

The thesis sets out to determine the actual levels of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland, from a Local Authority perspective. To this end the following aims were identified:

1. To critically examine host communities current participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland, with a specific focus on the tourism component of CDPs.
2. To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland.

In order to achieve these aims the following objectives were developed:

- (a) To critically examine the processes followed to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning.
- (b) To assess levels of host community participation in making CDPs in Ireland.
- (c) To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs.

- (d) To conduct a nationwide comparative examination of tourism plans within the Local Authority CDPs in Ireland and assess if any link existed between tourist arrivals and levels of sustainable tourism planning in CDPs.
- (e) To produce a generic planning scoping checklist which Local Authorities can use when planning for sustainable tourism within the CDPs.

#### 4.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

After careful consideration of the plethora of research paradigms and methods available, the stance and contention of this study was formed. This was essentially based on the assumption that research on host community participation in sustainable tourism planning can benefit from broad methodological approaches and that this research can be enhanced if qualitative and quantitative methods are taken as complementary. Therefore the methodological decisions made for this research were driven by the purpose of the research and not by strict adherence to tenets of any particular worldview (Creswell, 1994; Bickman and Rog, 1998; Descombe, 2004).

These paradigms present two methodological frameworks, one a positivism ontological perspective in that the reality is an objective given where objects have an independent existence and are not dependent on the observer. In essence 'reality' is taken as having pre-existing patterns or order that can be discovered by the objective researcher and the second a phenomenological and interpretative framework that emphasises that knowledge is soft, subjective and results from individuals insights of a personal nature (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). One of the major criticisms of positivism is that it is assumed that an objective reality or truth exists autonomous of those undertaking the inquiry and the inquiry context (McBurney, 2001). As Ryan states:

“Qualitative research has a valuable role to play as it is a means by which understanding at the intuitive level can be gained... to follow Augustinian tradition, man is both body and soul, and research based upon questionnaires alone that are subjected to statistical analysis is unlikely to uncover all of the nuances of such situations” (1995: 99).

However a criticism of the interpretive approach is its potential for bias (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2000). Some concerns endure in relation to linking qualitative and quantitative data in a multi-method design without attending to the fundamental ontological, epistemological and methodological issues (Bickman and Rog, 1998). However, Edwards and Talbot (1999) dispute this concern of a multi-method approach

and the incommensurability of paradigms and advocate in social research that pluralism is considered acceptable if not desirable.

A strict purist perspective renders mixed method research flawed and inappropriate (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). However, less rigid perspectives about the relationship between ontology and methodology consider this argument an abstraction that does not detract from the usefulness of multimethod designs (Creswell, 1994). Furthermore, discussing quantitative and qualitative separately creates the impression that they are extremities apart, and that a researcher has to opt for one method exclusively, when in fact researchers can often employ both methods (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The concept of using diverse methods to work with a research problem has been advocated by many social scientists in order to overcome the limitations of single method studies (Cambell and Fiske, 1959; Douglas, 1976; Denzin, 1989). In fact, there has been an emergence of the view within social sciences, that a strategy which effectively rests on the premise that the weaknesses in each single method will be compensated by the counterbalancing strengths of another (Descombe, 2004; Creswell, 1994; Bickman and Rog, 1998; Mason, 1996), advancing the concept that qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complementary rather than as rivals. Moreover, it has been increasingly noted that in order to obtain comprehensive tourism research, researchers use methodologies that encompass elements of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms using mixed and multi-methods (Jennings, 1995). It must be stressed that multi-method is utilised here, not mixed methods, as the research does not mix the methods but uses appropriate methods borrowed from qualitative and quantitative methodologies to answer the research question. This allows the actual research design to use methods from different paradigms, which in turn can complement, expand and triangulate the research.

One of the priorities of this research was to determine the methods utilised by planners to facilitate community participation in sustainable tourism planning. Therefore, in order to understand this process and its complexities with regard to models, format of meetings, formation of submissions and management practices, the research in essence attempted at a basic level to understand the human nature or behaviour of individuals responsible by law for facilitating community consultation. This research approach had to be applied in a number of stages, initially the research utilised a comprehensive literature review in order to ground the research in the current theory on the

phenomenon being investigated. This was followed by an in-depth qualitative approach to the research which was initiated by a series of pilot qualitative interviews with planners. This in turn was followed by in-depth semi-structured interviews with all the forward planners in Local Authorities in Ireland who agreed to be interviewed.

To give an insight of where the research is located within the context of the process Local Authorities follow when designing CDPs, a figure has been provided to highlight the planning process. The shaded circle indicates where the research was carried out (see Figure 4.1 over leaf).

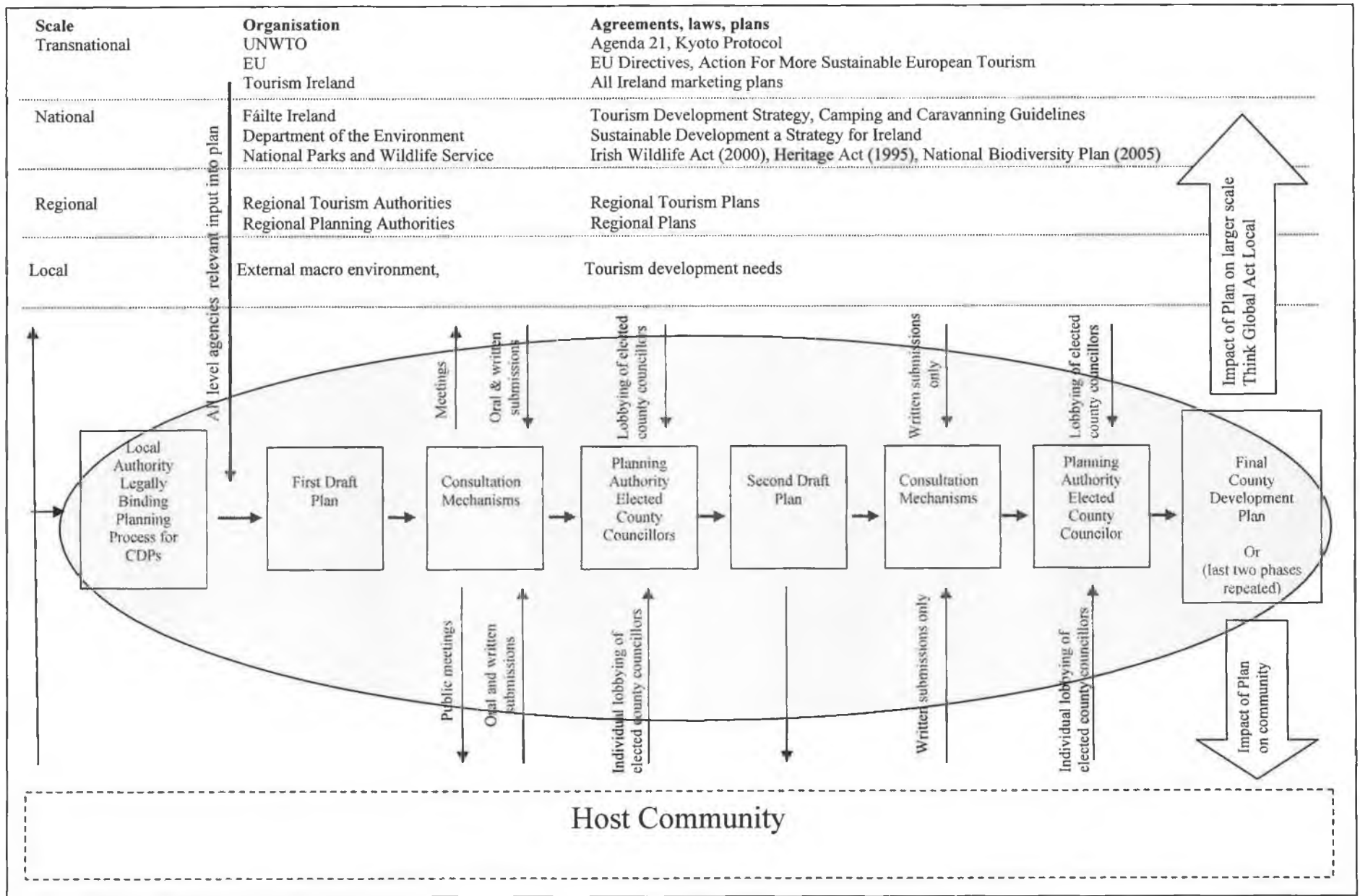


Figure 4.1 The area investigated



The next stage consisted of a quantitative approach where two different content analysis tools were designed to investigate the tourism section of the CDPs and the host community submissions made when the plans were being developed. Figure 4.2 illustrates the methodological framework used in this thesis:

Figure 4.2 Methodological framework

Quantitative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Content analysis of tourism plans (National and Local)</li> <li>Content analysis of manager's reports from county development plan</li> <li>Content analysis of host communities submissions in relation to tourism</li> </ul>
Qualitative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Development of strategic open ended questions for forward planners</li> <li>Pilot in-depth qualitative interviews with forward planners</li> <li>Semi-structured qualitative in depth interviews with forward planners</li> <li>Analysis and coding of qualitative interviews</li> </ul>

The analysis of the data gathered from each method was then compared and contrasted in light of any new international literature available in order to draw the conclusions and recommendations of this thesis. The next section discusses the various methods utilised and the procedure followed.

### 4.3 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

In order to probe planners and analyse the actual level of host community participation in the planning process it was necessary to construct a framework capable of incorporating the majority of themes which have emerged from the literature review. These ranged from the host community problematic and methods of facilitating participation through to typologies of participation. Additionally, the framework needed to incorporate the legal or statutory obligation to consult and the process for designing new CDPs. A framework was developed and piloted on 5% of Local Authority forward planners in order to refine and fine tune its capabilities of satisfying the aims and objectives of the thesis. The final version of this framework can be seen in Table 4.1 and these seven headings have been discussed in chapter two.

Table 4.1 A framework for assessing host community participation in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland.

<p><b>1 Host community</b></p> <p>The need to plan for tourism communities addressed: host community problematic; host community, destination community, defined or identified</p> <p>Participation and the Law: Legal obligations for public consultation fulfilled The legal process of consultation followed Communication of public meetings</p>	<p><b>4 Draft plan (Irish specific)</b></p> <p>Inspection of draft plan available to community Copy of draft sent to prescribed authorities Alterations and impact to draft plan from:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• County Councillors</li> <li>• National and regional tourism agencies</li> <li>• County Development Boards</li> <li>• County Tourism Committees/forums</li> </ul>
<p><b>2 Process of consultation</b></p> <p>Specific participation model used: Community design charette, Pines participation ladder, Drakes model of local participation, Bonnilla's participatory planning model, collaboration and partnership approach</p> <p>External facilitator used Mechanism in place for consultation Number of public consultation meetings held Time of public meetings</p> <p>Format and method of participation (tools used):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Public meeting</li> <li>• General talk on process and plan</li> <li>• Presentations and exhibitions</li> <li>• Questions and answers facilitated</li> <li>• Participatory work shops</li> <li>• Individual clinic facilitated</li> <li>• Written submissions taken at public meetings</li> </ul>	<p><b>5 E-Planning</b></p> <p>Assessment of E-planning facilitation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Draft plan available to community on line</li> <li>• Receive submission from community online</li> <li>• View submission available on line</li> <li>• Managers report on line</li> <li>• Submissions linked to policies on line</li> </ul> <p><b>6 Training and support for consultation (Irish specific)</b></p> <p>Level of support and training for the planners:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• External training for public consultation</li> <li>• In-house training for public consultation</li> <li>• Available support literature/ guides for public consultation</li> <li>• Were the available resources for consultation a limitation</li> </ul>
<p><b>3 Submissions (Irish specific)</b></p> <p>Number of written submissions Number of submissions directly relating to tourism Managers report on submissions available to community Number of recommendations relating to tourism</p>	<p><b>7 Community participation at higher levels</b></p> <p>Community participation facilitated at;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Regional level</li> <li>- National level</li> <li>- EU level</li> </ul>

This framework is designed specifically for the Irish setting, to facilitate and assess the legal obligation to consult and associated legal planning process to be followed, when making CDPs.

The primary qualitative fieldwork within this framework was carried out by informal semi-structured interviews with forward planners of the local authorities. This gave the planners scope to develop their ideas on the topic. According to Denscombe (2003: 167) the semi-structured interview allows the interviewer to be flexible in terms of the order on which the topics are discussed, and perhaps more significantly, to let the interviewee develop ideas and speak more widely on issues raised by the researcher. The answers are open-ended and there is greater emphasis on the interviewee elaborating points of interest. This research approach best facilitated the depth of inquiry which was sought

and allowed the forward planners to elaborate on sensitive political topics like land use zoning.

It is important to put this framework in the context of the Local Authority County Development Planning Process, involving communication and interrelationships (Figure 1.1) in order to appreciate the complexities and stages of the planning process within which participation takes place. Specifically the framework assessed seven major themes: host community problematic, process of consultation, submissions, e-planning, draft plan, training and support for consultation and community participation at higher levels. These themes emerged throughout the review of literature and assessment of the DOE (2000) process for making CDPs.

#### **4.3.1 Method**

The method utilised involved the preparation of draft informal strategic open ended questions, designed around the subcategories of the seven emergent themes within the framework, which were piloted on local authority planners. This gave the researcher time to assess the suitability of the questions to retrieve the necessary data and probe the planners for more in-depth viewpoints on the approaches to sustainable tourism planning and the fundamental mechanics of the participation models used. The interviewees were allowed ample time to respond and the researcher utilised the pause or prolonged silent gap between questions to allow the interviewees to develop and qualify their answer. This proved particularly useful to allow ideas and beliefs to emerge and be developed by the interviewees. The process was completed face-to-face depending on the availability of the planners or completed over the telephone. All interviews were taped and transcribed to facilitate retrieval and analysis of data.

#### **4.3.2 Sampling and selection**

Sample design and execution require careful consideration of the goals of the research and resources available. Throughout the process, sampling theory guides the trade-offs between the resources available and the accuracy and precision of the information (Bickman and Rog, 1998). The selection of interview candidates for this research was defined by the aims and objectives of the thesis. As a result, the forward planners within the Local Authorities were selected as the primary interviewees, as they had the primary

role of designing and developing the plan and thus facilitating host community involvement.

The research aimed at completing a nationwide analysis of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland. Therefore the sample method employed was a complete population as the research involved all the forward planners in the Local Authorities who produce CDPs. There were a number of problems associated with this method. Firstly, forward planner's time is in much demand and it proved very difficult to arrange appointments to meet and interview them. Secondly, forward planners tend to move from one local authority to another and it was therefore difficult to track down the particular forward planner who conducted the community consultation and made the development plan under investigation. In the end 28 out of 31 forward planners were eventually interviewed, giving a very high response rate within the entire population.

#### **4.3.3 Analysis**

The analysis of the data retrieved in the qualitative open-ended interviews was based on some of the principles employed by grounded theory. Grounded theory is an inductive qualitative research method that seeks to understand behavior by collecting real-world observations and analyzing the dominant processes in the social scene under investigation with the aim of developing theories and theoretical propositions (Gillis and Jackson, 2002).

The data was collected by means of audio recordings and transcribed after each session. The researcher then noted down the key issues. The need for constant comparison was central to the research process. This began first with the comparison of interviews. At this stage, theory started to emerge in relation to the method and models used by planners to facilitate participation. This was followed by the emergence of more in-depth opinions on the role of host community consultation within the development of the plan. The next stage involved analysing the results of this comparison using coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) which included naming, labelling and categorising properties. During the process of coding, certain theoretical propositions occur to the researcher (Glaser, 1992). Coding was completed in a formal and systematic manner

where quotes with similar themes were identified. For example, a planner identifies his approach to host community participation as a listening exercise:

“I prefer to call it a listening exercise, because the difficulty that we knew we would be facing if we did questions and answers, was you would be asked questions like why didn't you do that, and we would have spent the entire night trying to explain why that wasn't done during the previous development plan review. So we said look what's past is past now what do you want in the next one. Lets not waste time on fights over what wasn't done last time. We got 269 individual interventions” (planner 19).

The next stage involved identifying categories. For illustrative purposes, the above quote was coded and categorised under the heading 'format and method of consultation' (see chapter 5, section 5.9.2). Below are some examples of the emergent themes or categories which came from the analysis of the transcribed interviews:

- Statutory obligation to consult
- Mechanisms in place for public meetings
- Public meetings and oral submissions
- Format and method of consultation
- External facilitator used for public participation
- Training for public consultation
- Times of the meetings
- Alteration of draft plan

The writing up stage according to Strauss and Corbin (1998) helps clarify thoughts and elucidates breaks in logic. One of the interesting features of writing up is that emergent theory often becomes more refined. Fundamentally this stage is often just a matter of preparing a first draft by typing up the code and categories in sequence and integrating them into a coherent argument. According to Strauss (1990), a thesis presentation presents problems of its own because a standard format must be followed. The writer must carefully think through how much detail to include and how to present the most relevant facets of the conceptual scheme while still retaining flow and continuity.

It is important to point out that in order to facilitate the cross analysis of the emergent codes or themes within the research, the codes which needed to be discussed on a nationwide basis were inserted into a matrix with the codes on the vertical axis and the initials of the county council and year of development plan being discussed on the

horizontal axis (see Table 4.2). This appears in a format which seems quite quantitative however this is data which was retrieved from the qualitative interviews.

Table 4.2 Example matrix from the participation analysis framework

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MD	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of Development plan	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	02	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04	
General talk on process and draft plan.	x	na	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	na	x
Presentation/ exhibition given			x	x				x	x					x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x			x
Questions and answers session			x	x	x			x	x					x		x					x		x		x	x			
Individual clinic facilitation if requested by appointment only			x						x		x						x	x	x	x	x		x			x			x
Work shops at public meetings			x		x	x						x										x							
Written or oral submission taken at meetings				x		x				x		x				x			x										x

Key CW refers to CarloW  
 DL refers to DonegaL  
 x in a cell indicated the presence of that particular activity  
 05 refers to the year the plan was approved and published 2005  
 All of these abbreviations are available in (Appendix A)

For example an (x) in the cell for DonegaL (DL) indicated the forward planner gave a general talk, ran a question and answer session and carried out a workshop during the public meeting for the host community. Finally, the analysis and write up of the qualitative research was discussed in relation to current theory. For example, host community participation was discussed in relation to concepts and models of participation (Arnstein, 1971; Pretty, 1995; Tuson, 2004). This in turn allowed the researcher to generate findings and conclusions and make recommendations.

#### 4.4 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Content analysis was the primary quantitative analysis tool utilised in this study, and while this represents quantification on a limited scale it still is anchored in the quantitative research paradigm. According to Zipf's law (1949) the assumption is that



words and phrases mentioned most often are those reflecting important concerns in every communication. Therefore, according to Neuendorf (2002) quantitative content analysis can involve; word frequencies, space measurements (column centimeters in print media), time counts (for broadcasts) and keyword frequencies. However, content analysis can extend far beyond plain word counts, for example keywords can be assessed in the context of their specific meaning in the text (Krippendorf, 2004).

Quantitative research takes an analytic approach to understanding a number of controlled variables. Increasingly, tourism researchers are using content and textual analysis as a means of critical investigation when faced with textual forms of data, for example written documents such as tourism policies, tourism plans or even visual materials such as photographs and brochures. Marshall and Rossman (1989) suggest that content analysis is a way of asking a fixed set of questions about data in such a manner as to produce countable results or quantitative descriptions. It is a means by which to produce solid descriptive information or to cross-validate other research findings. This researcher conducted a content analysis of the County Development Plans followed by a content analysis of the manager's reports on the draft plans and host community submissions. This provided a framework for the constant comparison of the plans and in turn for future research to use in the context of possible longitudinal studies.

In particular, this research methodology recognises that all texts are produced intertextually in relation to other texts, which are in turn embedded within power relations that give degrees of authority (Hannam and Knox, 2005). Moreover, this research treats texts as a form of mediated cultural products which are part of wider systems of knowledge. It is argued that the analysis is not just interested in what is within the text of the plans but also in what has been left out of the plans.

#### **4.4.1 Method**

The content analysis method was chosen as the best way to accumulate data from the Local Authorities "CDPs" the "Managers (forward planners) Reports" and the "individual written submissions" made on the draft plans by the host community. The aim of the analysis in this thesis was to obtain information that could be examined,

patterns extracted and comparisons made regarding the level of actual sustainable tourism planning and frequency and depth of individual written submissions from the community pertaining to the draft plans.

Categories were determined and frameworks assessed on the basis of a review of extensive literature on host participation (Krippendorf, 1982; D'Amore, 1983; Murphy, 1985; Gunn, 1988; Keogh, 1990; McIntosh and Goldner, 1990; Inskeep, 1991; Getz, 1994; Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Bramwell, 2000; Oppermann and Weaver, 2000; UNWTO, 2001; Mason, 2003; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Mason, 2003; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Murphy and Murphy; 2004). The variable categories and sub-categories and a combination of elements of all four frameworks (Mowforth and Munt, 2003 tool for sustainability; Inskeep, 1991 matrix; core indicators of sustainable tourism UNWTO, 2001; Agenda 21 recommendations of Priority Area IV on planning) were used to construct a specific framework which was used in this thesis to assess the level of sustainable tourism planning within County Development Plans in Ireland.

The Sustainable Tourism Planning Framework for Assessing CDPs was discussed in chapter three and is illustrated overleaf (Table 4.3). The six separate areas within the framework (specifics of plan; sustainable planning process for tourism; integration of regulations and guidelines; planning for environmental impacts of tourism; economic impacts of tourism and socio-cultural impacts of tourism) were assessed firstly in isolation and then as a combined tool to measure the levels of planning for sustainable tourism.

After an initial review and piloting of the analysis tool on the Local Authorities 'County Development Plans', the independent variables within the tool were refined and selected for the purpose of determining the actual level of sustainable tourism planning and making comparisons on a national level between local authorities. This was also designed to facilitate the analysis of any possible link between tourism arrivals at a County level, the level of sustainable tourism planning engaged in by the Local Authorities and the number of submissions made by the host community at the draft stage of the planning process.

Table 4.3 Sustainable tourism planning framework for assessing CDPs

<b>1 Specifics of plan</b>	<b>4 Planning for Environment impacts of tourism</b>
What year (period) does the development plan cover?	Impact of Tourism on Biodiversity,
Is there a specific County Tourism Development Plan ?	Tourisms interaction with environment- land use
Is there a specific tourism policy section in the Local Authority County Development Plan (CDP)?	Environmental impact assessment (EIA) conducted for tourism (Environmental Audit, GIS)
Number of pages dedicated to tourism planning within the development plan	Tourism and carrying capacity calculations (Physical, ecological, social, environmental, real, effective and permissible carrying capacity, Limits of acceptable change, LAC's)
Tourist arrivals to the area (expressed in % of overall arrivals to country)	Ecotourism (Ecolabeling)
Number of specific tourism policies within the plan	Area Protection (National parks, wildlife reserves. sensitive areas and landscape, AONB, SSSI)
Number of tourism strategies to implement the tourism policies within the plan.	Green house keeping for tourist accommodations (energy conservation, waste management, water conservation, green building designs supported)
Tourism policy integrated within other areas of plan (accommodation housing/holiday home provision, waste water/ sewage, transportation)	
<b>2 Sustainable Tourism planning supported</b>	<b>5 Planning for Economic impacts of tourism</b>
Sustainable development supported in plan	Economic impacts of tourism supported
Sustainable planning for tourism mentioned in plan	Econometric analysis of tourism earnings carried out
Sustainable planning for tourism supported in the plan	Management of leakages from tourism (imports, over dependence on foreign ownership)
Specific Tourism landuse zoning (Visitor management techniques employed - visitor dispersion, channelled visitor flows, restricted entry, vehicle restriction)	Provides opportunities for local entrepreneurs to establish tourism enterprises. Support local production (food, craft, materials and equipment)
Sustainable resort planning guidelines	Industry regulation ( professional association regulation, voluntary self-regulation, corporate social responsibility)
Makes maximum use of existing infrastructure	
Dedicated transport management, especially as regards air and road transport	
<b>3 Integration of regulations / guidelines for sustainable tourism</b>	<b>6 Planning for the socio-cultural impacts</b>
Sustainable tourism development and design standards	Consultation/participation techniques utilised in planning process (meaningful levels of host community participation addressed; public meetings, public attitude surveys, stated preference surveys, round tables, collaboration)
Sustainability indicators integrated into plan (resource use, waste, pollution, access to basic human needs, access to decision making, local satisfaction, tourist satisfaction, tourism contribution to local economy)	Local satisfaction, ratio of tourists to locals
Sustainable tourism policy on caravan /camping	Helps achieve archaeological, historic preservation
Tourism Signage policy	Protecting public rights of way for tourism
Disabled provision mentioned	Tourism disaster policy/ plan.
<b>3 Integration of regulations / guidelines for sustainable tourism</b>	Intellectual and cultural property rights considered in provision and plan preparation
Global agreements obvious from tourism policy/plan (The Charter for Sustainable Tourism, Lanzarote WTO, Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism, Mohonk Agreement)	Codes of conduct
Reflects EU policy guidelines, the following are obvious from tourism policy/plan, EU disabilities, EU IQM coastal- rural- urban tourism.	best practice examples
Reflects overall national/regional/local development policy, objectives, strategies, legislation, (The Irish Wildlife Act 2000, Sustainable Energy Act, 2000, DOE 'Sustainable Development; BF 'Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites' 1982)	Codes of conduct for, tourists, industry, host, governments, communities.

Source: adapted from (Inskeep, 1991; UNWTO, 1995; Dymond, 1997; UNWTO, 2001; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Hanrahan and Boyd, 2007).

#### 4.4.2 Sampling and selection

Given that the aim of the thesis was to assess the level of sustainable tourism planning and host community participation at a Local Authority level throughout the Republic of Ireland, the research involved a complete population where all 31 Local Authorities'

'Development Plans'; 'Managers' (forward planners) reports' and the 'individual written submissions' made on foot of draft plans by the host community were examined. The procedure yielded a 100% success rate with the CDPs but the success rate for the 'Managers' (forward planners) reports' and the 'individual written submissions' was recorded at 79%, as some of these reports were not available or had not been kept.

#### 4.4.3 Data analysis

To facilitate constant comparison throughout the research process and to highlight any variations between the Local Authorities, the data was inputted into a content analysis tool for each development plan. The style and layout adopted for this tool to facilitate the interpretation of the results by other researchers, is similar to the "participation analysis tool" (see Table 4.2). The only variation is the vertical axis now contains the variable categories and sub-categories which were developed for this research and which were listed in Table 4.3. The data from each category was then analysed and discussed in the context of current international literature and their connection with other Local Authority plans, submissions, level of tourist arrivals, planner's reports and comments and the variable relation to other categories within the plan if applicable. Table 4.2 shows an excerpt from this matrix. It is clearly visible how Local Authorities vary on all the categories assessed. For example, in relation to the CDPs simply mentioning sustainable planning for tourism, an x indicates that plans managed to mention sustainable planning for tourism. The numbers of pages, policies and strategies to implement these policies are also clearly indicated within the cells for each Local Authority. For example Clare (CE):

- Last updated the CDP in 2005
- Does not specifically mention sustainable planning for tourism within the plan
- Does not specifically support sustainable planning for tourism
- Does support sustainable development
- The tourism plan is four pages long
- The tourism plan has seven tourism policies
- There are no implementation strategies for these policies
- Clare receives 9.7% of tourism arrivals expressed as a percentage of total Irish arrivals.

Table 4.4 Example matrix from sustainable tourism planning framework

Analysis of CDPs from a sustainable tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MD	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W		
Year of development plan	04	03	05	03	00	04	04	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	04	03	03	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04		
Sustainable planning for tourism mentioned	x				x			x			x		x			x						x	x			x				x	x		
Sustainable planning for tourism supported					x				x	x	x				x	x									x	x				x	x	x	
Sustainable development supported		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x			x	x	x	x
Number pages on tourism in plan	0	2	3	4	6	1	1	1	6	4	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	12	0	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	3	8	4		
Number of tourism policies in plan	0	1	7	8	4	7	1	1	10	25	3	16	11	3	1	8	8	6	29	0	8	8	0	3	10	5	2	10	33	11			
Number of Tourism strategies to implement policies	0	0	0	7	23	0	4	7	30	0	5	0	0	5	11	6	2	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	18			
Tourist numbers expressed as a % of total Irish arrivals	10 %	7.3%	9.7%	18 %	7.3%	29 %	29 %	12 %	29 %	14 %	18 %	12 %	10 %	12 %	7.3%	9.7%	9.7%	9.7%	12 %	12 %	12 %	12 %	14 %	9.7%	14 %	7.3%	10 %	9.7%	10 %	12 %	10 %	12 %	

All of these abbreviations are available in (Appendix A)

#### 4.5 RESEARCH STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

Limitations for any particular research study are inevitable and can influence the extent to which useful meaning can be derived in relation to the phenomenon being studied. The research strategy for enhancing validity, reliability and minimising limitations were based on four criteria for judging rigor and adequacy, which includes credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Credibility was enhanced in this study with the constant comparison of the international literature and piloting of the strategic open-ended questionnaire, content and textual analysis tools on planners. Transferability was achieved by applying the same research tool to each Local Authority context and inputting the data into the planning analysis tool. However, true transferability is only possible when the results of this study can be applied to similar settings. The descriptive details of the research tools and format allows others to decide if the findings are applicable to similar situations, perhaps in a longitudinal analysis. Dependability refers to the ability to track the research process and determine which raw data was used to reach corresponding conclusions. This was achieved through detailed records of the data collection process and analysis procedures. Conformability refers to the process of checking interpretations and conclusions for



research bias. Bias can never be completely removed from an individual, but such biases were duly acknowledged during the course of the study and analysis stage.

Triangulation was employed in the research to ensure validity. An important feature of triangulation is not the simple combination of different kinds of data but the attempt to relate them so as to counteract the threats to validity identified in each (Fielding and Fielding, 1986). Data, theory and methodological triangulation were integrated into this study. Data was sourced from planners, managers reports, county development plans. Methodological and data triangulation was dependent upon convergence of data gathered by multi-methods within the methodological approach in this study. Another limitation to the research was the unavailability of some forward planners and manager's reports which resulted in sampling error, however, this was minimal.

#### **4.6 ETHICS**

Every study involving human respondents raises a unique set of ethical issues. According to Polit and Hunger (1993), ethics refers to the quality of the research procedures with respect to their adherence to professional, legal and social obligations to the research subject. As planning can be innately political and the research required honest opinions of the planners, it was important to make confidentiality a key trait of the research. With this in mind, the researcher has protected the names and location of all planners interviewed during the study. Planners are simply referred to by a number as the following quote illustrates:

“What we put up to the county councillors they changes things. They had a big impact, they seemed to be addressing their own issues rather than the wider planning issues in hand” (Planner, 22).

This confidentiality clause, while protecting the planners, allowed for a full and frank discussion.

#### **4.7 Geographic location of community submissions**

In the interest of international readers this thesis provides a map of Ireland with the counties named and clear boundary demarcation. Again it is worth pointing out that the counties are generally coded within the analysis by the first or the first and last letter of



the county name. This map also provides for the clear comparison of community submissions versus the different levels of tourist arrivals to each county. As this study was conducted in the Republic of Ireland the following counties were not included in the analysis, Derry, Antrim, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Armagh and Down. See appendix c for more detailed illustration including Geographic dispersion of tourist arrivals, tourism policies with the CDP's and host community submissions made to the CDP.

Figure 4.3 Map of Ireland



Source: Adapted from Geocities (2008)

#### 4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has identified and demonstrated that the research process was pluralistic in nature. In this regard, it was important to triangulate quantitative and qualitative methods. A comprehensive literature review provided the basis for empirical progression. The primary research involved the development of a number of research instruments. All instruments were designed to take into consideration issues such as validity and reliability. These instruments (content analysis tools) were integrated into a planning matrix to allow for comparison and visibility of the research. Finally, the chapter demonstrated how both the qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to generate knowledge at the practical applied level of host community participation in sustainable planning for tourism as it occurred in Ireland. The next chapter presents the results and discussion of the first aim of the thesis.

## CHAPTER 5

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### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: HOST COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM PLANNING IN IRELAND**

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#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The empirical results pertaining to the actual level of host community participation in sustainable planning for tourism in Ireland are generated within this chapter by combining both the qualitative and quantitative fieldwork. This first aim of this thesis is addressed:

- To critically examine host communities current participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland, with a specific focus on the tourism component of CDPs.

In order to achieve this aim the following objectives were developed:

- To critically examine the processes followed to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning.
- To assess the levels of host community participation in making CDPs in Ireland.

As such, the primary focus of discussion that follows is the assesment of participation in developing Local Authority CDPs. This process, involving communication and interrelationships, is illustrated in Figure 5.1 which shows the host community being represented within the relevent afforded channels of participation during the planning process and the various stages of the legally required public consultation (Planning and Development Act, 2000).

Directly above the eight stage Local Authority planning process are the four levels of agencies, namely stakeholders (who can also be members of the host community), regional, national and transnational organisations who may have direct input into the planning process or may indirectly produce directives, strategies, charters and guidelines for Local Authority consideration.

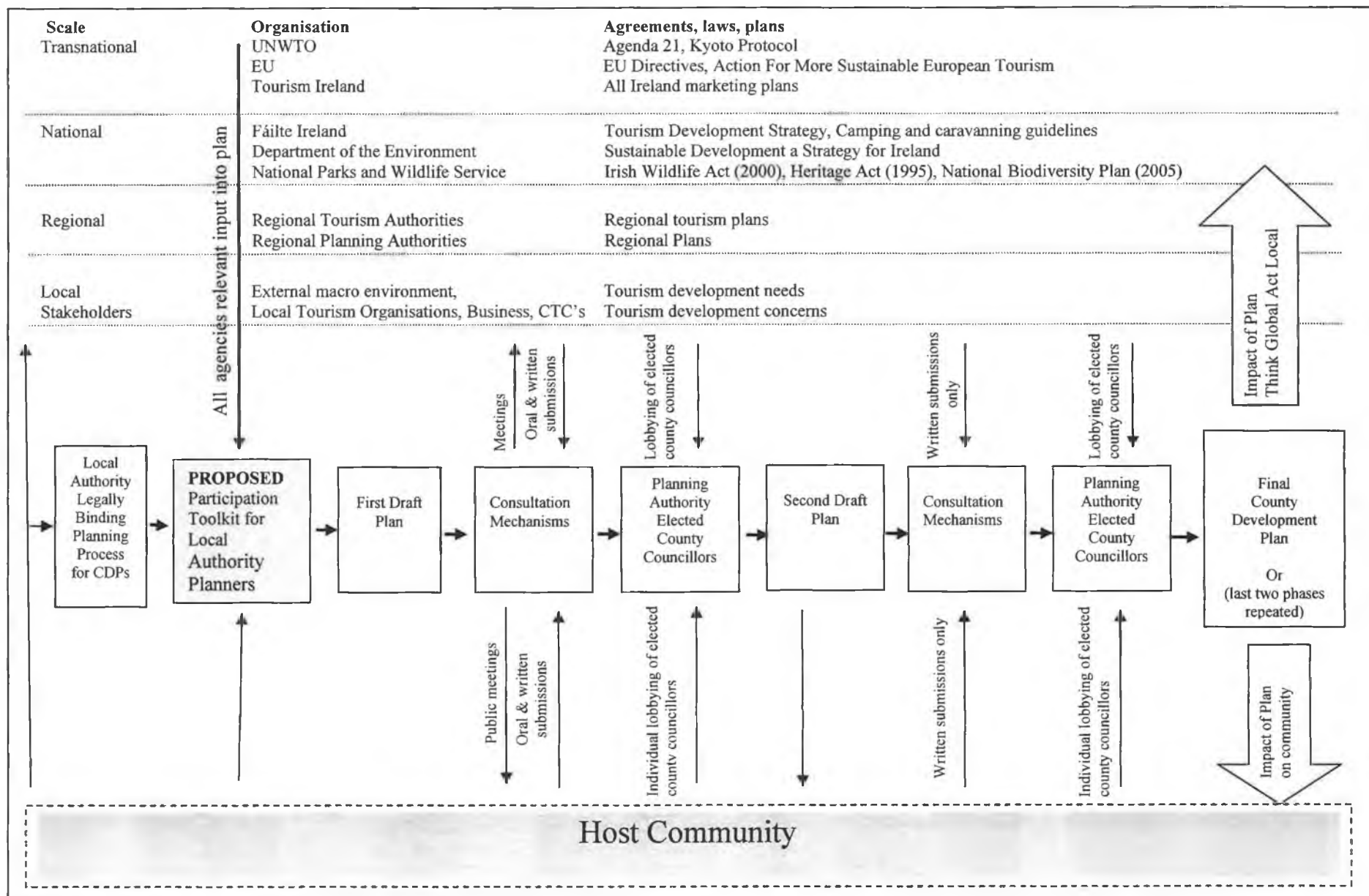


Figure 5.4 The amended Local Authority county development planning process, communication and interrelationships

In order to assess the level of host community participation, the framework (see Figure 5.2) was applied to the planning process and assessed on the basis of several criteria: host community problematic; process of consultation; training & support for consultation; submissions; draft plan, e-planning and community participation at higher levels.

Figure 5.2 A framework for assessing community participation in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland.

<p><b>1 Host community</b></p> <p>The need to plan for tourism communities addressed: host community problematic; host community, destination community, defined or identified</p> <p>Participation and the Law: Legal obligations for public consultation fulfilled The legal process of consultation followed Communication of public meetings</p>	<p><b>4 Draft plan</b></p> <p>Inspection of draft plan available to community Copy of draft sent to prescribed authorities Alterations and impact to draft plan from :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• County Councillors</li> <li>• National and regional tourism agencies</li> <li>• County Development Boards</li> <li>• County Tourism Committees/forums</li> </ul>
<p><b>2 Process of consultation</b></p> <p>Specific participation model used: Community design charette, Pines participation ladder, Drakes model of local participation, Bonnilla's participatory planning model, collaboration and partnership approach</p> <p>External facilitator used Mechanism in place for consultation Number of public consultation meetings held Time of public meetings</p> <p>Format and method of participation (tools used):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Public meeting</li> <li>• General talk on process and plan</li> <li>• Presentations and exhibitions</li> <li>• Questions and answers facilitated</li> <li>• Participatory work shops</li> <li>• Individual clinic facilitated</li> <li>• Written submissions taken at public meetings</li> </ul>	<p><b>5 E-Planning</b></p> <p>Assessment of E-planning facilitation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Draft plan available to community on line</li> <li>• Receive submission from community online</li> <li>• View submission available on line</li> <li>• Managers report on line</li> <li>• Submissions linked to policies on line</li> </ul> <p><b>6 Training and support for consultation</b></p> <p>Level of support and training for the planners:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• External training for public consultation</li> <li>• In-house training for public consultation</li> <li>• Available support literature/ guides for public consultation</li> <li>• Were the available resources for consultation a limitation</li> </ul>
<p><b>3 Submissions</b></p> <p>Number of written submissions Number of submissions directly relating to tourism Managers report on submissions available to community Number of recommendations relating to tourism</p>	<p><b>7 Community participation at higher levels</b></p> <p>Community participation facilitated at;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Regional level</li> <li>- National level</li> <li>- EU level</li> </ul>

The assessment of the themes within the framework generated a number of key findings from the triangulation of both content analysis of managers reports, relevant theory and in-depth interviews with planners. This chapter discusses each theme chronologically, and in the context of sustainable tourism planning in Local Authorities CDPs.

## 5.2 THEME ONE - HOST COMMUNITY PROBLEMATIC

Theme one of the framework highlights the need to define and plan for tourism within communities in order to facilitate meaningful participation. It helped clarify if the Local Authorities or any state tourism related bodies defined or attempted to identify terms

such as community, host community, destination community or stakeholders. This first theme within the framework was used to determine if Local Authorities' legal obligation and the legal process involving public consultation in the design of CDPs was being adhered to. In particular, it examines the legal process of consultation with respect to communication, notification of public meetings, oral submissions and the manager's reports on submissions.

There emerged no evidence to suggest that any Local Authorities recognised the specific need to plan for tourism in communities. No Local Authority or state agencies defined what is meant by 'host community'. Some state organisations such as the National Tourism Development Authority (Fáilte Ireland) and the Department of the Environment (DOE) are committed to sustainable tourism development and advocate community involvement, they do not however define terms such as community, host community, destination community and stakeholders, nor do they assess the level of host community participation in tourism planning. Jackson and Morpeth (1999) argue that insufficient attention has been paid to the details of community participation and that more detailed empirical analysis of an effective community participative process for tourism or wider sustainable development initiatives are needed. It appears that in Ireland there continues to be a significant gap in this area of research. However, with this in mind it is important to note and discuss the Local Authorities legal obligation to consult during the preparation of CDPs.

### **5.2.1 Participation and the law**

Host community participation in sustainable tourism planning is rarely dominated by a discussion of participation and the law. Internationally it seems communities, for example in New Zealand, are afforded a legal right to participate under the Resources Management Act 1997. However the case and conditions and level of participation differs from country to country, with communities in the developing countries being afforded in many cases less to no legal right to participate in tourism planning.

In Ireland, the research indicates that the need for a community to 'participate' in the tourism planning process is not stressed in Irish planning legislation. While the legislation refers to the process, 'consult with the public', there was no evidence to support a legal requirement for planners to allow for full community participation in the



planning process. Tosun (2000), Pretty (1995) and Arnstein (1971) referred to this as self mobilization, citizen control or spontaneous participation. However, indirectly, the host communities elected county councillors are legally obliged to participate and in fact have the final say on the overall development plans. This is discussed later in the chapter.

In the context of Ireland, the concept of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning has therefore in legal terms emerged to be merely consultation. However it is necessary to discuss the Local Authorities statutory obligation to consult the public, during the public consultation and adoption phase of designing CDPs as shown in Figure 5.1.

### **5.2.2 Statutory obligation to consult**

The statutory obligation to consult with the public emerged as a major theme in the analysis of interviews with planners, as the following quote suggests;

“The planning act obliges us to consult” (Planner 16)

No specific mention of host community participation in tourism planning was encountered in Irish Law. However, consultation is allowed for in the Planning and Development Act (2000) under section 20.-1 consultation and adoption of local area plans. This states that planning authorities shall make a development plan every 6 years and no later than 4 years, and must give notice of their intentions to review their existing development plan and prepare a new one. It is at this stage that the planning authority has a statutory obligation to start consulting the public, hold public meetings and invite written submissions (see subsection 3a of the regulations).

According to 3b, the preparation of draft development plan proceeds:

“Without prejudice to the generality of paragraph (a), a planning authority shall hold public meetings and seek written submissions regarding all or any aspect of the proposed development plan and may invite oral submissions to be made to the planning authority regarding the plan” (DOE, 2001).

This is the most significant statutory requirement in relation to consultation in tourism planning in Ireland. While still at an initial stage, it is the only form of public meeting that is held in the entire development plan process. Once the draft plan is generated, the



law provides the planning authority with leeway to take what ever steps it considers necessary.

“Consultation and adoption of local area plans.20.—(1) A planning authority shall take whatever steps it considers necessary to consult the public before preparing, amending or revoking a local area plan including consultations with any local residents, public sector agencies, non-governmental agencies, local community groups and commercial and business interests within the area” (<http://www.irishstatutebook.ie/ZZA30Y2000.html:20/2/2007>).

The exact wording of the law and its openness to interpretation featured strongly within the discussions with planners. One planner noted:

“We operated within the requirement as laid down in the Act for consultation, which is preplanning with community and statutory bodies and the normal if you like statutory display presentation and the rest of it” (planner 28).

Whereas another planner claims:

“It does say you are required to do public consultation but it does not specify exactly what” (planner 4).

It would appear then that there is an apparent degree of flexibility afforded on the part of Local Authorities to take whatever steps it considers necessary to consult the public. Host community participation may take whatever form the Local Authority considers necessary, ranging from a basic public consultation meeting to in-depth meaningful participatory workshops.

### **5.2.3 The legal process of consultation**

In relation to the legal process of consultation and adoption of local area plans, the Planning Act 2002 is very clear with regard to communication, public meeting, oral hearings, and the manager’s report on written submissions. These are discussed in relation to the Planning Act of 2002 and in connection with the interviews with planners.

### **5.2.4 Communication**

The legal duty of planning authorities in relation to the communication with the public and the Local Authority planning board is centred on the publishing of a notice in the local paper, holding a public meeting and sending a notice of proposal to the board. The

Planning Authority must, before making, amending or revoking a local area plan, send notice to the board and publish a notice of proposal in one or more newspapers circulated in the area (DOE, 2001). This could be considered exclusive of certain host community members who do not or cannot read local newspapers, for example, the blind, non nationals and members of the host community who are residing out of the area. Furthermore, it ignores the penetration and cost effectiveness of other local media such as radio and internet. Considering the exercise is only carried out once every six years, the law seems to require minimal effort and expense on the part of Local Authorities.

Table 5.1 Local Authority communication with the public before making CDP

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of Development plan (DP)	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
LA communicated with the public before designing new plan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Table 5.1 indicates complete compliance by all LA's with regard to communicating to the public the intent to design a new County Development Plan. However, what emerged from the analysis of interviews with the forward planners was the additional measures used by some Local Authorities:

- Local radio advertising
- Brochure design and distribution
- Notices distributed within the community (public library's)
- Advertising on Local Authority website
- Notice and draft planning documents sent around in a mobile library with junior planner (occurred in one county)

Interviews highlighted forward planners to be extremely enthusiastic at this stage of the process and advocated an inclusive planning process. Planners also mentioned and endorsed the move towards a more consultation-based process as called for in the Planning and Development Act of 2000. In relation to Arnstein, Pretty and Tosun's models of participation, these actions would indicate that only a basic level of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning existed. The adherence by all Local Authorities to communicate with the public in local newspapers would reveal that some basic level of consultation had begun. This reflects what Tosun (1999) called passive-participation, characterised by a top-down approach to planning.

### 5.2.5 Public meetings and oral submissions

Local Authorities are legally bound at the initial draft stages of the development plan to hold public meetings and in addition any person may be invited to make an oral presentation (DOE 2001, 11-3 paragraph b). While this is a significant statutory requirement, the actual process to be followed is not outlined, but is left open for Local Authorities to interpret as according to clause 3a which facilitates Local Authorities to take whatever measures are necessary in order to consult with the general public and other interested bodies.

Successful involvement of a community in tourism planning depends on developing a participation process and sufficient resources being available to planners and the host community (Pearce, Murphy, 1985; Ritchie, 1988; Simmons, 1994; Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Mason, 2004). Research findings suggested that the legal requirement to consult with the public in making development plans does not afford or necessarily guarantee a high level of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning.

Table 5.2 Public meetings held in draft stage of making the CDP

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of Development plan (DP)	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
LA communicated with the public Before designing new plan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Number of public meetings	7	5	6	14	6	10	4	1	7	6	0	5	na	5	4	5	5	27	10	1	4	4	4	4	6	na	na	5	

Table 5.2 shows full compliance with regard to holding public meetings, highlighting the variation of the number of meetings ran by Local Authorities. No link was found between the number of meetings and the year of the CDP, population of county, or tourist arrivals to the region. However, in the case of the twenty seven meetings held in Meath, this did coincide with a bypass and re-zoning issues in the county.

Private meetings with experts or stakeholders are seen to be increasingly important for tourism planning in destinations that involve multiple stakeholders who are affected by tourism (Gartner, 1996; Williams et al., 1998; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2005). Analysis highlighted that some legal authority exists for Local Authorities to consult with stakeholders who have the relevant expertise and experience and this is referred to in the law in relation to oral submissions. Examination clearly

highlights that subsection 15 provides that when a planning authority is considering a draft plan, or any amendments to it, they may invite appropriate persons to make oral submissions. This provision is similar to that under section 11(3):(b) which permit the planning authorities to adopt an open and inclusive approach in making the plan. This affords the Local Authorities the legal right to include any experts in the field they feel should be included in the process such as Fáilte Ireland's environmental unit, for example. This can be seen as a powerful legal tool for Local Authorities and can aid the planning process in facilitating wider stakeholder involvement.

It is often difficult, costly and time consuming to involve a range of stakeholders in the tourism planning process even though this involvement may have enormous benefits for sustainability. In particular, participation by multiple stakeholders with varying and often conflicting interests can encourage more consideration for the associated social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues affecting sustainable development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993; De Araujo and Bramwell, 2000; Mason, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2005). Analysis here, however, highlighted that there is no legal provision regarding the detail or depth in relation to resources, time and cost to encourage stakeholder involvement in development plans. It is therefore up to each Local Authority to determine how much they want to empower the host community and stakeholders alike through active participation in planning for tourism.

#### **5.2.6 Manager's report on written submissions**

The legal process to be followed is very clearly set out by Law. The Planning and Development Act (2000) section-2 states:

“ that submissions or observations in respect of the proposal made to the planning authority during such period will be taken into consideration in deciding upon the proposal.(c) (i) Not later than 12 weeks after giving notice under paragraph (b), the manager of a planning authority shall prepare a report on any submissions or observations received pursuant to a notice under that paragraph and shall submit the report to the members of the planning authority for their consideration.(ii) A report under subparagraph (i) shall—(I) list the persons who made submissions or observations, (II) summarise the issues raised by the persons in the submissions or observations,(III) contain the opinion of the manager in relation to the issues raised, and his or her recommendations in relation to the proposed local area plan, amendment to a local area plan or revocation of a local area plan, as the case may be, taking account of the proper planning and sustainable development of the area, the statutory obligations of any local authority in the area and any relevant policies or objectives for the time being of the Government or of any Minister of the Government”.

Under this legislation, planning authorities are legally required to prepare a report on any submissions or observations received. This report must then be submitted to the members of the planning authority for their consideration. The report under the Act must contain set information to include, a list of persons who made submissions or observations, a summary of the issues raised, the opinions of the manager in relation to issues and recommendations into the CDP.

The latter must take into account proper planning and sustainable management of the area and should in effect reflect current national development policy, objectives, strategies, and legislation such as:

- New Horizons for Irish Tourism - An Agenda for Action (Fáilte Ireland, 2003);
- Tourism Development Strategy 2000–2006 (Bord Fáilte (BF), 2000);
- Tourism Product Development Scheme 2000-2006 (BF, 2000);
- Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland (DOE, 1997);
- Developing Sustainable Tourism: Development Plan (BF, 1994);
- Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites (BF, 1982);
- Government White Paper on Tourism Policy (1985);
- Irish Wildlife Acts (2000);
- Sustainable Energy Act, (2000).

The content analysis of CDPs reveals that this is not occurring (this will be addressed in chapter six). The compliance with the law in relation to the preparation of managers' reports is shown in Table 5.3. The case where a report was not made was due to the plan being developed pre the 2000 Act (e.g. County Monaghan 'MN').

**Table 5.3 Availability of managers reports on draft CDP**

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LB	L	Lc	MH	MD	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WB	WH	WX	W
Year of Development plan (DP)	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
Managers report available	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Managers report with detailed submissions linked to specific recommendations		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x				x	x	x			x	x			x			
Managers report on line					x	x	x	x		x		x		x			x									x			

The managers' reports and written submissions were found to play a significant role with regard to transparency and evidence of consultation in the planning process. All but two reports were made available for inspection, at the Local Authorities planning department, using a mix of CD rom and or e-planning portals connected to the Local Authorities planning websites.

### **5.3 THEME TWO- PROCESS OF CONSULTATION**

Theme two, within the framework, assessed if a specific participation model was used to facilitate host community involvement. It identified if an external facilitator was used and if the Local Authority had a particular mechanism in place for community consultation. The findings address a number of components: the number of public consultation meetings held, the time of the public meetings, presentations and exhibitions given, question and answer sessions facilitated, participatory workshops facilitated at public meetings, written submissions taken at meetings and individual clinic facilitation.

#### **5.3.1 Specific participation model used**

One of the outcomes of this thesis was to determine what form, method and or techniques of participation have been utilised in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland. The tourism planning literature highlights an increasing number of tools for facilitating community participation, to include public attitude surveys, stated preference surveys, contingent valuation method, Delphi technique and workshops (Mowforth and Munt, 1998: 219). Initially, the interviews with planners indicated that community participation, in the form of basic consultation in the development planning process, was firmly grounded at the local level. In fact, the forward planners indicated the more localised the planning process the more community involvement occurred. One planner commented:

“We find huge interest in local area plans compared with the wider county development plans, with maybe 120-150 people attending public meeting on local area plans and 45 people attending the meeting for the county development plan” (Planner 6).

More in-depth analysis revealed the absence of any particular model of community participation in use during the design stage of County Development Plans by Local Authorities (see Table 5.4).



Table 5.4 Specific participation model used

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of CDP	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
Specific participation model used by planners:																													

Despite the wide scale recognition of the value of the various tools available to facilitate participation (Delbecq and Van de Ven, 1971; Glass, 1979; Murphy, 1985; Simmons, 1994; Moscardo, Ross, 1996; Middleton and Hawkins, 1998; Pretty, 1999; Richards and Hall, 2000; Tosun, 2004; Murphy and Murphy, 2003), Local Authorities chose to ignore these models. This raises the question as to what form of method of participation, if any, was being deployed at Local Authority level across Ireland to facilitate host community involvement in planning for tourism.

### 5.3.2 External facilitator used for public participation

Only four Local Authorities employed the use of an external facilitator to run the public participation element of the public meetings (Table 5.5). In these cases the external facilitators were consultants who had worked with the planners before, during and after the public meetings, and ran a set programme of display and discussions followed by workshops on areas of interest to the public and facilitated submissions being taken on the day from the public meetings.

Table 5.5 Use of External facilitator for public participation process

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of CDP	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
External Facilitator used						x											x					x							

One external facilitator was found to have been employed to work with the councillors when presenting the submissions:

“We had an external facilitator come in and go through all the amendments with the councillors” (planner 2).

However, planners did indicate that if the budget permitted this could be used more often. The interesting theoretical perspective on this is that the majority of models and

tools to facilitate community participation put forward in academic literature (Murphy, 2000; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2005) require a competent facilitator. The use of external consultants to facilitate the public consultation meeting is currently not gaining much favor amongst Local Authorities in Ireland. This would infer that planners feel competent to facilitate these public consultation meetings, but would use external facilitators if the budget permitted.

### 5.3.3 Mechanisms in place for public meeting

Other mechanisms to facilitate host community participation at public meetings are demonstrated in Table 5.6. For the majority of Local Authorities, however, no documentation was available on the nature of these and it was not formally laid down by the Local Authorities. In general it seemed to be left fluid so they could adapt to any changing circumstances or issues that may arise.

Table 5.6 Mechanisms in place for public meeting

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MD	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W	
mechanism in place for consultation	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x			x				

Table 5.6 reveals if a process was in place for community participation which is clear and openly available which is the start of facilitating a process of procedures for facilitating empowered community-focused planning.

### 5.3.4 Number of public meetings

Content analysis of manager's reports and interviews with Local Authority planners were used to assess the level of participation according to the number of public meetings held. The number of meetings seems to vary between Local Authorities from one meeting to twenty seven public consultation meetings (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7 Number of public meetings

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MD	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of Development plan (DP)	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
Number of public meetings	7	5	6	14	6	10	4	1	7	6	0	5	na	5	4	5	5	27	10	1	4	4	4	4	6	na	na	5	

It is important here to put the number of public meetings in the context of the time span of the plans. This is the only time the Local Authorities consult with the host community in relation to the development plan across the six year period. Meetings were held in different electoral locations throughout the counties, resulting in members of the host community being given the chance to participate in a public meeting regarding the planning and development of their particular county. Spatial analysis would indicate that the population density of an area bore little reflection on the number of public meetings held. In fact, the number of meetings seemed to be high if a contentious issue arose. Meath, for example, had some issues over bypasses and recorded the highest level of public consultation meetings at twenty seven.

No relationship exists between high tourist arrivals in a destination county and the number of public meetings held. Mayo, for example, which has a low population and relatively low tourist arrivals had ten public consultation meetings. An interview with the planner of this Local Authority highlighted a number of reasons for this. First, there was a keen interest in meeting the requirements of the new planning act as this was one of the first CDPs to be made under the new legislation. Second, this was coupled with a continuous issue of one off housing. So the number of public consultation meetings, seem to be determined by external factors in the county rather than a set procedure, policy or formula that Local Authorities could follow. As for the timetabling and the location of public meetings, findings revealed that planners were very proactive in accommodating evening meetings with the general public.

With respect to participation theory, certainly at this stage of the analysis, there exists a clear indication that meaningful host community collaboration and partnerships are not strongly evident. The low number of public meetings would support the indication that a relatively low level of participation is occurring in relation to the models in theory. However, the detail of these meetings needs to be assessed from interviews with the forward planners in order to determine the actual level of participation achieved. It certainly indicates there is no possibility for reaching community self-planning or a high degree of citizen control (Arnstein, 1971; Pretty, 1995; and Tosun, 1999), as this is impossible to achieve in a two to three hour meeting with planners every six years. The collaboration process for tourism planning (Pine, 1984; Gray, 1989; Inskeep, 1991; Jamal and Getz, 1995; Reid and Mair, 2004; Murphy, 2004) and the participatory

ecotourism planning model by Bonnilla (1997) all require extensive time and resources with numerous meetings over a period of weeks in some cases.

### 5.3.5 Times of the meetings

Table 5.8 shows the times the public meetings were held. The planners in many cases, held morning and evening public meetings in order to facilitate the host communities' participation in the draft stages of the CDP. What was more interesting is that planners were not officially working in the evenings and sometimes have indicated that they were doing this work with little financial incentives with some mentioning possibly getting time off in lieu.

Table 5.8 Summary table of timing of public meetings

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Is	In	WD	WM	WX	W
Time of public meetings am-pm	p	na	a/p	a/p	p	a/p	a/p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	a/p	a/p	a/p	a/p	p	p	a/p	a/p	p	a/p	a/p	na	a/p	

a = afternoon; p = evening; a/p = both afternoon and evening sessions

In terms of levels of participation, this further reduces the possible levels of meaningful active participation reached, as meetings are relatively short (2-3 hours) and often planners are facilitating two meetings (a morning and an evening session) per day in the same location. This clearly reduces the ability for planners to facilitate community upward movement on normative typologies of community participation, moving from manipulation or passive participation to functional or interactive participation (Tosun, 2004).

### 5.3.6 Format and method of participation (tools used)

With no Local Authorities using a particular model of participation to facilitate host community involvement in planning, it was necessary to question the forward planners in detail on the format and methods used to engage with the public during the legally required public meetings. The qualitative analysis of interviews with planners, combined with the content analysis of the manager's reports, identified that the majority of planners used a general talk on the process and plan as the initial tool to facilitate

participation. Only half the Local Authorities used presentation and exhibitions as a method of consultation. According to one planner, these tools:

‘Allowed the public to visualise the proposed developments and their relationship with other factors within the community’ (Planner 16).

Only about a third of planners actually listened to the community and discussed issues with them, employing a question and answer session as a tool for public participation (see Table 5.9). Less than 20% of Local Authorities organised workshops to facilitate public participation. This is particularly disappointing as this tool is viewed to be extremely effective in encouraging proactive meaningful host community consultation (Richie, 1993; Getz and Jamal, 1994).

Individual clinic facilitation, while time consuming and costly, is relatively in use through out Ireland with a third of Local Authorities engaging in this process. The disparity between Local Authorities in terms of the format and tools used from one county to another seems quite high. For example, the host community members in Clare were exposed to all the tools identified in the research while the community in Carlow were simply given a talk.

Table 5.9 Format and method of consultation

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
General talk on process and draft plan.	x	na	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	na	x
Presentation/ exhibition given			x	x				x	x				x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x
Questions and answers session			x	x	x			x	x				x		x						x	x	x	x	x				
Individual clinic facilitation if requested by appointment only			x						x		x						x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x				x
Work shops at public meetings			x		x	x						x											x						
Written or oral submission taken at meetings				x	x				x		x				x			x											x

Geographic location of community submissions available in Appendix C.

In summary, the level of participation experienced by host communities during the

consultation stage of designing the CDP was as follows:

- 51% General talk and presentation/ exhibition
- 48% Did not facilitate community discussion
- 41% Questions and answers or workshops
- 37% General talk and questions and answers
- 37% General talk; individual clinic if requested by appointment only
- 34% General talk; presentation/exhibition and questions and answers
- 29% General talk on process and draft plan only
- 24% Written or oral submissions taken at public meetings
- 17% General talk and workshops
- 14% General talk; presentation; question and answers and workshops
- 7% Talk; presentation; questions and answers; individual clinic and workshops

Haywood (1988) argued that participants in a community participation process require a range of tools. This is clearly not happening across Ireland. The primary method of consultation was the general talk and presentation/exhibition, but as a tool it does not facilitate listening to the host community. In one case, a planner wanted to minimise participation to a listening exercise to save time:

“I prefer to call it a listening exercise, because the difficulty that we knew we would be facing if we did questions and answers, was you would be asked questions like why didn't you do that, and we would have spent the entire night trying to explain why that wasn't done during the previous development plan review. So we said look what's past is past now what do you want in the next one. Lets not waste time on fights over what wasn't done last time. We got 269 individual interventions” (planner 19).

This clearly reflects what Pretty (1995) refers to as passive participation or what Arnstein (1971) calls therapy, and Tosun (2004) described as tokenism. This approach to community participation was advocated by half of the Local Authorities. Of course it is important to realise community members could provide written submissions or lobby a county councillor, however in terms of the normative typologies of community participation this indicates a low level of passive participation (Pretty, 1995) or therapy (Arnstein, 1971) or coercive participation (Tosun, 1999).

Some planners strongly advocated more community participation, and tended to come from more participation-based planning backgrounds, having worked in the planning field outside of Ireland (e.g. South Africa, U.K.) These planners found it hard to encourage the movement towards open participation and had to push for it with their respective Local Authority. As the legislation is recent, many authorities were developing plans for the first time under the new legislation. This resulted in the



concept of participation being new to some Local Authorities and was in some cases seen as a delay or obstacle. One planner noted:

“Even the extent of public participation that we did, even that, was something I had to push for coming from the background I had come from, in another country where public participation and community participation would be much more to the fore. It was something quite new here and the whole attitude was the less people that are involved the better because they would be stumbling blocks along the way. So what little that we did do, I had to push for” (planner 7).

Again it seems obvious that the planner in this case was not supported in the process of facilitating host community participation and had to actively encourage the Local Authority to embrace the process. This lack of support only hinders planners in raising the level of host community participation and clearly makes it difficult for planners to achieve bottom-up active authentic participation (Tosun, 1999).

While forums and committees have been utilised in tourism planning in order to ensure a more full and open level of community participation in the planning process (Getz and Jamal, 1994; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Murphy, 2000), it was evident at the time of the research that only one Local Authority had facilitated and actively used the Community Forums set up by the County Development Boards. On closer analysis of this, it was apparent that this process of community participation proved useful as a guide to the process and the planner when questioned felt it was a worthwhile and successful process. One forward planner stated:

“What we used was the community forum set up by the CDB (County Development Boards). We were guided by them as to the timings and number of meetings. There were ten or eleven meetings, which they helped facilitate. It involved a presentation then they were divided into groups and they discussed and worked on identifying issues and suggestions on the way forward” (planner, 21).

A significant method employed by Local Authorities was to combine two tools, with a third of planners running presentations followed by a question and answer session. This seemed to be favoured by planners and could be easily run by one planner without a significant drain on resources or finances. It was clearly the most popular method of actively engaging the host community; as noted by the following statement:

“Meetings in which I gave a presentation for maybe an hour and then discussion for maybe two hours after that questions and answers from the floor were the norm” (planner 13).

The usefulness of this tool to planners for eliciting commentary and consideration by attendants who take part in the meetings from the community has gained some support (see Mowforth and Munt, 2003), as well as giving the community's official "stamp of approval" to the plan. This method allows participation by the public, but because it only occurs once every six years for a few hours at an early stage in the planning process, it is open to be characterized as tokenistic (Arnstein, 1971; Pretty, 1995 and Tosun, 2004).

The limited nature of public meetings have been criticised as not being the best method for gathering the public's opinions, for establishing plan goals and objectives, or choosing various alternatives (Simons, 1994; Yuksel et al., 1999; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Gunn, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2005). Therefore, while the public meeting may be a useful tool to facilitate community participation, the propensity of this tool to facilitate meaningful open inclusive participation is limited and this is highlighted when the process followed in the public meeting is placed against the typologies of community participation (Arnstein, 1971; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 2004).

However, the public meeting which involves a presentation followed by a question and answer session clearly ranks higher up Arnstein's (1971) ladder of participation from therapy through informing to actual consultation. But this still represents what is referred to by Tosun (1999) as-top down, passive formal pseudo-participation, with Pretty (1995) clearly identifying this as participation by consultation which again ranks quite low on the available levels of the normative typologies of community participation.

The norm for host community participation in the making of CDPs in Ireland is therefore considered to be at a level of pseudo-participation (Tosun, 1999). This is generally characterised as being top-down and a passive form of participation, which utilises mainly indirect formal forms of participation with limited alternatives or choice, and a high degree of tokenism.

The ability of the workshop to facilitate more open meaningful participation than that of public meetings has been highlighted by many scholars (Getz and Jamal, 1994; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Murphy, 2000) and so it is discouraging to find that less than 20% of Local Authority planners utilised such a method during the public consultation

process. The following quote highlights the presence of multiple tools being employed to facilitate participation:

“There was a presentation that was running on a loop and there were staff with maps so people could talk to them and explain to them, we had questions and answers and we also done workshops” (planner 7).

The detail of the qualitative interview with planner 18 outlined below, identified an advanced form of workshop, which is reminiscent of the models identified in the theory from Bonnilla’s (1997) participatory ecotourism planning model and elements of collaboration, partnerships and roundtables (Getz and Jamal, 1994; Bramwell and Lane 2000; Murphy, 2000).

“We had a short introduction, I would talk, I would tell them what the purpose of the evening was. I’d sit them down I’d explain the process of the plan tell them what they were doing there that night what we expected of them. You know some of them thought they had come along for entertainment some of them didn’t like the idea of having to sit down and work and think. Most people I’d say about 90% said this is interesting and got involved in this you know.

At the end of the day we had seven or eight tables depending on the size of the building we were in. They could have anything up to nine or ten people, they would drift in and out and we gave them an agenda, subject areas to go down, so it could be industry, employment, housing, tourism, transportation and local issues. And we would get them to concentrate their minds for ten minutes per topic, write down notes, so they have to nominate a scribe to take notes. Nominate a spokesperson to stand up at the end and say exactly what that group thought at the end of the whole process.

We asked them for their notes and also took notes. Then we put all that together and as a sort of addendum to the managers report synthesised all that input to say what we thought the public said for these meetings” (planner 18).

It is clear that these two Local Authorities are embracing a significant level of host community participation during the public meeting. However it also highlights the complete disparity spatially in community participation across Ireland.

#### **5.4 THEME THREE- SUBMISSIONS**

Theme three was examined through a content analysis of the submissions directly relating to tourism. The manager’s reports were also analysed in order to determine the number of recommendations made by the forward planners. These findings were then compared and contrasted on a national level between counties in terms of tourist arrivals to the region.

Prior to this research no previous data existed to establish a baseline on previous tourism submissions. Therefore, the findings presented here are considered significant in relation to tourism planning research that relates to Ireland. Nationwide content analysis of all available written submissions is summarised in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Written and oral submissions.

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W	
Number of written submissions *	*	76	*	1830 900	150	295 400	1003 1834	111 45	230 37	720	300 400	119	*	64 320	23	35 23 6	82 3	1750	65	*	67	131	229	25	*	280	*	*	107 286	
Number of submission directly relating to tourism		4		48		3	4	5	6	5				0		0	3					3		9						19
Number of recommendations relating to tourism		2		9		1	2	1	4	2				3			2						4			1				12
Managers report available		x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x			x	
Tourist numbers expressed as a regional % of overall national arrivals	10%	7.3%	9.7%	18%	7.3%	29%	29%	14%	18%	12%	10%	12%	7.3%	9.7%	9.7%	9.7%	12%	12%	12%	14%	9.7%	14%	7.3%	10%	9.7%	10%	12%	10%	12%	

\* not available at time of research ; number of submissions on three levels, indicates the different rounds of submissions first draft, second draft, third draft if needed. Geographic location of community submissions available in Appendix C.

A quarter of Local Authorities did not have the managers' reports with submissions available to the public at the time this research was conducted. Of the remaining Local Authorities, the summary of analysis for the period 1999-2005 were:

- 11,972 written submissions were made for the 22 plans assessed (1999-2005)
- 69% draft plans had no submissions relating to tourism
- 114 written submissions related to tourism in all 22 plans assessed
- 0.95% of total submissions related to tourism
- 62 tourism recommendations were made in all 22 manager's reports assessed
- 76% of plans had no recommendation relating to tourism in manager's reports

The spatial distribution of written submissions seems to link directly with the population density of the counties. Counties like Fingal and Cork received over a thousand submissions due to their high population density. An alarming finding concerns the number of submissions directly relating to tourism which was significantly low in the five year period (1999-2005). County Development Plans had a total of 11,972 written submissions, of which only 114 or 0.95% related to tourism indicating

an average of nine submissions per county, which establishes an incredibly low base rate for future plans.

The most significant finding is that well over half (69%) of the Local Authorities received no written submissions relating to tourism. This seemed to directly link with the very low number of specific tourism recommendations made by the forward planners in the managers' reports. Furthermore, there seemed to be no connection between the number of submissions and the reliance of the area on tourism or its number of tourism arrivals and associated tourism development. It is very clear from this first baseline study that host community participation, with respect to sustainable planning for tourism, is extremely limited. As stated by Shuttles (1970) 'limited liability' can be experienced because participation in the community is a voluntary choice. Most people will participate in organisations and political interest groups, but some will not be active unless their particular space or territory is threatened. Participation may simultaneously veil and legitimise existing structures of power with participation not working. Because it has been promoted by the powerful, it is largely cosmetic, used as a "hegemonic" device to secure compliance to, and controlled by existing power structures (Tailors, 2001).

While the Local Authorities in Ireland attempt to advocate one of the principles of sustainable planning for tourism, namely 'host community participation', the host community does not seem to actively engage in the process. It is not evident if these low levels of participation are due to complete contentment by the host community with how tourism is planned or because 'limited liability' is being experienced as participation in the community is viewed as a voluntary choice. This warrants further research on the level of host community satisfaction with planning for tourism and is an issue taken up in the concluding chapter of the thesis.

## **5.5 THEME FOUR- DRAFT PLAN**

This section of the framework examined those aspects of the draft plan to include preparation and exposure to the host community and prescribed bodies. In particular, it determined the nature of alterations to the draft plan focusing on county councillors, tourism agencies, County Development Boards (CDB) and County Tourism Committees (CTC) impact on the alteration of the plan and the second managers report on relevant submissions from community, stakeholders or prescribed bodies.

### 5.5.1 Inspection copy of draft plan made available

This research identified that the DOE guidelines (2001) are clear in that, once given direction from the members, the manager has:

“Three months to prepare a draft development plan and submit it to the members who must then consider it. Once submitted, the elected members have two months to amend the plan. Otherwise, the plan as submitted by the manager is deemed to be the draft development plan by virtue of” (DOE, 2001).

This indicates that the host community are again generally further afforded an indirect method of participation by the Local Authority in this process, whereby they can inspect the draft plan and lobby elected members (County Councillors) to make changes. It is important to note that almost all Local Authorities have made the draft plan available for review by the host community. In addition, some host community members are afforded an additional notification in relation to tourism attractions to include archaeological monuments and listed buildings. Under subsection 3 it states that:

“Where the draft plan proposes any addition or deletion from the record of protected structures the owner and the occupier of the structure must be notified” (DOE, 2001).

This is an invaluable safeguard to host community members concerned about important heritage tourism assets who may have not seen the initial communication of the plan in the local press. The content analysis and interviews with the planners indicated that once the draft development plan is prepared, the DOE require the planning authority to send a copy of the notice and draft plan to:

- The minister;
- The board;
- The prescribed authorities;
- Any town commissioners within the area;
- Any city or county development board in the area.

The research concurs that Local Authorities forward planning departments have embraced this process and do notify a wide range of organisations often from a standard list to include: Fáilte Ireland, Heritage Service, OPW (Office of Public Works), Inland Waterways Ireland, National Parks and Wildlife Service, County Development Boards (CDB) and County Tourism Committees (CTC). In specific relation to tourism planning, it is at this time that major public and private tourism organisations are given their first opportunity to consult with the Local Authorities. Important strategic



directions could be inputted at this stage with, examples of guidelines and strategies to include:

- New Horizons for Irish Tourism - An Agenda for Action (Fáilte Ireland, 2003);
- Tourism Development Strategy, 2000–2006 (Bord Fáilte, 2000);
- Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland (DOE, 1997);
- Developing Sustainable Tourism: Development Plan (BF, 1994);
- Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites (Bord Fáilte, 1982);
- Government White Paper on Tourism Policy (1985).

The content analysis of the Local Authorities Development Plans revealed that tourism-related organisations have not been fully embracing the strategic direction the plans follow. Manager reports on submissions noted these organisations rarely made submissions regarding tourism planning. This worrying absence of relevant authority's strategies to embrace the sustainable development of tourism is discussed in chapter six.

### 5.5.2 Alteration of the Draft Plan

Research revealed that the next stage of the planning process incorporated considerable indirect community participation in the planning process. The DOE (2001) states that where an amendment under this subsection would be a material alteration of the draft plan, notice of the proposed amendment shall be published in the media. This is detailed in subsection (7):

Which provides that where a proposed amendment (*made by resolution under subsection (6)*) constitutes a material alteration of the draft plan, notice of the proposed amendment shall be published in one or more newspapers circulating in the area within 3 weeks of the resolution being made.

Under paragraph (b) the notice shall state that:

- a copy of the proposed amendment of the draft plan can be inspected at a specified time and place for a period of not less than 4 weeks;
- written submissions made within the stated period will be considered before the amendment is made (DOE, 2000).

Findings revealed a significant degree of alteration to the plan from the elected members. In particular, the County Councillors made significant alterations to the plan and in some cases have totally reshaped the plan (see Table 5.11).

Table 5.11 County Councillors, CDB's and CTC's impacts on tourism plans

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MD	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
County Councillors had significant impact on plan		na	x	x	x			x	x				x			x		x	x	x	x		x		x	x		na	x
CDB submissions and impact on tourism component of plan																													
CTC submissions and impact on tourism component of plan																													

Half of the planners interviewed felt that the county councillors had a significant impact on the plan. According to one planner:

“The draft plan was massively shaped by County Councillors; certainly most of the changes made were made on foot of submissions” (planner 7).

This would also infer that County councillors were being lobbied in relation to various submissions from the host community and from industry. A number of forward planners felt that the changes were not solely based on submissions and County Councillors but were in fact addressing their own issues and not that of the wider planning issues within the county. One planner put it this way:

“What we put up to the county councillors they changed things. They had a big impact, they seemed to be addressing their own issues rather than the wider planning issues in hand” (planner 22).

The above opinion highlights the transfer of power from the forward planners and possibly the host community to the Councillors who have significant influence on the planning process and outcomes at this stage. However, this does represent a shift in power and a move away from the traditional planners top-down approach, as the County Councillors are elected by the community. Therefore, this could be argued as a planning approach which has handed the power to alter the plan directly to the elected community County Councillors and would appear to be facilitating a more bottom-up approach representing a move towards a larger degree of citizen control. This was made very obvious by one planner who stressed:

“It was reshaped by the County Councillors significant impact. It’s a democracy isn’t it. What I consider negative the public might consider it positive. So I mean in a democratic sense it was positive” (planner 13).

It is therefore obvious that the democratic process was affording County Councillors a significant opportunity to participate in the plan formation at this stage. With these Councillors being elected by the host community, it is obvious that this represents another tier of indirect participation afforded to host communities. However, when the forward planners were asked about this transfer of power they had some very significant concerns:

“It comes back to where should the power or ultimate responsibility rest. I don’t in theory have any problem myself with the elected representatives being responsible for that kind of thing. My concern would be the transparency of how that happens and if the decisions that are made are clear and transparent and people can contest them if they want to. At least understand why those decisions were made. I think every member of the public would be a lot happier with the outcomes than things going disappearing and then coming out different (planner 4)

Does that happen? (researcher)

It does yeah unfortunately” (planner 4).

It is apparent that the above planner feels a need for more openness and transparency in this process, including the facility for the public to contest the decisions made by the elected members if they so wish. This clearly highlights a limitation or weakness in the process as transparency and openness in decision-making during the planning process, is essential and is supported in the wider literature (Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Bramwell and Lane, 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2000; Richards and Hall, 2002). Furthermore this lack of transparency also indicates the loss of control or power from the community to the County Councillors. As the host community cannot contest decisions or determine if the decisions made are clear and transparent, it represents a loss of citizen control or power. Thus the level of participation would seem to revert back to what Tosun (2004) referred to as pseudo-participation.

This shift in the level of participation is supported by the county councillors’ lack of education and understanding of the basic philosophy behind planning. The following

quote illustrates this well:

“I think there is a great need for county councillors to have some sort of understanding of what the philosophy behind planning is and what it’s trying to achieve and the larger strategic spatial strategy. It’s a large responsibility county councillors have” (planner 18).

This finding was widespread throughout the analysis of the interviews with planners, who clearly expressed a need for transparency and education for councillors in the wider view of the planning process. In one case a planner clearly felt there was too much consultation:

“My own view is we have had an over dose of democracy in terms of public consultation. While everyone can have an opinion on any particular issue per item there can only be one decision” (planner 7).

Furthermore, planners with international experience could see potential issues arising with the process in Ireland and the transfer of power to the county councillors:

“We came from a background of where planning was used as such as a tool of apartheid. I think really it was working out planning and politics shouldn’t be mixed. And that is still my attitude. You can still do it and still keep it within a democratic process” (planner 27).

This planner was involved in an extensive public consultation process with the host community when making the development plan and felt very strongly that planning and politics should not be mixed. Furthermore, this planner stressed that councillors had a prerogative to change the planners recommendations on contentious issues such as rezoning which in turn had negative impact on the plan. He states the following:

There was a number of rezoning requests that as planners we wouldn’t have been recommending but as councillors they had the prerogative to change these. This has negatively impacted on the development (planner 27).

While this opinion was not widely held amongst planners, it must be stressed that some planners were adamant that the involvement of county councillors had a negative impact on the finished plan. The need for county councillors to be educated in the basic philosophy of planning in order to understand the wider ramifications of their actions in a larger strategic spatial context was a concurrent theme reiterated by planners within the analysis.

The impact of submissions from County Development Boards (CDB) and County Tourism Committees (CTC) on the tourism component of County Development Plans were also examined. The importance for tourism planning in destinations to involve multiple stakeholders affected by tourism, including environmental groups, business interests, public authorities and community groups is well established thinking (Gartner 1996; Williams et al., 1998; Bramwell and Lane 2000; Murphy and Murphy, 2005). The recently formed CDB and CTC comprise multiple stakeholders.

However, there was no evidence of submissions that impacted on the alteration of the draft plan from the CDBs or the CTCs (see Table 5.11). While the theory suggests it is often difficult, costly and time consuming to involve a range of stakeholders in the tourism planning process, this involvement may have enormous benefits for sustainability. In particular, participation by multiple stakeholders with varying interests and sometimes conflicting perspectives might encourage more consideration for the associated social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues affecting sustainable development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993; De Araujo and Bramwell, 2000; Mason, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2005).

The complete absence of submissions may be due to the fact that the CDB and CTC are bodies that have been only recently set up within the structure of Irish tourism. Also, they generally have been concerned with the promotion and marketing of the destination rather than managing the social and environmental impacts. However, considering the poor depth and detail of tourism planning (to be discussed in chapter six) it is somewhat not reassuring to note that these tourism organisations have not made submissions which would impact on the quality of the plans to date. It is assumed due to the recent formation of these organisations that they have not had the opportunity to make submissions to date and this represents an area of research which will have to be addressed in terms of longitudinal analysis in the future. Bonnilla (1997) and Timothy (1998) argue that participation in tourism planning by many stakeholders can help promote sustainable development by increasing respect for the environment, harmony and equality. Therefore, it is important to stress that these organisations need to be managed by the planners in the process of designing the tourism component of the CDPs, in order to facilitate greater stakeholder involvement.

## 5.6 THEME FIVE- E- PLANNING

Theme five of the framework highlighted electronic planning (E-planning) as an emergent tool to afford the host community greater accessibility to the draft plans, submissions and managers reports. E-planning has huge potential to improve public participatory processes for Local Authorities. According to Kingston (2005) as it increases access and instantly communicates the plan to the majority of the host community and has huge potential to improve public participatory processes.

Table 5.12 E-planning

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	EK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MO	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of Development plan (DP)	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
E planning-Plans available on line	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Receive submission from community online					x	x		x	x			x		x				x	x		x	x				x	x		x
View submission on line				x		x	x																			x			
Managers report on line	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x		x		x	x	x		x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x

Slightly less than half of the Local Authorities have set up mechanisms to receive submissions on line. 68% of the manager reports were available on-line (see Table 5.12) by the Local Authorities. However, only 13% of Local Authorities had managed to put the submissions on line, which is disappointing as this would have afforded a greater degree of transparency for the whole process. In a number of Local Authorities, subject searches and links to direct policy have been established. This may be viewed as a very effective means of facilitating transparency and promoting better communication with the host community. These findings seem to support Kingston (2005: 17) who states while e-planning has huge potential to improve public participatory processes it is not yet being realised, argues the focus so far has been all about publishing and disseminating the plans, albeit with the ability to make on-line comments but not about deliberative participation.

## 5.7 THEME SIX- TRAINING AND SUPPORT FOR CONSULTATION

The developed framework also incorporated the assessment of training and support available to planners responsible for facilitating the planning process. In particular it



assessed external and in-house training for planners on public consultation, the level of support literature and guides on the consultation process available to planners and the available resources (Human Resource, Finance, Time) Local Authorities provided for running the consultation process.

Table 5.13 Training and support for consultation

Participation analysis tool	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	SD	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	LD	L	Lc	MH	MD	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of Development plan	03	03	05	03	05	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	03	03	04	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
External training for public consultation												x																	
In house training for public consultation				x																									x
Were the available resources for public consultation a limitation				x				x					x	x			x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x
Available support literature/ guides for public consultation			x	x	x				x								x	x	x			x	x				X		x

Since the introduction of the new Act (Planning and Development Act, 2000) which legally requires public consultation, there has been minimal Local Authority training for planners in facilitating public consultation. Few of the planners interviewed had engaged in staff training or facilitations for participation at public meetings. Only one Local Authority employed an external facilitator to conduct training for the staff involved in holding public meetings.

“No special formal training, most personnel were professional planners who would have had studied public consultation etc as well as attended IPI courses where other professionals would exchange their views/experiences of different models” (planner 8).

It is evident from the research findings (see Table 5.13) that there is little training both in-house or external for public consultation. When planners were asked about training there was a general consensus that there was no need for training. This is very evident from the above quote, and also indicates that planners feel competent and well trained in this area.

This is an interesting observation given the low number of Local Authorities that used question and answer sessions or offered workshops (see section 5.3.6). It would seem then that planners may not be aware of the in-depth and community centred approaches which could be implemented to facilitate participation during the planning process.

Therefore, a specific series of workshops on facilitating community participation would prove beneficial.

A significant finding which emerged from interviews with planners is the wider issue of DOE support literature on the public meeting phase of the development plan. Only 37% of Local Authority planners had received such literature. But planners seemed mixed about the need for such literature as the following quotes reveal:

“No support literature on public meetings from any agency” (planner 13).

“No literature, we would have got on grand without them the department would look to us when drawing up their guidelines” (planner 7).

“No literature because we already had that information ourselves, I think from local area plans. No guidelines from DOE, but we did have a close linkage with our counterparts in the DOE, they have a regional structure and they came up to speak with us right at the start. Before we started the plan, we had a whole team from DOE who came up to talk to us and I have been in contact with their planning” (planner 18).

The DOE provides a pre-planning visit and information back up in some areas. However, this was not the case with all Local Authorities with some planners requesting

information which was not forthcoming, again indicating disparity:

“Nothing and I phoned a number of times requesting information but received nothing” (planner 29).

The research uncovered a degree of inconsistency in support from the DOE and a lack of support literature regarding the public meeting stage of the Development Plan. If Local Authorities throughout Ireland are to embrace in meaningful host community participation, the DOE needs to provide specific guidelines and support literature for all Local Authorities.

## **5.8 THEME SEVEN- COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AT HIGHER LEVELS**

The final element of the framework examined the level of community participation at regional, national and European levels. This allows the researcher to give a bottom-up assessment of participation, assessing levels of community involvement from the local plan through to the scale of the EU.

### 5.8.1 Community Participation in Planning at Regional level

Across Ireland there are eight Regional Authorities (RAs) who prepare regional planning guidelines and review the development plans of Local Authorities and, like the Local Authorities, they have a legal obligation to consult the public when making regional planning guidelines. The legal obligation of the RAs has been highlighted in implementing the National Spatial Strategy (2004). The strategy states that regional planning guidelines provide a strategic planning framework for the development of the region and its constituent areas at the county, city and local levels. It is important, therefore, that every opportunity is taken to ensure both public awareness of the process of preparing regional guidelines and to demonstrate responsiveness in that process to the views of the general public:

Formal interaction with the public is required at two stages:

(1) A formal notice to be published pursuant to section 24(1) of the Act specifying the matters to be considered in the guidelines and inviting submissions.

(2) A formal notice to be published pursuant to section 24(4) of the Act outlining that the draft of the regional planning guidelines have been made, specifying where the draft guidelines can be obtained or viewed and inviting submissions on the draft.

Planning and Development

(Regional Planning Guidelines Regulations, 2003).

These legal requirements are basic in nature and do not reflect existing models or tools available to encourage meaningful community participation. Rather, they require a formal notice to be published in the media inviting submissions, which is characteristic of the previously discussed Planning and Development Act of 2000. The process of public consultation is therefore characteristic of top-down, passive formal community participation as illustrated by Tosun (2004). However, the guidelines also state:

“In addition to the above, every effort should be made to facilitate public input into the process on the broadest basis practicable, bearing in mind the need to strike a balance between the time available and taking an inclusive approach to all groups or individuals who have a contribution to make. Facilitating such inputs may involve interactive websites containing information sheets and copies of position papers and structured interaction with key bodies such as the County and City Development Boards, state agencies and the social partners”  
DOE, Preparing Regional Planning Guidelines Regulations, (2003).

A high level of community participation seems to be endorsed here with the guidelines stressing “that every effort should be made to facilitate input into the process on the broadest basis practicable”. There is however no legal obligation to do this and the guidelines suggest that facilitating such inputs may involve interactive websites,

information sheets and structured interaction. The use of participation tools to facilitate bottom-up active participation in joint decision-making are not actively endorsed here. It seems that the characteristics of the participation endorsed at this stage are again typical of pseudo-participation (Tosun, 2004) or a high degree of citizen tokenism (Arnstein, 1971). However the RAs seem to be under the impression that what they are conducting constitutes extensive consultation:

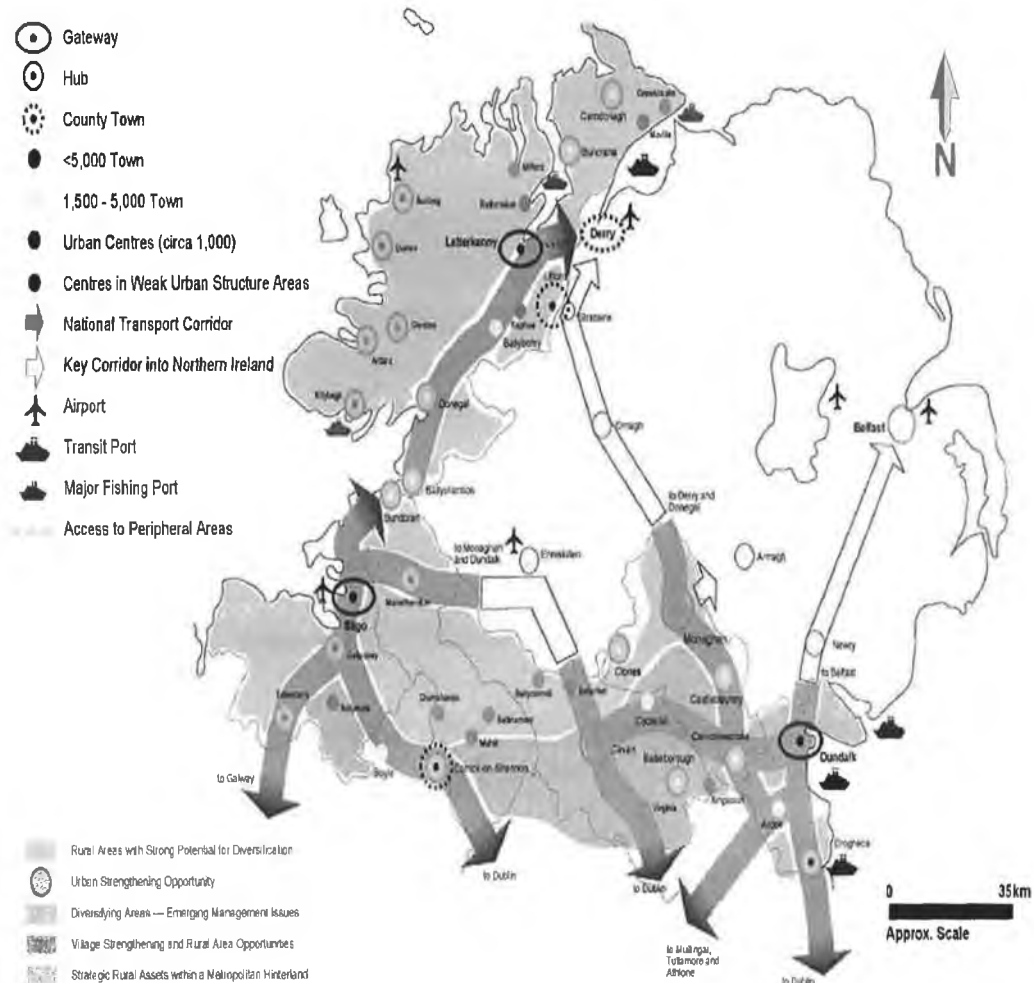
“following wide consultation, with a view to reaching consensus with every effort being made to facilitate input into the process on the broadest basis practicable” DOE, Preparing Regional Planning Guidelines Regulations (2003).

A number of RAs stated they followed wide consultation with a view to seeking consensus. For example, the 2004 Border Regional Authority planning guidelines stated:

“The production of the Guidelines was undertaken following wide consultation, with a view to reaching consensus. A set of Strategic Goals and Research Papers addressing all of the issues which were identified, were produced. Written Submissions were invited in relation to the issues identified. Those making submissions were requested to raise any other issues which they considered relevant. A Directors Report, setting out recommendations, was prepared. Taking all submissions and research into account, and the recommendations in the Directors Report, Draft Guidelines were prepared, placed on public display, and a further round of public consultation followed. Written Submissions were again invited, and having considered all of the submissions and the observations of the public consultation process, a Directors Report was prepared in response to comments on the Draft Guidelines.” Border Regional Authority 2004.

Based on an analysis of interviews and content analysis, a total of 92 submissions were made in relation to the consultation on the above guidelines, for a region that involves seven counties (see Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2 Regional Authority responsible for Border Region



Source: (RA-Border Region 2007)

Of these 92 submissions only four were made by individual members of the community, (see Appendix B). In addition to this, only six county councillors made submissions on behalf of the community members they represent and these county councillors would have been actively encouraged to participate.

Only one submission was made on behalf of a county forum, indicative of low participation rates. These levels of participation at the regional planning level would indicate the presence of all the characteristics Tosun (2004) referred to as top-down pseudo-participation in the typology of community participation. The process however did attract a high level of stakeholder, government and NGO involvement (see Appendix B), but the extent to which tourism organisations were involved was considerably low. The following tourism agencies were not recorded in submissions:



- Fáilte Ireland (the National Tourism Development Authority);
- Regional Tourism Authority (RTA);
- Irish Tourism Industry Confederation (ITIC).

One can only assume then that the regional planning guidelines were of a standard that did not require a submission or alternatively these agencies simply did not participate. On analysis it was found that the Border Regional Planning Authority (BRPA) planning guidelines, in relation to tourism, were extremely basic and did not even mention sustainable planning for tourism. While tourism was mentioned 78 times and one section (7:3) was totally dedicated to tourism, the guidelines were not in essence capable of promoting proactive sustainable planning for tourism development for the region, as the excerpt in Figure 5.3 shows.

Figure 5.3 Regional Planning guidelines for the Border region 2004

Expenditure by tourists is significant and supports employment across the Country. As it is location specific it, therefore, is a key factor in regional development. This is particularly true for the Border Region which has a number of established tourist areas. The Region has areas that are developing their tourist potential while other areas remain undeveloped. As a resource it is, therefore, key to the economic development of the Region and a number of factors will drive its potential.

These include:

- The resource base: natural resources, entertainment and shopping facilities;
- Access: international and local and access to information;
- Visitor preferences.

The Border Region is rich in natural resources such as topography, significant landscapes, indigenous heritage and culture and its resource base, therefore, has the capability of being developed significantly. However, facilities and access are undeveloped in many areas. Specific spatial responses are therefore needed to exploit the tourism potential of a resource whilst ensuring that its natural assets are protected in a manner which is sustainable.

The promotion of “off season” activity will be the key to spreading the benefits from the bottlenecks in established tourist areas. In developing areas the augmentation of capacity will be important and in undeveloped tourist areas the building of niches or specialist tourism will provide important opportunities.

Source: Border Regional Planning Authority 2004.

The Regional Authority guidelines failed to address the need to mention the majority of issues and recommendations which are dealt with in the specific sustainable development guidelines for tourism as developed by the DOE and Fáilte Ireland in the following:



- Tourism Development Strategy 2000–2006 (Bord Fáilte, 2000);
- Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland (DOE, 1997);
- Developing Sustainable Tourism: Development Plan (Bord Failte, 1994);
- Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites (Bord Fáilte, 1982);
- Government White Paper on Tourism Policy (1985).

The above dealt with issues such as managing the negative environmental, social or economic impacts of tourism in the region and the need to address issues such as, holiday homes, zoning, infrastructure developments, signage, biodiversity and tourism which are all relatively absent from the BRPA tourism guidelines (Figure 5.3). It is obvious that without submissions received from the agencies that developed the above strategies regional plans were not conducted with what the DOE, Regional Planning Guidelines (2003) constitutes as:

“Wide consultation, with a view to reaching consensus with every effort being made to facilitate input into the process on the broadest basis practicable” DOE, Preparing Regional Planning Guidelines (2003).

At this regional level there is a need for more education and training for RA planners to advocate the participation mechanisms which will facilitate more informed regional plans to be developed. It would appear on the surface that the RAs proactively engage in a wide spectrum of consultation when drawing up the regional planning guidelines. However the legal duty to do so is reduced to the act of informing the public and making provision to take submissions. The example of the BRPA highlighted that there is a long way to go in relation to providing guidelines for sustainable planning for tourism and encouraging meaningful bottom-up community participation in sustainable tourism planning within the region.

### **5.8.2 Community Participation in Planning at the National Level**

The government agency responsible for tourism is the ‘Department of Arts, Sport and Tourism’. The Department was formed in June 2002 and its mission is:

“to contribute to the economic, social and cultural progress of Irish society and the enrichment of its quality of life through promoting sustainable tourism; encouraging excellence in sporting and artistic achievement; facilitating greater access to sport and the arts; and preservation of our cultural inheritance” (D.A.S.T., 2002).

It is evident from this mission statement that the Irish government not only advocates sustainable tourism but that this industry should enrich the quality of life of Irish society. One may deduce that central to this would be the inclusion of society in the planning process for tourism. In regard to community participation, DAST relies on the elected representatives of the people, the minister, high level steering groups, consultancy and consultation with industry, as the following statement asserts:

“In November 2002, the Minister initiated a major review of tourism policy, with a view to identifying the key determinants of both an industry and Government-led strategy for the future sustainable development of tourism in Ireland. The review is being led by the Department, and overseen by a High Level Steering Group, with the help of external specialist consultancy advice, and in consultation with the tourism industry” (DAST, 2002 :17).

An assessment of the action of DAST found that the Department also highlighted greater participation and partnership as an external factor that was likely to shape its activities in 2002:

“Among the external factors which are likely to shape the Department's activities over the next three years are: expectations from the public for higher standards of service, delivered close to the customer, greater participation and partnership in decision making structures and openness, transparency and accountability in service delivery” (DAST, 2002 :14).

DAST does not have in place guidelines to ensure greater participation and partnership in decision-making. However, the DAST has been found to actively encourage greater participation and partnership in practice on at least one occasion. This occurred with respect to the New Horizons for Irish Tourism (2003). The tourism policy review group followed two lines of community participation in relation to tourism planning. These were as follows:

- Written submissions
- Open Public forum

In February 2003 they invited interested parties to write in and express their views on the long-term strategic development of tourism in Ireland. All of the submissions received by e-mail were posted to the DAST website so participants could view them online or download the submissions.

There was a relatively low response rate of only 89 submissions for the whole country with the submissions themed; access, equality, marketing, multi-themed, product, accommodation, car rental, niche, rural tourism, youth tourism, general, public transport, regional tourism and training. This low response rate seems to match with the levels encountered in the findings on community participation at the local level.

The Tourism Policy Review Group invited interested parties, wishing to express their views on the long-term strategic development of tourism in Ireland, to attend an all-day Open Public Forum. The programme for the day, and the online registration form, were available on the website. The Forum covered four themes:

- Marketing and Access;
- Tourism Product and People in Tourism;
- Value for Money and Competitiveness;
- Sustainable Tourism and Regional Development.

DAST ensured promotion of the forum through invitations which were pre-advertised in the national press in both Irish and English. Each session had a panel of review group members and they employed a facilitator. The activities of the tourism policy review group on behalf of the Department clearly show a commitment to a greater participation and partnership in government policy regarding tourism. It seems from this analysis that the government department engaged in a number of tools to encourage community participation in this instance, to include media notification, e-planning, the use of an e-portal, and a public forum to submit opinions on the draft document and thereby set a good example for Local Authorities and Regional Authorities alike.

The government continues to reaffirm its position regarding sustainable development and supports this with sensitive development and environmental best practice. For instance:

The Programme for Government 2002 provides the framework for management of the sectoral issues falling within the Department's remit including; Tourism – to broaden our source markets, foster expansion and competition on access routes; support Tourism Ireland Ltd. in promoting the whole island of Ireland as a destination; the sensitive development of tourist areas and environmental best practice (DAST, 2002, p13).

This overall assessment must therefore stress that DAST is indirectly supportive of two significant areas within this research. Firstly, they advocate community participation in tourism planning through greater participation and partnership in decision making structures. Secondly, the whole area of sustainable tourism planning is supported

through its mission to contribute to the economic, social and cultural progress of Irish society and the enrichment of its quality of life through promoting sustainable tourism. This in turn was supported within the Programme for Government 2002 which provided the framework for management including sensitive development and environmental best practice. The Department's involvement in the National Development Plan also impacts on planning for sustainable tourism. DAST sees itself as "Facilitating the continued development by the tourism industry of an economic and environmentally sustainable and spatially balanced tourism sector, through formulating, monitoring and reviewing a range of supporting policies and programmes, particularly within the framework of the National Development Plan and North/South Co-operation" (<http://www.arts-sport-tourism.gov.ie>:accessed on 8/3/2007).

### **5.8.3 The Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government**

The Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government (DOE) has a key role in improving the quality of the life of the people in Ireland. Their mission statement is:

"To promote sustainable development and improve the quality of life through protection of the environment and heritage, infrastructure provision, balanced regional development and good local government" (DOE, 2003).

Policy of the DOE has direct bearing on this research in a number of key areas. For instance the policy commitment to the environment is well reflected in a range of documents, including the following: Making Ireland's Development Sustainable and Sustainable Development: A Strategy for Ireland, (1997). The DOE believes Ireland has a modern body of environmental legislation but this needs regular updating, particularly in line with EU Directives. It is also responsible for regional development and good local government, and this is a significant focal point of the research concerning County Development Plans.

There was however no evidence of nationwide public participation in the formulation of DOE plans as has been seen with the DAST public forum. Furthermore, a significant area which has emerged from an analysis of the interviews with the forward planners and been previously addressed, is the whole area of DOE support literature on the public meeting phase of the development plan, an area the Department is lacking.

#### 5.8.4 National Tourism Development Authority – FÁILTE IRELAND

Fáilte Ireland, the National Tourism Development Authority for Ireland, was established under the National Tourism Development Authority Act, 2003. This Act brought together and built on the functions previously discharged by Bord Fáilte and CERT.

The organisation provides strategic and practical support to develop and sustain Ireland as a high-quality and competitive tourist destination and Fáilte Ireland's mission is;

"To increase the contribution of tourism to the economy by facilitating the development of a competitive and profitable tourism industry" (Fáilte Ireland 2005).

Fáilte Ireland works in strategic partnership with tourism interests to support the industry in its efforts to be more competitive and more profitable and to help individual enterprises to enhance their performance. They see their key role as:

"Support and help the industry to meet the challenges facing the entire global tourism market and to sustain, or increase, the level of activity in the sector. We primarily are a catalyst of other people's activity. We support the industry in its efforts to be more competitive and more profitable. As the State's tourism development authority, we are well placed to address some of the broader issues that need to be tackled if the industry is to grow and to develop" (Fáilte Ireland 2005).

With their mission statement and key roles they do not see themselves in the role of facilitating host community participation in sustainable tourism development. In fact, their emphasis is on strategic partnership with industry, and offering a range of supports services, providing those involved, or considering becoming involved in Irish tourism with a one-stop-shop to meet their business or professional needs.

Working in partnership with the industry, Fáilte Ireland will meet the industry's needs, leading and supporting Irish tourism in its next phase of development (Fáilte Ireland, 2005).

However, there is some mention of sustainable tourism in Fáilte Ireland's Tourism Development Strategy of 2000-2006. They outline here, the essence of their strategy is to achieve a more sustainable tourism industry through the adoption of distinctly different approaches to guide tourism development in the different types of areas in the framework. What is apparent is that even though Fáilte Ireland stresses the importance of community and focus on 'People, Place and Pace' as the three pillars of Irish tourism,

analysis highlights no active guidelines exist on host community consultation in tourism or evidence of Fáilte Ireland meaningfully engaging the host community in the development of their plans. This could be considered as a lost opportunity to address some of the issues previously outlined.

#### **5.8.4 Community Participation in Sustainable Tourism Planning at EU Level**

As Ireland is within the EU and directives must be made into Irish law it was necessary to investigate community participation in tourism planning at an EU level. The most obvious level of community participation in planning at the EU level is the people's representative. Democratically elected MEPs represent the host communities of the electoral area within Europe and as such can serve as a voice of the people in relation to planning issues at the wider EU level. As tourism planning issues tend to be very localised this avenue is rarely used in relation to tourism planning. Such representation was sought in probably the best known case of tourism planning in Ireland, that of the Mullaghmore Visitor Centre in County Clare. Planning was initiated in 1991 and was finally refused in 2001. In this case the EU were involved in June 1992 according to the Burren Action Group:

“Mr. Brinkhorst, the Director General of DGXI, informed the OPW that doubts re: the proposed visitor centre were "so compelling" that he would be recommending the withdrawal of EU funding for the project” (BAG: <http://homepages.iol.ie/~burrenag/index.htm#toc>; accessed on 2/10/06).

Such cases are indeed very rare but where new EU legislation or Policy initiatives are planned by the European Commission, invitations to comment are issued. These invitations constitute to the host communities of Irish tourism destinations, a means to be consulted or participate in sustainable tourism planning at the European level. As a result, policy and planning at the EU level will in turn reflect on the sustainable planning for tourism at the host community level in Ireland. The process is generally incorporated into the E-planning facility on the Europa enterprise tourism home page. The site has public consultation relevant to the European tourism portal. Here lists of consultations as issued by various Directorate Generals of the European Commission with reference to the tourism sector are shown. Invitations to interested parties to submit comments within certain deadlines are published regularly in the Official Journal of the European Communities. These invitations are reproduced on the Europa Competition



site under the headings "Official Journal" in each of the sections "antitrust", "mergers" and "state aid" (<http://Europa.eu.int/comm./enterprise>: accessed on 15/11/2006).

However, it is worth pointing out that this site is not widely publicised and may not be an effective tool for reaching communities who may want to participate on EU tourism policy. Nonetheless, the facility exists and for the purpose of this research must be documented as the highest political level of participation available to host communities in relation to tourism planning and policy formation.

While this method of e-planning and participation is growing in its use, it is still quite limited and selective in that it is only open to those who are computer literate and have time and knowledge to access these documents. Furthermore, there is no transparency in relation to what happens to these opinions.

## **5.9 CONCLUSION**

- (b) The findings in this chapter shed light on the underlying principles and factors that are in place to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning and help to satisfy the first aim of this thesis: Namely to critically examine host communities current participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland, with a specific focus on the tourism component of CDPs.

The framework for assessing community participation in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland (Figure 5.2) has identified extremely low levels of participation at all stages in the Local Authority County Development Planning process (Figure 5.1). The conclusion of the findings are summarised under the seven headings that comprise the framework.

### **5.9.1 Host Community**

While Local Authorities are meeting the legal duty to consult with the community no effort has been made to define host community or assess the impact of tourism on it before designing the CDP. Host community participation is basically confined to one public meeting every six years. This affords the host community little time to actively engage in meaningful participation in the development of plans.

### **5.9.2 Process of Consultation**

As the legislation is recent enough (in terms of the five year plans) the concept of participation is new to some Local Authorities and planners and is seen by some officials as time consuming, a delay or an obstacle, resulting in some planners having to push for community participation in designing the plan. This may have resulted in no set method or model being endorsed or implemented for community participation, resulting in a significant level of disparity in the level of participation afforded to the host community on a spatial level across Ireland. Thus, host community participation in designing CDPs reflect pseudo-participation or basic levels of citizen tokenism as noted by Arnstein (1971); Pretty (1995); and Tosun (1999) in relation to normative typologies of community participation.

### **5.9.3 Submissions**

This first baseline data on submissions directly relating to tourism development in the CDPs indicates a low level of participation, with no submissions in 69% of counties and an average of only 0.95% of submissions directly relating to tourism for the period (1999-2005). Furthermore, no link seems to exist between the number of written submissions and level of tourist arrivals to the region. It is not evident if these low levels of participation are due to complete contentment by host community with tourism planning, or 'limited liability' is being experienced because participation in the community is a voluntary choice. This warrants further research on levels of host community satisfaction with regard to the planning for tourism.

### **5.9.4 Draft Plan**

The 'Alteration of Draft Plan' stage facilitates a further but somewhat limited level of host community participation, characterised by indirect, formal written submissions supported if necessary by soliciting elected members to argue the particular case. However, the lack of transparency and ability to question individual county councillors actions highlights a loss of power from the community and planners to the councillors. This is concurrent with a low level of community participation and would continue to reflect what Tosun (1999) describes as pseudo-participation and Arnstein (1971) argues are degrees of citizen tokenism in their typologies of community participation.

Direct councillors' participation has been viewed both negatively and positively by planners. In some cases planners felt strongly that politics should not be mixed with planning and stressed that politicians were seriously reshaping the plans and going against the planners recommendations. However it was generally seen as a democratic process by planners and therefore justified to a large degree.

There is a complete absence of submissions from CDB and CTC on the tourism component of the CDP which may be due to the fact that they are recently set up within the structure of Irish tourism. It is important to stress that these organisations need to be managed by the planners in the process of designing the tourism plans, in order to facilitate full stakeholder involvement, which can help promote sustainable development by increasing respect for the environment, harmony and equality.

#### **5.9.5 E- Planning**

The research has identified significant use of e-planning throughout Ireland, from draft plan to the final published plan. The use of e-planning by a majority of Local Authorities to receive submissions on line has been identified. However e-planning which allows the host community to view all submissions and in turn the planners recommendations linked to these submissions is only supported by 13% of Local Authorities.

The move towards e-planning, in particular receiving submissions on-line, is shown by this study to increase communication and benefit both the host community and the Local Authority in the planning process. However, there is a need for all Local Authorities to move towards putting all submissions on-line, with links to actions such as recommendations made by planners 'on foot of' specific submissions. This will facilitate transparency and communication of the entire process.

#### **5.9.6 Training and Support for Consultation**

Local Authority planners feel adequately trained in the process of public consultations. However, this conflicts with the findings on the poor spectrum of tools and methods being employed by planners. It would seem that planners may not be aware of the in-depth and community centred approaches which could be implemented to facilitate participation and specific training for forward planners may be very beneficial.

The need for county councillors to be educated in the basic philosophy of planning in order to understand the wider ramifications of their actions on a larger strategic spatial context was a concurrent theme within the analysis.

### **5.9.7 Community Participation at Higher Levels**

The DOE can be seen to have a major role to play in relation to community participation in sustainable planning for tourism. However, the DOE does not enforce their ethos on community participation in the Sustainable Development: A Strategy for Ireland (1997), as inconsistencies seem to prevail in relation to a lack of support literature, guidelines and advice regarding the public consultation support from the DOE to Local Authority planners throughout the country.

It would appear on the surface that the RAs proactively engage in a wide spectrum of consultation when drawing up regional planning guidelines. However, the legal duty to do so is reduced to the act of informing the public and making provision to take submissions. The example of the BRPA highlights that there is a long way to go in relation to providing guidelines for sustainable planning for tourism and encouraging meaningful bottom-up authentic community participation in sustainable tourism planning within the regions.

DAST utilised all the tools Local Authorities have been found to use when engaged in community participation in planning. However they are also setting a good example in advocating and utilising an additional tool of a full day facilitated public forum. Inconsistency seems to prevail in relation to the support from the DOE and a lack of support literature regarding the public meeting stage of the Development Plan. Fáilte Ireland makes very little reference to host community participation in its tourism activities and no evidence of meaningful host community participation when drafting their plans was found.

#### **5.9.4 Towards a Participation Toolkit for Planners**

In the context of the summary of the assessment of the all seven themes within the framework for assessing community participation in Local Authority tourism planning in Ireland (Figure 5.2), it is suggested in this research that Local Authorities and forward planners need to redress their approach to facilitating host community participation in CDPs. The critical examination of the processes in place to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning highlights a lack of specific processes and guidelines put in place by the Planning Act of 2000 and the DOE. This is compounded by an obvious need for training and support of planners in the whole area of community participation in planning. These factors may have directly contributed to the considerable level of disparity found within the process followed by Local Authorities when facilitating community participation in making CDPs across Ireland. This is somewhat concerning as host community participation in designing CDPs reflect pseudo-participation or basic levels of citizen tokenism. Furthermore, the levels of host community participation across Ireland are extremely low with negligible submissions directly relating to tourism between 1999-2005. To address these findings, this research suggests the need for a guideline or participation tool kit to overcome these issues and create a process or check list that Local Authority planners can follow. It is suggested that this is located where the sustainable tourism planning tool is positioned in the amended Local Authority County Development Planning process (see Figure 5.4). The proposed design and components of this toolkit are discussed in detail in the concluding chapter where recommendations are made. The next chapter addresses the results and discussion relating to the second aim of the thesis namely planning for sustainable tourism by Local Authorities in Ireland.

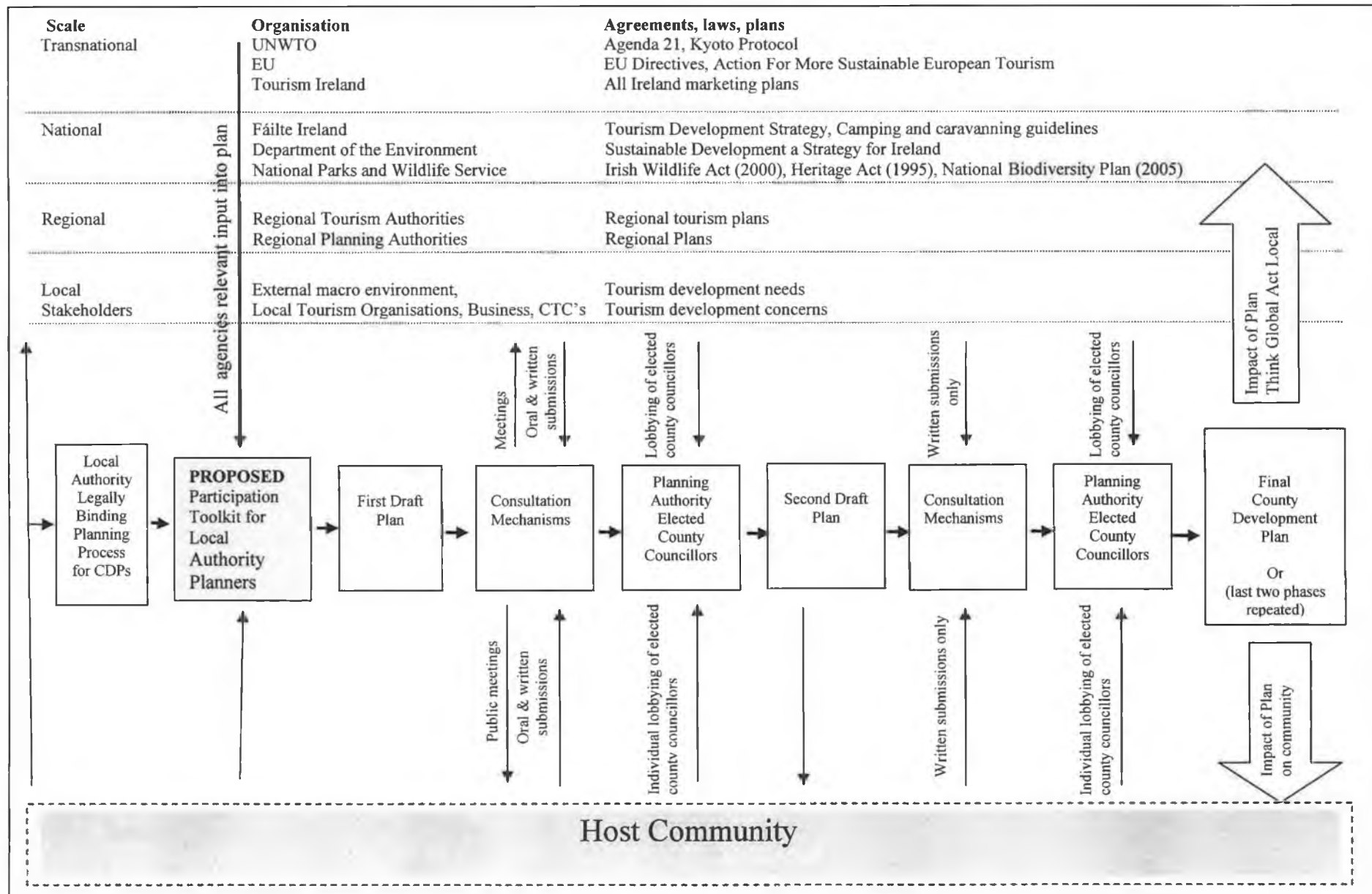


Figure 5.4 The amended Local Authority county development planning process, communication and interrelationships



## CHAPTER 6

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### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION PLANNING FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM BY LOCAL AUTHORITIES IN IRELAND

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“Tens of tonnes of phosphorus continue to seep into Lough Leane, the largest of the Lakes of Killarney and the jewel of local tourism. The pollution continues despite warnings from scientists and environmentalists and appeals to farmers, local authorities, householders and the tourist industry to clean up their act” (Anne Lucey, Irish Times 30/06/03).

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The analysis and findings presented in this chapter represent the first nationwide study of sustainable tourism planning in Ireland and presents baseline data for future longitudinal research. Principally the analysis addresses the second aim of this thesis:

- To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities’ CDPs in Ireland.

In order to achieve this aim, it was necessary to focus the analysis with the following objectives in relation to the Local Authority planning process (see figure 6.1) overleaf:

- To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities’ CDPs.
- To conduct a nationwide comparative examination of tourism plans within the Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland and assess if any link existed between tourist arrivals and levels of sustainable tourism planning in CDPs.

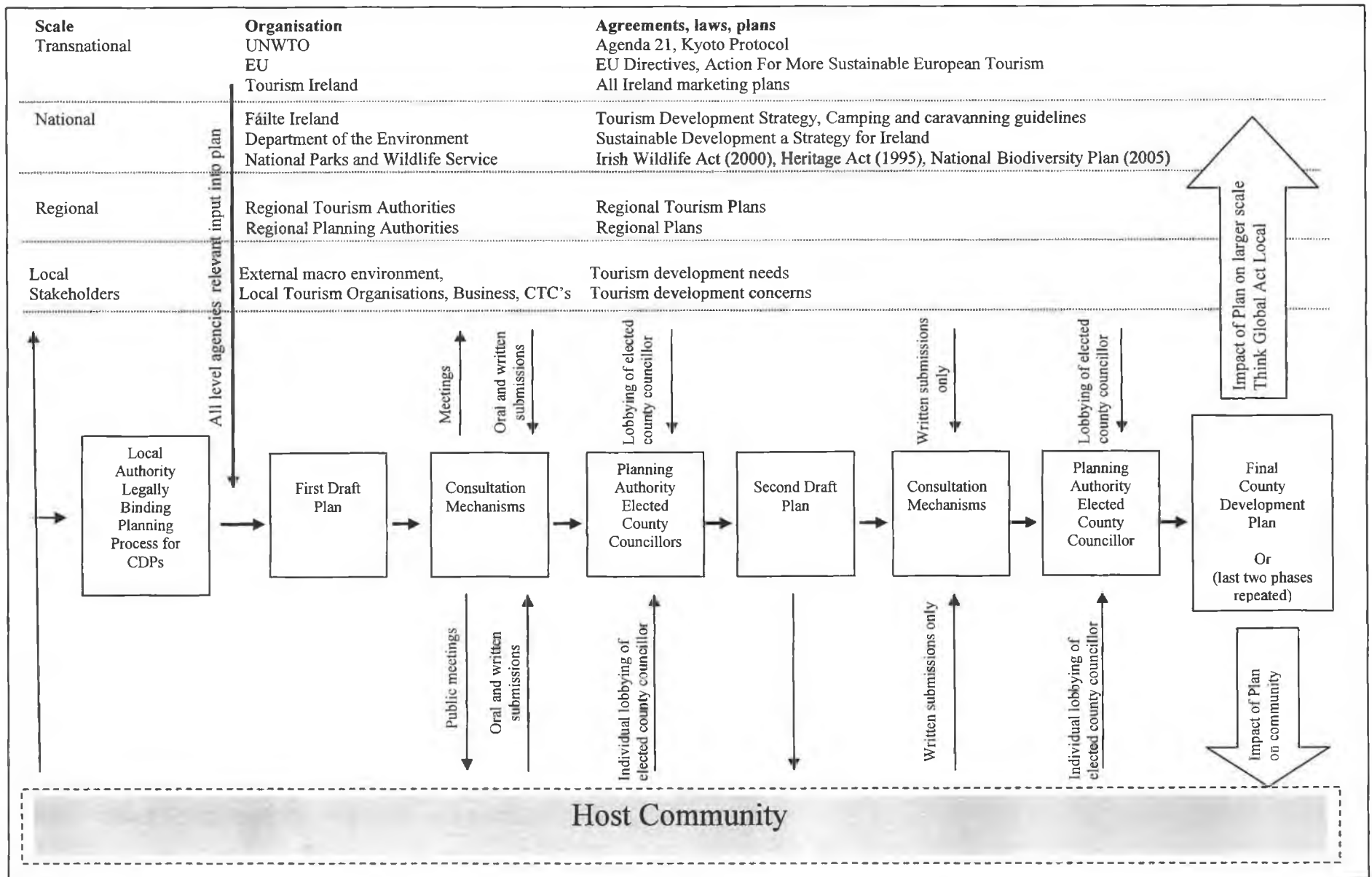


Figure 6.1 The Amended Local Authority county development planning process, communication and interrelationships

In order to examine the Local Authority planning process, a content analysis tool was designed and utilised to assess the tourism component of every CDP across Ireland. The results and findings from the content analysis are discussed in the context of current theories as well as national and international tourism planning guidelines. The chapter concludes by outlining the current level of sustainable tourism planning as it exists within the Local Authority CDPs.

## **6.2 CONTENT ANALYSIS OF LOCAL AUTHORITY TOURISM PLANS**

The main emergent areas within the content analysis tool which is called the 'Sustainable Tourism Planning Framework for Assessing CDPs' developed by this research are discussed as follows: 1) the specifics of the plan, 2) the sustainable planning process for tourism, 3) integration of regulations and guidelines for sustainable tourism and 4) planning for environmental, economic and socio-cultural impacts of tourism. Each area of the framework is examined and discussed in the context of Local Authority CDPs across Ireland, in order to provide a nationwide perspective on the level of sustainable planning. Table 4.3 illustrates the various elements of this sustainable tourism planning framework. Analysis and results are now presented in the chronological order as shown in the framework.

## **6.3 SPECIFICS OF THE PLAN**

An assessment of the 'specifics of the plan' allowed the researcher to identify the particular timeframe involved for plans. It also helped to determine if there was a specific County Tourism Development Plan, or, if there was a specific tourism policy section within the Local Authority CDP. The length, depth and level of detail within the plans were initially determined by recording the number of pages dedicated to tourism planning.

Table 4.3 Sustainable tourism planning framework for assessing C.D.Ps

<b>1 Specifics of plan</b>	<b>4 Planning for Environment impacts of tourism</b>
What year (period) does the development plan cover?	Impact of Tourism on Biodiversity.
Is there a specific County Tourism Development Plan ?	Tourisms interaction with environment- land use
Is there a specific tourism policy section in the Local Authority County Development Plan (CDP)?	Environmental impact assessment (EIA) conducted for tourism (Environmental Audit, GIS)
Number of pages dedicated to tourism planning within the development plan Tourist arrivals to the area (expressed in % of overall arrivals to country)	Tourism and carrying capacity calculations (Physical, ecological, social, environmental, real, effective and permissible carrying capacity, Limits of acceptable change, LAC's)
Number of specific tourism policies within the plan	Ecotourism (Ecolabeling)
Number of tourism strategies to implement the tourism policies within the plan.	Area Protection (National parks, wildlife reserves, sensitive areas and landscape, AONB, SSSI)
Tourism policy integrated within other areas of plan (accommodation housing/holiday home provision, waste water/ sewage, transportation)	Green house keeping for tourist accommodations (energy conservation, waste management, water conservation, green building designs supported)
<b>2 Sustainable Tourism planning supported</b>	<b>5 Planning for Economic impacts of tourism</b>
Sustainable development supported in plan	Economic impacts of tourism supported
Sustainable planning for tourism mentioned in plan	Econometric analysis of tourism earnings carried out
Sustainable planning for tourism supported in the plan	Management of leakages from tourism (imports, over dependence on foreign ownership)
Specific Tourism landuse zoning (Visitor management techniques employed - visitor dispersion, channelled visitor flows. restricted entry, vehicle restriction)	Provides opportunities for local entrepreneurs to establish tourism enterprises. Support local production (food, craft, materials and equipment)
Sustainable resort planning guidelines Makes maximum use of existing infrastructure Dedicated transport management, especially as regards air and road transport	Industry regulation ( professional association regulation, voluntary self-regulation, corporate social responsibility)
Sustainable tourism development and design standards	<b>6 Planning for the socio-cultural impacts</b>
Sustainability indicators integrated into plan (resource use, waste, pollution, access to basic human needs, access to decision making, local satisfaction, tourist satisfaction, tourism contribution to local economy)	Consultation/participation techniques utilised in planning process (meaningful levels of host community participation addressed; public meetings, public attitude surveys, stated preference surveys, round tables, collaboration)
Sustainable tourism policy on caravan /camping	Local satisfaction, ratio of tourists to locals
Tourism Signage policy	Helps achieve archaeological, historic preservation
Disabled provision mentioned	Protecting public rights of way for tourism
<b>3 Integration of regulations / guidelines for sustainable tourism</b>	Tourism disaster policy/ plan.
Global agreements obvious from tourism policy/plan (The Charter for Sustainable Tourism, Lanzarote WTO; Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism, Mohonk Agreement)	Intellectual and cultural property rights considered in provision and plan preparation
Reflects EU policy guidelines, the following are obvious from tourism policy/plan, EU disabilities, EU IQM coastal- rural- urban tourism.	Codes of conduct best practice examples Codes of conduct for;
Reflects overall national/regional/local development policy, objectives, strategies, legislation, (The Irish Wildlife Act 2000, Sustainable Energy Act, 2000, DOE 'Sustainable Development; BF 'Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites' 1982)	tourists, industry, host, governments, communities.

Source: adapted from (Inskeep, 1991; UNWTO, 1995; Dymond, 1997; UNWTO, 2001; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Hanrahan and Boyd, 2007).

Specific tourism policies as well as how tourism policy is integrated with other areas of the plan were also recorded. Finally, the tourist arrivals to each of the thirty one Local Authority areas were established, which has been expressed in terms of a percentage of the national total (domestic and international) tourist arrivals to the region in

comparison to the rest of the country, as based on Fáilte Ireland and Central Statistics Office regional tourism statistics for 2005 (Fáilte Ireland, 2006). This tourist arrival data was then utilised to determine how the depth of these plans reflected on the intensity of tourist arrivals to the area. This allowed the researcher to identify honey pots or underperforming regions within the country and determine if the level of sustainable planning for tourism reflected this. While this represents a very basic level of assessment, it however proves useful in giving a nationwide view of all Local Authority plans.

### 6.3.1 Time period covered by the plan.

Research and analysis indicated that all Local Authorities abide by the law, namely the Planning and Development Act of 2000 which requires them to make a new Development Plan every six years. The time frame of the Development Plans revealed that the majority of the Local Authorities were up-to-date with their preparation and publishing (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Time period of the development plans

Analysis of all LA CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of CDP	04	03	05	03	00	04	04	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	04	03	03	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04

Research was carried out for this thesis between 2003 to 2006, and only one Local Authority (Monaghan 'MN') had not updated their plan under the new 2000 Act. Discussion with the forward planner informed the researcher that a new plan awaited final adaptation and publication.

### 6.3.2 Integration of tourism planning within the CDP

Analysis highlighted that no Local Authority had designed a specific stand alone County Tourism Development Plan. This is reassuring in terms of current tourism planning theory (Inskip, 1995; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Mason, 2003; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Murphy and Murphy, 2004) which advocates an integrated approach be taken. This finding is viewed in a positive sense and may reflect the integrated nature

of tourism planning at Local Authority level. Further to this, most Local Authorities have tourism policies within their CDPs. Those that do not are identified in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Integrated Tourism Planning within the CDPs.

Analysis of all LA CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Year of CDP	04	03	05	03	00	04	04	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	04	03	03	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
Specific County Tourism Development Plan																															
Specific tourism policy section in CDP	x		x	x	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Tourism policy integrated within other areas of plan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

In terms of specific tourism policies within the CDPs, all Local Authorities had these integrated within a specific tourism section. The policies were wide ranging and will be discussed later in this chapter; typically however, each Local Authority made reference to the economic potential of tourism to generate employment and revenue for their respective county. While there was some cross reference and integration of, for example, holiday home provision policies within the housing section of the CDPs, this area of integration was not significant and thus warrants further research.

### 6.3.3 Number of tourism policies and implementation strategies

Widespread disparity was found in relation to the quality and quantity of tourism policies and strategies within the CDPs. These plans varied in size from less than one to twelve pages. Within these plans the number of tourism policies varied from as little as one to thirty three (see Table 6.3). No relationship was found to exist between the depth and detail of tourism policies and the geographic displacement of tourist arrivals or the dependency of each county on tourism as an economic driver.

The content analysis of CDPs, with respect to tourism policies, also showed widespread disparity. In some Local Authorities, plans and polices contained within the CDPs demonstrated extremely detailed tourism development strategies. For example, Donegal's (DL) tourism policy of 2000 which is detailed in Table 6.4 is an apt example.



Table 6.3 Numbers of tourism policies and implementation strategies within plan.

Analysis of all LA CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WN	WX	W
Year of CDP	04	03	05	03	00	04	04	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	04	03	03	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04
Specific individual County Tourism Plan																															
Specific tourism policy section in plan	x		x	x	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Tourism policy integrated within other areas of plan	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Number pages on tourism in plan	0	2	3	4	6	1	1	1	6	4	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	12	0	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	3	8	4
Number of tourism policies in plan	0	6/1	7	8	4	7	1	1	10	25	3	16	11	3	1	8	8	6	29	0	8	8	0	3	10	5	5	2	10	33	11
Number of Tourism strategies to implement policies	0	0	0	7	23	0	4	7	30	0	5	0	0	5	11	6	2	0	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	25	18	
Tourist numbers expressed as a % of total Irish arrivals	10 %	7.3%	9.7 %	18 %	7.3 %	29 %	29 %	12 %	29 %	14 %	18 %	12 %	10 %	12 %	7.3%	9.7 %	9.7 %	9.7 %	12 %	12 %	12 %	14 %	9.7 %	14 %	7.3%	10 %	9.7 %	10 %	12 %	10 %	12 %

See appendix C for geographic location tourist arrivals and tourism policies

The Donegal Local Authority tourism policy reflects the need to manage and sustain tourism resources within the County in a proactive manner, in line with the principles of sustainable tourism. These four policies are also supported by implementation strategies or policy guidelines, which are of paramount importance, as tourism policies are not as effective if they do not have specific methods of implementation (see Inskeep, 1991; Murphy and Murphy, 2000; Gunn, 2002). Furthermore, it is worth noting that international best practice highlights that implementation strategies for tourism policies need to have in place task designations, time frames and budget allocation in order to be successfully implemented (Murphy and Murphy, 2000; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Mason, 2003).

In contrast, in County Cavan's (CN) CDP (2003), the tourism plan and policies are basic in nature and only resemble a paragraph of benefits, giving a description of what may be acceptable within the scenic landscape of the County (see Table 6.5).

Table 6.4 Tourism Development policy Donegal Co. Co. 2000

2.8 Tourism

2.8.1 Background

2.8.2 Goals

2.8.3 Objectives

2.8.4 Policy Proposals Programmes

Policy Statements

No.1 - Management And Conservation

No.2 - Product Development

No.3 - Tourism Identity Areas And Resort Development

No.4 - Supporting Infrastructure

2.8.5 Guiding Development

2.8.2 Goal

To support the development of sustainable tourism as a key element of an overall economic development strategy at both County and local level.

2.8.3 Objectives

To manage and conserve the natural and manmade heritage which provides a core resource for the industry.

To support development of a quality environmental image for the County

To support product development based on the heritage of the County.

To promote development of strong tourism identity areas.

To support the development of traditional seaside resorts.

To provide and manage to highest standards a range of support infrastructure.

Source: Donegal County Council, CDP 2000.

County Cavan's only tourism policy (Number 5) and tourism development component within the CDP is simplistic in nature with little consideration or reflection of EU, government or national guidelines and strategies. But, it must be pointed out that this type of tourism planning was common place within the Local Authorities tourism plans in general.

Table 6.5 County Cavan's tourism policy

## **RECREATION, TOURISM AND COMMUNITY FACILITIES**

### **Aim**

1 To facilitate the provision of adequate recreational, community and tourism facilities.

### **Policy**

1 To improve existing Local Authority recreational and amenity facilities, and provide new facilities where considered necessary.

2 To protect from development the existing public and private open spaces in the towns and villages, and permit their development for other uses only where it can be shown that this would serve the best interests of the community.

3 To require open space recreational provision to be provided as part of large new housing schemes and to have regard where appropriate to The Residential Density Guidelines (DOE).

4 To facilitate the land use requirements of the Local Authority's Fire, Library, Leisure Centre, Refuse Disposal and Burial Grounds services.

5 To facilitate the provision of tourist facilities in keeping with the tourist development strategy and the protection of the environment.

6 To require childcare facilities in large housing schemes in accordance with Government Policy of the day.

### **TOURISM DEVELOPMENT**

Tourism proposals may be appropriate land uses in rural areas where they can establish a need to be located in the countryside rather than in towns or villages. Rural and agri-tourism developments will generally be encouraged, provided they meet with the required standards. Promoters of tourism proposals in rural areas will be expected to clearly establish the need for a countryside location, and in addition to establish the suitability of the specific site in the context of sustainability. The proposal should relate in some way to a resource that is a tourist attraction, potential or realised. The scale of developments ought reflect the context of it's location and should compliment the established settlement pattern not overwhelm it.

A policy of this nature is required to prevent a proliferation of tourism proposals with no basis for development.

The Planning Authority may consult with the tourism authorities to ascertain the tourism basis for individual proposals, and tourism proposals may also be considered in the context of the Cavan

Source: Cavan County Council, CDP 2003.

Three quarters of Local Authorities policies had few implementation strategies and none had task designation, time frames or budget allocations. This challenges whether a sustainable tourism policy could be implemented. Furthermore, as already indicated,

there was a considerable degree of disparity within the topics addressed and the general quality of tourism policy with Ireland's CDPs. The detail within Cavan's tourism policy typifies this, as evident in Table 6.5.

#### **6.4 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING SUPPORTED WITHIN THE CDP**

The second component of the framework addressed if the plan supported sustainable tourism planning. Here analysis focused on if the concept was mentioned or supported in the CDPs and to what extent particular tourism planning tools or processes were being utilised by the Local Authorities, for example, tourism zoning, resort planning guidelines, disabled provision, tourism signage policy and tourism development design standards, to name the key ones.

##### **6.4.1 Sustainable tourism planning mentioned or supported in the CDPs.**

Only a third of Local Authorities mentioned sustainable tourism planning within their tourism policy. This is somewhat worrying on a number of levels. Firstly, it highlights the low level these Local Authority plans within Ireland have reached in terms of the evolution of tourism planning and are not indicative of what Tosun (2004:1) claims:

“tourism planning has followed a significant evolution in development and planning paradigms that moved from myopic and rigid concerns to more comprehensive, flexible, responsive, systematic and participatory approaches”

Secondly, if the two pole continuum of Tourism First and Development First are considered (see Burns, 1999), the latter reflects a generally uncomplicated view of tourism. Findings would imply that three quarters of Local Authorities policies would be positioned here, whereas the remainder (those that refer to sustainable tourism planning as a move towards a more sophisticated and integrated approach) are closer to the Tourism First pole (see Table 6.6). The majority of these plans may be situated somewhere between what Getz (1987) describes as boosterism, and the economic approaches to tourism planning. However, the tools for sustainability need to be examined in more detail in order to confirm the prevalence of these Development First approaches.

The future of the Irish tourism product is somewhat questioned with the findings of this research as CDPs do not reflect the capability of the tourism industry to destroy the very product it is reliant on if not planned and managed in a sustainable manner at the local

level (Long and Mason, 2003; Reisinger and Turner, 2003). If the Local Authorities plans fail to recognise the need to mention sustainable planning for tourism, and put appropriate mechanisms in place to support this approach to planning, then the ability of the Local Authorities to sustainably plan and manage tourism at local level must be brought into question.

Table 6.6 Sustainable tourism mentioned and supported within the CDPs.

Analysis of CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	CL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	D	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W		
Year of CDP	04	03	05	03	00	04	04	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	04	03	03	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04		
Sustainable planning for tourism mentioned	x				x			x			x		x			x					x	x			x						x	x	
Sustainable planning for tourism supported					x				x	x	x				x	x									x	x				x	x	x	
Sustainable development supported		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x				x	x	x	x

An important point to reflect on that is somewhat positive in outlook, is that the majority of CDPs supported the principle of sustainable development in the overall plan, even though few mentioned these in detail in relation to sustainable planning for tourism (see Table 6.6). This may be due to the fact that most forward planners were writing the plans from a sustainable development viewpoint.

#### 6.4.2 Tourism land use zoning and resort planning within CDPs

The need for visitor management techniques to be employed by managers responsible for the movement and flows of tourists has been well addressed by tourism scholars (Lavery, 1971; Elkington and Hailes, 1992; Gunn, 1991, Witt and Moutinho, 1994; Wood, 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Techniques are established and often vary in application and complexity from zoning, visitor dispersion, channelled visitor flows, restricted entry, vehicle restriction, differential pricing structures and interpretative gateways. Unfortunately the findings from the analysis of the CDPs have shown a relatively low adoption rate. For example, the use of tourism zoning was only apparent in 12% of development plans within Ireland (see Table 6.7).

When the minimal use of landuse zoning was examined, it was found to embrace sustainable tourism development. However, in some cases the original zoning submitted



Table 6.7 Tourism land use zoning, resort planning and design standards

Analysis of CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	W	WX	W	
Year of CDPs	04	03	05	03	00	04	04	04	05	03	03	05	02	05	03	05	04	03	03	01	03	99	03	02	05	03	04	05	02	01	04	
Specific Tourism land use zoning (visitor dispersion, channeled visitor flows)				x					x																			x			x	
Resort planning guidelines																															x	x
Tourism development and design standards					x				x										x										x	x	x	
Sustainability indicators for tourism																																
Tourism Signage policy			x		x				x			x	x		x				x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		
Policy on caravan /camping					x		x		x										x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x		
Disabled provision mentioned																			x													
Tourist numbers expressed as a % of overall national arrivals	10%	7.3%	9.7%	18%	7.3%	29%	29%	12%	29%	14%	18%	12%	10%	12%	7.3%	9.7%	9.7%	12%	12%	12%	14%	9.7%	14%	7.3%	10%	9.7%	10%	12%	10%	12%		

See appendix C for geographic location tourist arrivals and tourism policies

to the elected members by the forward planners during the planning process was diluted through councillors’ participation in the making of the plan. Planners commented:

‘There was significant alteration of land zoning by the county councillors during the planning process’ (Planner 12).

“The draft plan was massively shaped by County Councillors; certainly most of the changes made were made on foot of submissions” (planner 7).

The statement by planner seven highlights that the plan was certainly shaped by the County Councillors but that most of these changes were made based on submissions. It became evident, that a number of forward planners felt that the changes were not solely based on submissions and County Councillors were in fact addressing their own issues and not representing the wider planning issues within the county, as the following quote supports.

“What we put up to the county councillors they changed things. They had a big impact, they seemed to be addressing their own issues rather than the wider planning issues in hand” (Planner 22).

The question of significance is; how pertinent were these alterations to zoning, and were the forward planners supportive of these alterations? In many cases, the forward planners refused to comment on the technical appropriateness of the changes made in relation to zoning. However, interviews with the forward planners, who decided to



discuss this issue, found that in some cases planners would not have recommended the councillors changes:

“There was a number of rezoning requests that, as planners, we wouldn’t have been recommending; but as councilors, they had the prerogative to change these. This has negatively impacted on the development” (planner 27).

While this position was not widely held amongst planners, it must be stressed that some were adamant that the involvement of County Councillors had a negative impact on the finished plan. This is particularly evident by the number of “open for consideration” scores in Table 6.8 in the CDP for Wicklow (the only land use tourism matrix included in any of the CDPs across all Ireland). Again, the absence of this tool within the CDPs is disappointing as it has obvious benefits to support sustainable planning.

Table 6.8 Tourism Land Use Matrix

	Y: Permissible in Principle		O: Open for Consideration		X: Not Permissible	
Tourist use	Outstanding Natural beauty zone	Special activity zone	Rural zone	Corridor zone	Costal Zone	Towns Villages
<b>Tourist Attractions or Services</b>						
Fun parks	O	O	O	O	X	Y
Equestrian centres	O	O	O	O	X	Y
Skirmish parks	O	O	O	O	X	Y
Golf courses	O	O	O	O	O	Y
Driving ranges	O	O	O	O	O	Y
Activity centres	O	O	O	O	X	Y
Specialist activities	O	O	O	O	O	Y
Leisure facilities	O	X	X	O	X	Y
<b>Permanent self-catering accommodation</b>						
Static caravans	X	X	X	O	X	Y
Holiday homes	X	X	O	O	O	Y
Self catering units at existing hotels	O	O	O	Y	O	Y
Hostels	O	X	O	O	O	Y
<b>Touring self catering accommodation</b>						
Tour caravans	X	O	O	O	X	Y
Camping facilities	X	O	O	O	X	Y
<b>Catered Accommodation</b>						
Guest houses	O	O	O	Y	O	Y
Hotels/Country houses	O	O	O	Y	O	Y
<b>Other</b>						
Change of use for dwelling	O	O	Y	Y	O	Y
Extension for tourism	O	O	Y	Y	O	Y
Tourists use of unused and abandoned buildings	O	O	Y	Y	O	Y

(Wicklow County Council, 2004)

The alteration of the land use zoning mechanisms by the County Councillors, which had been recommended by the forward planners, seemed significant, resulting in the actual

application of tourism land-use zoning being minimised. For example, Table 6.8 illustrates that 95% of the matrix contains “permissible”, or “open for consideration” tourism activities in a County that prides itself as the ‘Garden of Ireland’.

The low level of application of visitor management techniques such as: land use zoning, resort planning and design standards, must be viewed as an indicator of the low level of emphasis placed on sustainable planning for tourism development in Ireland. Clearly, planners are more than capable of facilitating these planning approaches (12% of Local Authorities do use them); with a 6% uptake of basic resort planning guidelines as part of tourism policy.

Sustainability indicators such as; resource use, waste management, pollution, site protection, stress, use intensity, local production, access to decision making process and diversity of natural and cultural life have been discussed earlier as a useful tool from a Local Authority planning perspective. These indicators can be used as an early warning system to trigger planning and management strategies, thus preventing irreversible tourism impacts (Manning and Dougherty, 1995). Furthermore, the use of sustainability indicators provides an operational and cost-effective means of supplying tourism managers with the information they require (IWGIST, 1993). Sadly, the absence of any sustainability indicators for tourism in CDPs is further evidence that Local Authorities ignore even the most basic visitor management techniques, denying tourism managers the information they require to plan in a sustainable manner for tourism (see Table 6.7).

The application of these indicators have been seen by many authors as the responsibility of government bodies, particularly local government, and should not be left up to the private sector and other components of the public sector (Cronin, 1990; McKercher, 1993; Hunter, 1995b; Patterson and Theobald, 1995). However, in the case of Ireland they seem to have been completely ignored by Local Authorities: amounting to what Manning and Dougherty (1995) have referred to, in the context of providing a warning system for sustainable tourism planning, as turning off and/or never activating the system!

Under half of the Local Authorities had a planning process for tourism signage and policies on camping and caravanning (see Table 6.7); the former, important to facilitate visitor dispersion and channel visitor flows (Inskeep, 1987; Lindberg, Wood and

Engeldrum, 1998; Mowforth and Munt, 2000). Over half of the tourism plans examined, had no signage policy. This is a cause for concern.

Only 35% of plans had made provision for camping and caravanning, highlighting again an overall weakness in some of the fundamental areas to promote sustainability. Another key area, ignored by all but one Local Authority, was provision for the disabled visitor (see Table 6.7). Travel and tourism is a social right which concerns all European citizens. But over 40 million Europeans do not take holidays (EC, 1996). The lack of provision for this sector in Irish tourism does not just represent a poor social provision but also the loss of a valuable market segment to the industry.

As discussed in chapter three, planning takes on many forms, and a variety of models have been highlighted in the literature. However, on reflection of this literature in context of this analysis and interviews with forward planners, it is clear that none of these models have been adapted to support sustainable tourism planning and development of CDPs by Local Authorities. Furthermore, the number of tourist arrivals to a County did not have any reflection on the depth and detail of the tourism plans within the CDPs across Ireland.

## **6.5 INTEGRATION OF REGULATIONS / GUIDELINES FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM**

The sustainable tourism planning framework helped to examine the relative integration of regulations and guidelines, as issued at the transnational (UNWTO, EU) national (Fáilte Ireland) and the regional (Regional Tourism Authorities) level, with respect to plans, strategies and guidelines for tourism development. The purpose here was to determine if the Local Authority plans had benefited from higher level tourism policy formation, within and outside of Ireland; for example, the Charter for Sustainable Tourism, Lanzarote (WTO, 1995a), Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism (WTO, 1995b) and The Mohonk Agreement (2000). The key research findings were that there was no integration of global guidelines, with the only penetration of global agreements being components of Local Agenda 21 (see Table 6.9).

Table 6.9 Integration of guidelines and policies for sustainable tourism

Analysis of CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W	
Global agreements obvious from tourism policy/plan																																
Reflects EU policy guidelines																																
Reflects overall national, strategies, policy, legislation					x	x		x									x						x						x	x	x	
BF 'Guidelines for development of caravan and camping sites' 1982					x		x												x	x	x				x	x		x	x	x	x	

On a European Level, the EU has produced a range of useful guidelines and policies for sustainable tourism planning. A search for the penetration of these policies and guidelines into CDPs was integrated into the textual analysis of the CDPs and the transcript analysis of discussions with the forward planners. The outcome was that no integration of the following EU guidelines was presented:

- EU Integrated Quality Management for coastal areas (2000)
- EU Integrated Quality Management for rural areas (2000)
- EU Integrated Quality Management for urban areas (2000)
- EU Making Europe accessible for tourists with disabilities (1996)
- Using natural and cultural heritage for the development of sustainable tourism in non traditional tourism destinations (2002)
- Early warning system for identifying declining tourist destinations and preventative best practice (2004)
- Improving information on accessible tourism for disabled people (2004)

With no integration of global or EU guidelines on sustainable tourism planning this research would have to support the argument made by Mowforth and Munt, (2003: 108), that international agreements and guidelines, especially those stemming from the work of the scientific community (such as agreements to reduce carbon dioxide emissions), may suffer from a lack of commitment and a difficulty in enforcement without statutory legislation on the part of national governments.

The need for global and EU guidelines to be adopted may only be realised if the Governments and in turn Local Authorities, are required to do so by law. These guidelines are extremely costly and timely to produce and it would seem to warrant further investigation as to why they have not been integrated at the local level.

Furthermore, what was the integration of specific tourism guidelines and strategies at a national level? The National Tourism Development Authority “Fáilte Ireland” states that ‘the National Sustainable Development Strategy must be brought to the heart of the performance of tourism. With a constant need for vigilance to protect key assets of tourism and in particular our scenic landscapes’ (Fáilte Ireland, 2003). The analysis, however, clearly shows there was no reflection of this strategy in the Fáilte Irelands own mission or key roles. The point must be made that it looks increasingly obvious that Fáilte Ireland has not brought the environment to the heart of sectoral performance in tourism?

“In accordance with the National Sustainable Development Strategy, environment must be brought to the heart of sectoral performance in agriculture, forestry, marine resources, energy, industry, transport, spatial planning, and, of course, tourism itself. There is a need for constant vigilance to protect the key assets of tourism, and in particular our scenic landscapes. The time has come for the tourism industry to clearly articulate specific environmental priorities in relation to local holiday destinations” (Tourism Development Strategy 2000-2006, Fáilte Ireland).

These findings are all the more surprising given that the Tourism Development Strategy (2000-2006) addresses important issues concerning the sustainable planning for tourism such as; carrying capacity, visitor management programmes, a framework for developing an effective tool for tourism planning at levels of tourism destinations, zonal planning process and protection of ecology. A zonal planning process offers the opportunity to resolve conflicts and agree visitor management strategies in the context of a partnership of community, tourism industry and Local Authorities’ interests, and stressing constant vigilance is necessary, to protect the environmental quality which is so vital to tourism.

Analysis went on to establish if these guidelines are being communicated to the planners at the local level, in order to be implemented into the CDPs. The Strategy itself states that successful realisation of the tourism strategy set out in this framework depends on delivery by the relevant Local Authorities of the infrastructure, facilities and controls.

However, the picture on a national and regional level is very bleak, with only 26% of Local Authority tourism policies reflecting some national policies. The framework examined the integration and application of the following overall national development policy, objectives, strategies, and legislation;

- New Horizons for Irish Tourism - An Agenda for Action" (Fáilte Ireland, 2003)
- Tourism Development Strategy 2000–2006. (Bord Fáilte, 2000)
- Tourism Product Development Scheme 2000-2006. (Bord Fáilte, 2000)
- Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland. (DOE, 1997)
- Developing Sustainable Tourism: Development Plan (Bord Fáilte, 1994)
- Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites (Bord Fáilte, 1982)
- Government White Paper on Tourism Policy (1985)
- Irish Wildlife Acts (2000)
- Sustainable Energy Act (2000)

It is important to note that this list is not exhaustive and each tourism component of the CDPs were examined for any integration of national or regional policies, strategies or laws.

What is interesting in this finding is while 26% of Local Authority tourism policies reflected some national policies, they all reflected the same strategy. This was the 'Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland', developed by the Department of the Environment in 1997, which contained a specific section on planning sustainably for tourism and was well communicated to all Local Authorities. The Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites (BF, 1982), was found to be integrated into 35% of Local Authority tourism policies (see Table 6.9); a relatively old set of guidelines (25 years old) still being utilised by the forward planners in the Local Authorities to plan for tourism. What is also of interest is that it is also the only guideline for tourism ever issued on tourism development by Fáilte Ireland (formally Bord Fáilte), directly to the Local Authorities. One would assume therefore, that specific guidelines on planning for sustainable tourism development as issued by Fáilte Ireland, would have similar penetration rates into the Local Authority tourism plans.

It must be pointed out, however, that aside from Local Authority tourism plans, Fáilte Ireland has an additional way of planning control, namely through the financial grant aid given in tourism investment support. The analysis highlighted that Fáilte Ireland has the capability through funding support for the tourism product development scheme to support its tourism development strategy. The overall objective of the Tourism Product



Development Scheme, funded under the National Development Plan 2000-2006, is to develop the tourism product in a sustainable way, that helps widen the spatial spread of tourism, diverts pressure from highly developed areas and increases under-performing regions' share of overseas tourism revenue.

The operational guidelines do mention the promotion of a better management of the relationship between tourism and the environment, with a particular focus on the implementation of Integrated Tourism Management Plans in Established Tourism Areas. Under section 4.4 Tourism and the Environment section (c) it states the following:

“To be successful, proposals will have to promote sustainable tourism planning e.g. land use policies, conservation of resources” (Tourism Product Development Scheme 2000-2006: 9).

However, on closer analysis, there is no mention of the majority of key areas highlighted under sustainable development and the environment. This could be considered as a lost opportunity to implement some of the issues previously outlined, such as; carrying capacity, visitor management programs, community participation, zonal planning process, protection of ecology, and a framework for developing an effective tool for tourism planning at local level for tourism destinations.

A detailed CDP review for Donegal County Council took place by consultants in 1987 as commissioned by Bord Fáilte. This review is now over twenty years old and for its time proved to be a very comprehensive and lengthy analysis of tourism from a county development perspective, with detailed tourism development guidelines. However, little evidence of these guidelines having been implemented was found during the course of this research. Discussion with one senior Fáilte Ireland representative highlighted the following:

“We have had less input on development plans in more recent years, unless specifically requested, however, we are becoming more involved at the moment and it will be a focus in the future as we embrace a more product development role” (Fáilte Ireland executive 3).

The Donegal submission appears to have been an exception for Bord Fáilte, as involvement until recently seems to have been minimal and on a request basis. However evidence does suggest that on request Fáilte Ireland provides useful and professional assistance to Local Authorities on planning matters.

It is also worth stressing that the environmental unit within Fáilte Ireland has been created and expanded during the course of this research and is facilitating more input into Local Authority development plans. The author has made this research available to the environmental unit and, in addition, has carried out a number of consultancy projects for the unit with regard to sustainable tourism planning. Furthermore, Fáilte Ireland, is currently undergoing significant change and restructuring in relation to sustainable planning and these changes are attempting to meet the planning needs of the tourism industry in Ireland. However, as the changes were occurring at the time of writing up this research it is not possible to document them. Furthermore, a number of documents are in the draft stages of development, namely the Tourism and the Environment, a Fáilte Ireland Strategy which when published could, prove to be a useful guide for Local Authority when designing CDPs. The nature of this research has allowed the author to input into the preparation of these documents.

### 6.6 PLANNING FOR ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

The framework assessed the CDPs ability to deal with concerns on how tourism interacts with the environment. It specifically assessed policies dealing with area protection, biodiversity, EIA, carrying capacity, ecotourism, energy conservation and green building standards.

Table 6.10 Planning for environmental impacts of tourism

Analysis of CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Tourisms interaction with environment - land use			x	x	x	x			x	x	x		x		x			x	x		x			x	x				x	x	x
Tourism and carrying capacity calculations						x																									
Impact of Tourism on Biodiversity						x																									
Area Protection (National parks, wildlife reserves, sensitive areas and landscape, AONB, SSSI)		x	x		x	x				x					x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x
Ecotourism (Eco- Labeling)					x				x									x					x	x							
Green house keeping for tourist accommodations (energy conservation, waste management, water conservation, green building designs supported)						x																									

Attention has been drawn since the 1970's to the significance of how environmental impacts affect the tourism industry (Dasman, Milton and Freeman, 1973; Cohen, 1978;

Bosselman, 1978; OECD, 1980; Pigram, 1980; Travis, 1982). Further attention has been given to this topic area in recent years for promoting sustainable tourism development. The need for a sustainable approach in tourism planning and development has been increasingly documented in recent years (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Murphy, 1983; Farrell and Mc Lelan, 1987; Blank, 1989; Keogh, 1990; Inskip, 1991; Harrison and Husbands, 1996; Gunn, 2002). Tourism planners need to maintain a high quality environment due to the increasing demand of tourists and their requirements. Tourists are becoming more sophisticated, and now seek tourism destinations that are of high quality, clean and pollution free. It is important therefore that tourism planners approach planning with a primary focus on the environment.

The research suggests that half of Local Authority's addressed tourism interaction with the environment within tourism policies contained in the CDPs. This is reinforced with 58% of Local Authorities tourism plans supporting area protection; mainly reflected in some policies which supported national parks, wildlife reserves, sensitive areas and landscape. However, the majority of policies within this section actually referred to sensitive areas and landscape. What Table 6.10 reveals is that:

- 45% of plans have not addressed tourism interactions with environment
- 42% of plans have not supported area protection
- Only one Local Authority addressed the impact of tourism on biodiversity
- 84% of plans did not mention Ecotourism or Eco- Labeling
- Only one Local Authority plan addressed tourism carrying capacity calculations, such as physical, ecological social environmental, real effective and permissible carrying capacity, Limits of Acceptable Change
- Only one Local Authority supported green housekeeping for tourist accommodations, energy conservation, waste management, water conservation, green building

Therefore findings illustrate that Local Authority tourism plans and policies do not demonstrate a clear understanding of the symbiotic relationship between tourism and the environment that obliges planners to take a wide range of factors into consideration when planning sustainably for tourism. The specific factors which need to be considered have been isolated and communicated to Local Authorities by the Department of the Environment (DOE) since 1997. The suggested approach to manage these environmental impacts has been put forward by the DOE under the heading of key strategic actions, within the tourism section of the 'Sustainable development, A Strategy for Ireland' document (DOE, 1997). These key actions emphasised that sustainable

tourism involves a positive approach to harmonising the interactions between tourism, the physical environment and the host communities. The strategy went on to highlight that:

"Among the major strengths which characterise Irish tourism is our clean physical environment"(DOE,1997:117).

Furthermore, the strategy emphasised the threat of tourism damaging the very product it relies so heavily upon;

However, it is important that tourism development itself should not become a force which threatens this foundation (DOE, 1997:125).

Other national tourism policy, as set out, for example, in Bord Fáilte's development plan for the period 1994-99, 'Developing Sustainable Tourism', had already provided good foundations for sustainability in this sector. The specific actions which were recommended to be taken under this strategy, were additional to, or in association with, current policies. These were designed to ensure a full integration of sustainable development principles in the sector and were to involve the following actions:

- Tourism development will be taken into account, as appropriate, by the Department of the Environment in the preparation of land use policy guidelines for planning authorities, developers and the public.
- Planning authorities will make provision in their development plans for sustainable tourism, and ensure through the planning process that over-development does not take place.

Clearly ten years on since the release of 'Sustainable development, A Strategy for Ireland' (DOE, 1997), the Local Authorities have yet to employ sustainable planning principles to address the environmental impacts of tourism.

The academic literature has highlighted how sustainable tourism planning is an undeniably valid paradigm which inspires planning schemes on the basis of an essential principle that is the common denominator of different research works in the field: the balance between economic growth, environmental preservation, and social justice (Butler, 1993; Coccossis, 1996; Hall, 2000; Ivars, 2004). This is reinforced by the Mohonk Agreement (2000), which considers sustainable tourism to be any kind of:

"tourism that seeks to minimise ecological and socio-cultural impacts while providing economic benefits to local communities and host countries".

The evidence is overwhelming and clearly identifies that the crucial areas in planning to alleviate the environmental impacts of tourism have not been addressed. Without delivering clear policies and guidelines on how tourism interacts with the environment, area protection tourism and biodiversity, tourism carrying capacities, ecotourism, ecolabelling, green housekeeping for tourist accommodation, energy conservation, waste management, water conservation and green building, Local Authorities are not seriously planning to address the environmental impacts of tourism. The need for a review of policies in this area cannot be stressed enough and recommendations will be made in relation to this weakness in the concluding chapter.

Finally, the move to embrace ecotourism has been slow, with only 16% of Local Authorities addressing ecotourism within their plans. The support for ecotourism, however is only strengthened by one Local Authority with the clear adoption of policies on green housekeeping a key factor as highlighted by the DOE “Sustainable development, A Strategy for Ireland” report (1997).

## **6.7 PLANNING FOR THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF TOURISM**

The importance of planning for the management of the economic impacts of tourism has been ignored by many of the existing indicators, matrices, and frameworks recommended for determining the level of sustainable planning for tourism. Economic impacts of tourism were assessed in order to determine if the plan was capable of managing these impacts and, for example, supporting local production and minimising leakages. The framework also helps planners to determine if a productive business environment is being supported for tourism entrepreneurs within the region, given that economic planning is an integral part of overall planning for the tourism industry. One of the primary focuses concerning tourism development is the building of a strong tourism economy (Gunn, 2002). Tourism planning and development can assist in the development of economies as well as promoting a balanced sustainable growth.

The positive and negative economic impacts of tourism have been extensively documented through the years (Archer, 1971; Bryden, 1973; Eadington and Redman, 1991; Wall and Mathieson, 2006). The very nature of the tourism industry and its evolution in recent years suggests that the lucrative economic impacts of tourism need

to be carefully monitored and managed, through proactive informed policies at, not only national level, but also at the local level, through tourism economic policies in Local Authorities plans. Analysis reveals that only 39% of Local Authorities attempted to support the economic impacts of tourism through policies within their CDPs (see Table 6.11). This finding is not surprising as the economic impacts of tourism generally refer to the generation of income and employment that result from tourist activities in a particular country. Such contributions can also cause positive and negative effects to the economy, and these effects, in turn, reflect standards of living and regional and national economic growth. Government revenue from taxation can be used to develop and maintain infrastructure and public services, which are important factors of the tourism industry (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie, 1995; Oppermann and Weaver, 2000).

Table 6.11 Planning for the economic impacts of tourism within CDPs

Analysis of CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WO	WM	WX	W
Economic impacts of tourism supported	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x						x						x	x							
Econometric analysis of tourism earnings carried out																															
Management of leakages from tourism (imports, over dependence on foreign ownership)																															
Provides opportunities for local entrepreneurs to establish tourism enterprises. Support local production (food, craft, materials and equipment)																															
Industry regulation (professional association regulation, voluntary self regulation, corporate social responsibility)																															

What is striking about this finding is that in almost two thirds of the plans examined, none provide policies that address the economic impacts of tourism. This is a very significant finding, particularly if the Local Authorities are to attempt to realise the potential positive economic impacts of tourism.

If the Local Authorities are to attempt to mitigate or minimise the negative economic impacts of tourism (see Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Murphy, 1983; Keogh, 1990; Inskip, 1991; Gunn, 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Wall and Mathieson, 2006), they should be addressing some of the following areas which have been totally ignored by all of the CDPs:



- Econometric analysis of tourism earnings
- Management of leakages from tourism, the reduction of imports, or, over dependence on foreign ownership.
- Supportive policies which provided opportunities for local entrepreneurs to establish tourism enterprises or supported the local production of food, craft, materials and equipment.

The last point was a rather surprising finding in a country famous for its agricultural produce such as butter, lamb and beef; all staples of any tourist meal while staying in Ireland. Local Authorities are in an ideal position to support tourism enterprises through provision of many services such as; infrastructure, signage, sensitivity to alternative green building practices and codes, lighting, sewage, provision of areas for craft markets and support for major events and street festivals.

The absence of these are particularly concerning given Fáilte Ireland's mission is to increase the contribution of tourism to the economy by facilitating the development of a competitive and profitable tourism industry (Fáilte Ireland, 2006). Perhaps Fáilte Ireland needs to establish closer links with Local Authorities to ensure their mission is accomplished at the local level.

Findings also highlighted that no Local Authority has policies on industry regulation, professional association regulation, voluntary self regulation or even corporate social responsibility. As pointed out by Mowforth and Munt (2003) the tool of regulation is clearly one which allows specific groups to take control of the industry. It is evident therefore that the Local Authorities across Ireland are not taking any steps towards the regulation and control of tourism within their counties.

#### **6.8 PLANNING FOR THE SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM**

The framework was used to examine the plans to address the socio-cultural impacts of tourism. Analysis here was concerned with host community participation in the planning process and assessing if the plan facilitates the protection of public rights of way. It also determines if the plan addresses codes of conduct for the industry, host and the tourist. The framework also assessed historical preservation, disaster planning for tourism and best practice examples being provided by Local Authorities to all stakeholders involved in tourism.

As discussed in the literature review, the growth and development of mass tourism has resulted in some cases of uncontrolled development due to a lack of planning. Some of this development has left behind problems within society which include overcrowding, loss of amenities for residents, loss of economic benefits and general social problems (Inskip, 1991). It has also been documented by Mathieson and Wall (1982) that tourism contributes to problems such as crime and drugs, and these problems have subsequently created friction and hostilities between the tourist and the host community. Although the tourism industry can generate benefits and problems to society and its cultural patterns respectively. If tourism is well planned and managed in a socially responsible manner, it can bring about many socio-cultural benefits to both hosts and tourists (WTO, 1994). Findings of this research highlighted that all the Local Authorities consulted with the host community when preparing CDPs as this is a legal obligation under the Planning Development Act of 2000. However, only two thirds used participation techniques in the planning process, such as presentations, exhibitions, questions and answers sessions (see Table 6.12). The point to be stressed here is that when Local Authorities are legally obligated to consult the local community they all complied, indicating that one way to get high levels of compliance from Local Authorities to plan sustainably for tourism could be to make it a legal obligation.

The need for Local Authorities to protect and manage the archaeological and historic assets of the county when planning for sustainable tourism can not be underestimated. Heritage tourism in Ireland has predominantly focused on the prehistoric, Celtic, Viking, and Norman sites. As Hannam (2001) points out, Viking heritage tourism is a significant European phenomenon in terms of its scale, its internationality, and its contribution to local economic and cultural identities. However, many of these sites are today still protected and guarded by not only legislation, but the people living with this heritage. For example, the respect for fairy forts and fairy trees is still prevalent in Irish society (Lennahan, 1999). Perhaps the best carrier of the message of conservation would be the indigenous communities on whom both the directions of conservation and tourism management and development ultimately rest (Hannam, 2005). This would seem to reinforce the location of archaeological and historic preservation within the frameworks under the heading of planning for socio-cultural impacts.

Findings revealed that 58% of plans (see Table 6.12) helped to achieve archaeological and historic preservation. This is possibly due to two factors. First, the Heritage Act (1995) promotes public interest in and knowledge, appreciation and protection of the national heritage. Second, the existence of the ‘Heritage Appraisal of Development Plans – A Methodology for Planning Authorities’ (Heritage Council, 2000) gives planners a comprehensive set of guidelines when planning for heritage in development plans. This appears to highlight how specific planning guidelines can facilitate high compliance rates within Local Authorities plans when the forward planners are provided with specific guidelines from the relevant national authorities.

Table 6.12 Planning for the socio-cultural impacts of tourism

Analysis of CDPs from a tourism perspective	CW	CN	CE	CK	DL	D	sD	Dr	F	G	KE	KD	KY	LS	LM	LK	Lc	LD	L	MH	MO	MN	O	R	S	Ts	Tn	WD	WM	WX	W
Consultation/participation techniques utilised in planning process			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x					x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x
Local satisfaction, ratio of tourists to locals																															
Helps achieve archaeological, historic preservation			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x		x		x		x	x						x	x				x	x	x
Protecting public rights of way for tourism									x				x		x										x				x	x	
Tourism disaster policy plan																															
Intellectual and cultural property rights considered in provision and plan preparation																															
Codes of conduct																															
best practice examples																															

Application of the framework to Local Authorities CDPs identified a serious lack of provision in the following (see Table 6.12):

- Local satisfaction surveys, assessment of ratio of tourists to locals
- Tourism disaster policies or plans
- Intellectual and cultural property rights considered and provisions made in plan
- Codes of conduct for tourists, industry, host, government, communities
- Best practice examples provided by the Local Authorities to all stakeholders.

These findings are quite surprising considering that the need to plan and proactively manage and mitigate the socio-cultural impacts of tourism has been argued for and discussed by tourism academics for over forty years (Doxey, 1975; Rothman, 1978; Knopp, 1980; Murphy, 1985; Long and Richardson, 1989; Lankford, 1994; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Murphy, 1983; Keogh, 1990; Inskip, 1991; Gunn, 2002; Mowforth and Munt, 2003). Furthermore, the heavy reliance of marketing and promotion of Ireland on the socio-cultural component of tourism is very obvious. With Fáilte Ireland and Tourism Ireland promoting ‘People, Place and Pace’ as the three pillars of the Irish

tourism product, it should be of prime importance that Local Authorities address the socio-cultural impacts within their tourism plans.

Finally, a quarter of plans had policies to protect public rights of way; a contentious issue within Ireland at present due to some landowners restricting access to beaches, mountains and headlands (see Table 6.12). The written submission from the lobby group 'Keep Ireland Open' (KIO) at the consultation stage of the development planning process is seen as the main reason for this. The submissions from KIO have been identified in the Local Authority forward planner's manager reports, and represents a clear indication of the ability of a particular action or lobbyist group to impact on planning for tourism in the CDPs. This highlights the sensitivity of the Irish planning process to lobby groups and guidelines such as the 'Heritage Appraisal of Development Plans', possibly indicating that the planning process is therefore capable of reacting to specifically designed inputs. This in turn suggests that the provision of a Local Authority tourism planning tool, such as set of sustainable planning guidelines for tourism, could prove useful in facilitating Local Authorities to plan for tourism in a sustainable manner.

## **6.9 CONCLUSION**

The application of the sustainable tourism planning framework has addressed the second aim of this thesis:

- To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland.

The results and discussion within this chapter has clearly highlighted a low level of sustainable tourism planning within the Local Authorities CDPs across Ireland. Concluding comments on the six areas making up the framework are now offered

### **6.9.1 SPECIFICS OF PLAN**

Local Authorities are currently abiding by the law and generating CDPs within the specified legal timeframe. Tourism plans seem to be integrated within the Local Authorities CDPs, however, there is widespread disparity in the quantity, content, detail and depth of their tourism policies. The depth and detail of tourism planning and development strategies on a whole has been found to be poor. There is a need to learn from best practice. From an international comparative viewpoint, Local Authorities in

New Zealand were positive about the ability of the UNWTO (1995) core indicators to meet their decision-making needs (Dymond, 1997). Few Local Authorities in Ireland utilise sustainability indicators for tourism nearly ten years after Dymond's study.

The majority of Local Authorities tourism policies had no implementation strategies and those which had often lacked task designation, time frames and budget allocation. This in turn renders most existing tourism policies sterile, with no effective means of implementation. The analysis found no apparent association, on a spatial level between the depth and detail of tourism policies and the number of tourist arrivals to a County. This research has identified that Local Authorities across Ireland are not adequately planning for tourism.

### **6.9.2 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING SUPPORTED**

Tourism land use zoning, resort planning and design standards are not being applied and integrated into the tourism plans. In a few isolated cases where tourism land use zoning was found, the mechanisms are relatively sterilised by County Councillors in the approval process for the plans. Sustainability indicators for tourism have not been integrated into the tourism plans. This ignores the potential of these tools to provide tourism managers with the information they require to plan for sustainable tourism. Even the most basic components of any tourism plan like tourism signage, camping and caravanning have not been adopted by over half of Local Authorities. Again, this absence almost advocates a Development-First approach. There were no obvious spatial connections between Local Authorities use of tourism land use zoning, resort planning and design standards and tourist arrivals to the region.

### **6.9.3 INTEGRATION OF REGULATIONS AND GUIDELINES**

Possibly one reason for such a low level of sustainable planning for tourism could be related to the fact that there has been absolutely no integration of the Global or EU guidelines relevant to planning for tourism. This must warrant urgent attention and further research. Moreover, the integration of national guidelines was also low with only 26% of Local Authority tourism plans reflecting the key publication by the DOE 'Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland, 1997'. However, 32% of plans adopted 25 year old Guidelines for Development of Caravan and Camping Sites (Bord Fáilte, 1982). This may suggest that a set of specific guidelines for developing

sustainable plans for tourism issued by Fáilte Ireland (The National Tourism Development Authority) could have the same penetration rate and thus impact onto the tourism plans of Local Authorities.

#### **6.9.4 Planning for the environmental impacts of tourism**

Fundamentally, the crucial area of planning for environmental impacts of tourism is not addressed. Local Authorities tourism plans and policies do not demonstrate a clear understanding of the symbiotic relationship between tourism and the environment. This obliges planners to take a wide range of factors into consideration when planning for tourism. This demonstrates an urgent need for a review of policies by DAST, DOE, and Fáilte Ireland in this area, with a particular focus on developing guidelines, or a planning tool, in order to facilitate Local Authorities when planning for the environmental impacts of tourism.

#### **6.9.5 Planning for the economic impacts of tourism**

The economic potential of tourism has not been realised and planned for in the plans by the majority of Local Authorities. There is a concerning absence of any policies to mitigate or minimise the negative economic impacts of tourism. This could be detrimental to the future of the Irish tourism industry, leaving the growth and development of tourism open to dependency on imports, characterised by foreign ownership, resulting in high leakages and low economic returns from tourism.

There was also no apparent policies to foster a good tourism business environment to support tourism enterprises, or support the local production of food, craft, materials and equipment. Local Authorities are in an ideal position to support tourism enterprises through provision of many services such as: infrastructure, signage, sensitivity to alternative green building practices and codes, lighting, sewage, provision of areas for craft markets and support for major events and street festivals. There is a complete lack of policy on industry regulation, professional association regulation, voluntary self regulation or even corporate social responsibility. This first baseline study gives an indication that Local Authorities have made no attempt to regulate or control the tourism industry within their respective counties in Ireland.



### **6.9.6 Planning for the socio-cultural impacts of tourism**

The need to plan, manage and mitigate socio-cultural impacts of tourism cannot be underestimated in tourism planning. The framework has highlighted a number of serious concerns regarding a lack of provision for local satisfaction surveys, ratio of tourists to locals and the whole area of intellectual and cultural property rights. This highlights that the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Ireland are not being adequately addressed by Local Authorities in their tourism plans. Furthermore, these plans need to provide best practice examples to all stakeholders to highlight and give direction to developers, in keeping with the principles of sustainable development for tourism.

### **6.9.7 Towards a sustainable tourism planning tool kit for planners**

In summary an assessment of all six themes within the framework (see Table 4.3) make the case that Local Authorities and forward planners need to redress their approach to sustainable tourism planning with respect to their CDPs. Findings in this chapter have revealed that the level of sustainable tourism planning in Ireland is poor; which generally reflects a Development First approach to tourism planning. The majority of elements encapsulated into the sustainable tourism planning framework have not been addressed by tourism policies and strategies in the local level plans.

The critical examination of sustainable tourism planning at the local level, points to a number of gaps within the wider tourism planning policy environment. First, the communication of Global, EU and National strategies to the forward planners on the Local Authorities needs to be addressed. Second, DAST, DOE and Fáilte Ireland need to adopt the approach of facilitating the planners. This may mean they have to provide a guideline or tool which facilitates sustainable planning for tourism. Certainly the receptivity of the planning process seems to indicate that a sustainable planning tool for tourism, specifically designed for Local Authorities, could have a significant impact.

To address these findings, this research suggests the need for a guideline or tourism planning toolkit, that helps to overcome these issues and creates a process or checklist for Local Authority planners to follow. It is argued by this author that this checklist is merged with the community participation checklist, and be positioned between the legally binding process stage and the first draft plan stage as shown in Figure 6.2. The

proposed design and components within this toolkit are discussed in detail in the concluding chapter.

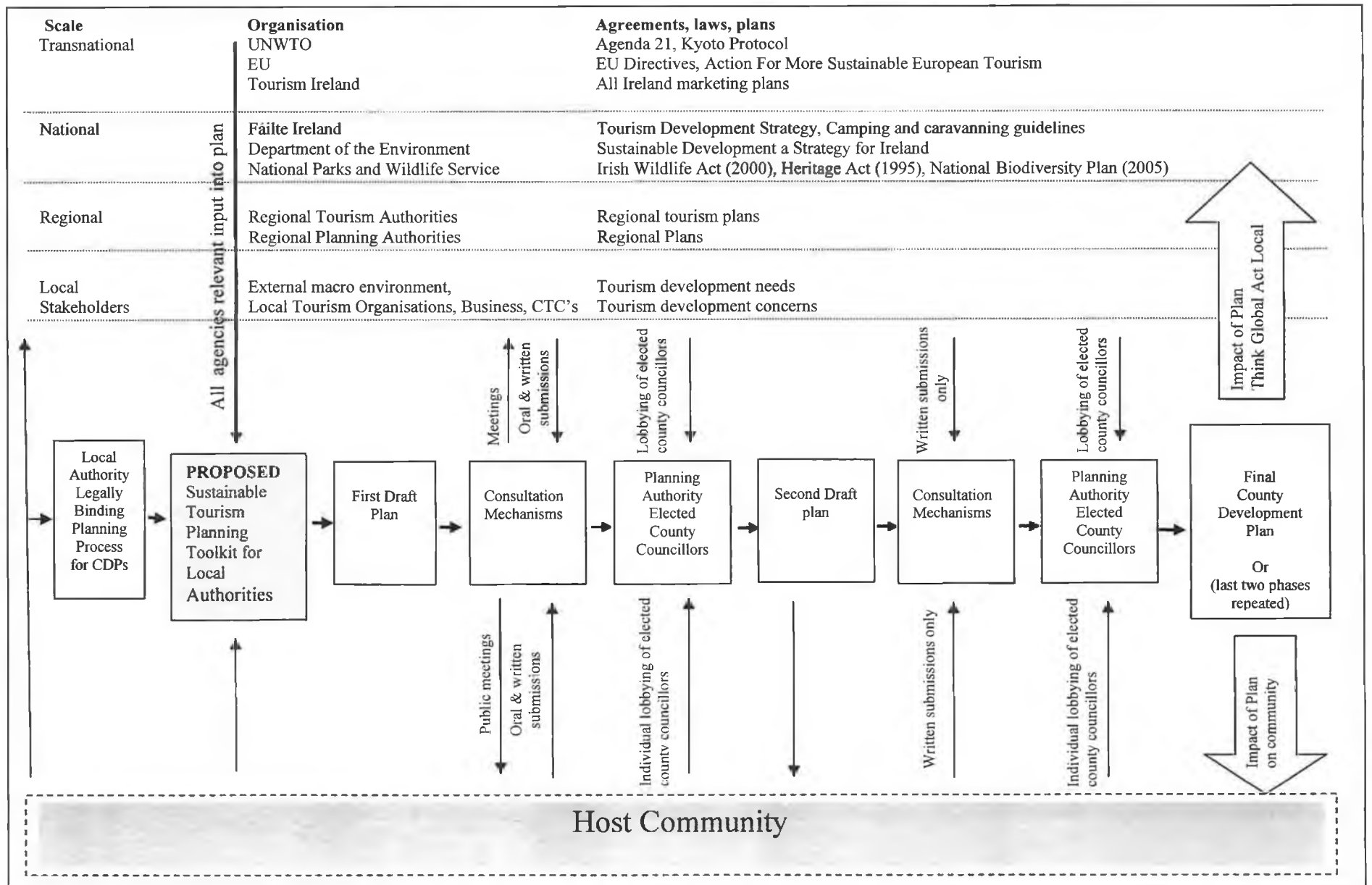


Figure 6.2 The amended Local Authority county development planning process, communication and interrelationships

## CHAPTER 7

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### CONCLUSION

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#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of the analysis and discussion of the findings it is important to take a broad view of the state of planning for tourism in Ireland. Shaun Quinn, Chief Executive of Fáilte Ireland (2004), argues that:

“We are fortunate that our mixed record on environmental performance has not damaged our green and positive image abroad. Ireland's distinctive landscapes and seascapes continue to draw visitors to Ireland more than any other attraction. These are very fragile resources that are coming under increased pressure to accommodate greater levels of development. Tourists put a high value on our natural environment. If we want them to keep coming, we have to do so too”.

However the old adage ‘if you fail to plan, plan to fail’ could not be more pertinent with the tourist accommodation sector being highlighted as one of the main causes of pollution to the Lakes of Killarney (Anne Lucey, Irish Times 30/06/03). Local Authorities across Ireland have a statutory obligation to plan and maintain the natural environment which tourists put such a high value on. According to Howden (1992) Local Authorities are in a position whereby they have the responsibility for economic development, protecting community attributes and managing the natural environment.

This research has conducted the first baseline study of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning at Local Authority level in Ireland. It has clarified the rationale and factors which are in place to facilitate host community participation in aiding planning in a sustainable way, from a Local Authority perspective. This process has been identified to be lengthy and somewhat drawn out (see Figure 7.1). The review of the literature identified two key factors of growing importance, first, the need for

Local Authorities to facilitate the host community in planning their own futures (LA 21) and second, the need to develop tourism responsibly by planning for tourism in a sustainable manner.

The thesis developed two frameworks grounded in the theories of host community participation in sustainable tourism planning to achieve the research aims. The examination focused firstly on host communities participation in Local Authority tourism planning (see Figure 5.2) and secondly, on the level of Local Authority sustainable tourism planning (see Figure 6.2). The findings generated in this examination contributes to new knowledge in the field of Irish tourism research and certainly bring into question the ability of the Local Authorities across Ireland to plan for tourism in a sustainable manner, in which, host community participation plays a vital role.

This chapter restates the aims and objective of the thesis drawing conclusions from the analysis and discussion in each area. A sustainable tourism planning toolkit for Local Authorities is recommended which can help bridge the gap between the academic knowledge and the act of facilitating host community participation in tourism planning at local level. The contribution of this thesis to new knowledge is then discussed and recommendations are made in relation to the direction of future research.

## **7.2 HOST COMMUNITIES PARTICIPATION IN SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING**

Sustainable development must be built by, through and with the commitment of local communities (Stewart and Hams, 1991). The literature has stressed that the requirements of sustainable development cannot merely be imposed and that active participation by local communities is needed. The first aim of this thesis addressed current participation levels:

1. To critically examine host communities' current participation in sustainable tourism planning in Ireland, with a specific focus on the tourism component of CDPs.

This aim was achieved through the implementation of two objectives the first of which examined the process of community participation:

- (a) To critically examine the processes followed to facilitate host community participation in tourism planning.

Host communities have not been defined by Local Authorities and there was no evidence of research on communities satisfaction levels or perceptions of tourism. This highlights a poor first step in the process of facilitating meaningful community participation. Furthermore, the concept of participation is new to some Local Authorities and planners alike and is seen by some officials as time consuming, a delay or an obstacle. This has resulted in some planners having to push for community participation in designing the plan.

No set model, method or tools are being endorsed or implemented for community participation, resulting in a significant level of disparity in the level of participation afforded to host community on a spatial level across Ireland. The Local Authorities were generally found to have implemented the most basic tool to facilitate participation, namely a public meeting followed by questions and answers. A fundamental weakness in the participation process seems to lie with the lack of training and support for host community participation being made available to Local Authorities when the new Act was introduced in 2000. While many planners feel they were adequately trained in this area the majority are not facilitating participation with the in-depth community-centred approaches and tools available. Thus, host community participation in designing CDPs generally reflected pseudo-participation in relation to normative typologies of community participation (Tosun, 1999). A clear training need has emerged for planners in facilitating meaningful participation and an obvious need for the DOE to mentor Local Authorities through the participation process when making new CDPs.

The use of e-planning by a majority of Local Authorities is predominantly restricted to viewing of plans. E-planning which allows the host community to view all submissions and in turn the planners' recommendations linked to these submissions is only supported by four of the Local Authorities. The move towards e-planning in particular receiving submissions on-line and viewing associated alterations to the plans has huge potential and can improve public participatory processes (Kingston, 2005). However it is clear this is not yet being realised at Local Authority level in Ireland.



The second objective required the examination of the current levels of host community participation:

- (b) To assess the levels of host community participation in making CDPs in Ireland.

The majority of host community participation is confined to their attendance at one of the few (averaging 4-6) Local Authority public planning consultation meetings held around the county every six years. The current approach to facilitating community participation is characterized by low levels of participation, with no submissions in 69% of counties and an average of 0.95% of submissions directly relating to tourism for the period (1999-2005). No link exists between the number of written submissions and the level of tourist arrivals to the region. It is not evident if these low levels of participation are due to complete contentment by host community with tourism planning, or 'limited liability' is being experienced. These factors may have directly contributed to the considerable level of disparity found within the process followed by Local Authorities when facilitating community participation in making CDPs across Ireland. This is worrying as host community participation in designing CDPs reflect pseudo-participation or basic levels of citizen tokenism.

Direct county councillors' participation in altering the draft plan has been viewed both negatively and positively by planners. In some cases planners felt strongly that politics should not be mixed with planning and stressed that politicians were seriously reshaping the plans and going against the planners recommendations. However it was generally seen as a democratic process by planners and therefore justified to a large degree. The lack of transparency and ability to question individual county councillors' actions highlights a loss of power from the community and planners to the councillors. This is concurrent with a low level of community participation and would continue to reflect what Tosun (1999) describes as pseudo-participation. A clear training need has been identified for county councillors and it is suggested that they are educated in the basic philosophy of planning in order to understand the wider ramifications of their actions on a larger strategic spatial context was a concurrent theme within the analysis.

There is a complete absence of submissions from CDB and CTC on the tourism component of the CDPs which may be due to the fact that they are recently set up

within the structure of Irish tourism. These stakeholders will need to be more proactively encouraged to participate in the tourism planning process by the planners.

It would appear on the surface that the RAs proactively engage in a wide spectrum of consultation when drawing up the regional planning guidelines. However the example of the BRPA highlights there is a long way to go in relation to providing guidelines for sustainable planning for tourism and encouraging meaningful bottom up authentic community participation in sustainable tourism planning within the region.

At national level the DAST utilised all the tools Local Authorities have been found to use when engaged in community participation in planning. However they are also setting a good example in advocating and utilising an additional tool of a full day facilitated public forum. Such good example direction may have an impact on the Local Authorities participation process in the future. However inconsistency seems to prevail in relation to support from the DOE and a lack of support literature regarding the public meeting stage of the development plan. Fáilte Ireland makes very little reference to host community participation in its tourism activities and no evidence of meaningful host community participation when drafting their plans has been found. There was also an absence of research on host communities levels of satisfaction with tourism. The recent formation of the environmental unit within Fáilte Ireland will need to address these shortcomings in their approach to facilitating meaningful community involvement in tourism planning at a local level.

It is suggested that Local Authorities and forward planners need to redress their approach to facilitating host community participation in CDPs. To address these findings this research suggests the need for a guideline or participation toolkit to overcome these issues and create a process or checklist Local Authority planners can follow. It is suggested that this is located where the suitable tourism planning tool is positioned in the amended Local Authority county development planning process (see Figure 7.1). The proposed design and components within this toolkit will be discussed later in this chapter.

### 7.3 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING AT LOCAL AUTHORITY LEVEL

The theory and application of tools to plan for tourism in a sustainable manner have been discussed and utilised to develop a framework to address the second aim of this thesis:

2. To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs in Ireland.

This involved an examination of the following objectives:

- (c) To determine the extent to which sustainable tourism planning is evident within Local Authorities CDPs.
- (d) To conduct a nationwide comparative examination of tourism plans within the Local Authority CDPs in Ireland and assess if any link existed between tourist arrivals and levels of sustainable tourism planning in CDPs.

The analysis has highlighted the tourism component of the CDPs to generally reflect a development first approach to tourism planning. In terms of Howden's (1992) argument, Local Authorities across Ireland do not seem to be fulfilling their responsibility of economic development, protecting community attributes and managing the natural environment. Furthermore, they are not maintaining the critical operational link between ministerial and legislative directives and the tourism industry, as CDPs do not reflect the relevant regional, national and EU tourism strategies and guidelines. Therefore Local Authorities are not taking advantage of what Dymond (1997) argues is the logical level to provide a sustainable plan for tourism in the general operationalisation of sustainable tourism development.

The majority of elements encapsulated into the sustainable tourism planning framework have not been addressed by the tourism policies and strategies in the Local Authority CDPs. There is no geographical relationship between tourist arrivals and levels of sustainable planning for tourism in Ireland, resulting in all areas being poorly planned for in the same manner. This may result in damage to the tourism product if not addressed.

The approach to tourism planning is characterised by a lack of clear economic, environmental and socio-cultural policies with specific implementation strategies. No specific budgets and staff time allocation has been put in place to facilitate meaningful participation. This has resulted in the economic potential not being planned for and

reflects a nationwide absence of local level policies to manage or mitigate the negative economic impacts sometimes associated with tourism development. The basic planning tools employed to manage tourism in a sustainable manner are not very evident. The framework found low use of tourism zoning, EIA, sustainability indicators, resort planning guidelines, signage policy, codes of conduct, area protection, biodiversity, green housekeeping and provision for disabled tourists. The low usage of these tools highlights the need to plan for sustainable tourism and it is evident that without doing so the predominant development first approach to tourism planning at local level in Ireland may leave the Irish tourism product at risk.

These planning shortfalls may be attributed to a number of gaps within the Local Authority tourism planning mechanism. First, the communication of global, EU and national strategies to the forward planners needs to be addressed. Second, DAST, DOE and Fáilte Ireland need to adopt an approach of facilitating the planners. This may involve the provision of a guideline or tool which facilitates sustainable planning for tourism. Certainly the receptivity of the planning process seems to indicate that a sustainable planning tool for tourism specifically designed for Local Authorities could have a significant impact.

Against this backdrop, this thesis suggests that Local Authority planners are not using the academic models and tools put forward by tourism scholars nor are they making use of state and EU strategies, guidelines or charters. Therefore it is suggested, that they would benefit from a conceptual sustainable planning toolkit, which is applied at the start of the planning process (see Figure 7.1). The design and components of this toolkit must recognise a number of crucial findings from this research and for the purpose of this chapter, these findings and recommendations are linked to the components of the toolkit.

#### **7.4 PROPOSED TOOLKIT FOR LOCAL AUTHORITY PLANNERS**

Due to the applied and comparative nature of the research it seemed appropriate to take advantage of the data and utilise the research to design a tool which may be of use to the forward planners when developing the tourism component of CDPs. This is in line with objective (e) of this thesis which states:

- (e) To produce a generic planning scoping checklist which Local Authorities can use when planning for sustainable tourism within the CDPs.

In light of the findings this toolkit has been designed to become a necessary link between the shortfalls identified in the planning process. In particular this toolkit attempts to bridge the gap between the academic knowledge and the applied practice of making CDPs. The proposed toolkit comprises two conceptual scoping checklists which Local Authority planners can use to ensure that they have engaged in meaningful host community participation, allowing communities to participate in planning their own futures and thereby meet Local Agenda 21 requirements. It facilitates planners in ensuring that they plan for tourism in a sustainable manner (see Figure 7.1).

### **7.5 HOST COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION CHECKLIST**

The participation checklist (see Figure 7.2) draws crucial links from academic models and state guidelines to the practical coalface, to facilitate planners in meeting the demands of host community participation.

However the design and components within this checklist must recognise a number of crucial elements. Firstly, it must be recognised that fundamentally the Irish political system at national and local levels, allows by its nature community involvement. It is an open and democratic political system which allows the election of politicians and councillors, who then may represent the community as elected members on Local Authority planning boards. It also has legal duty to allow for public consultation when making CDPs under the Planning and Development Act of 2000. Secondly, the limited nature and degree of community involvement in planning. This is characterised by a lack of manpower, financing and the restrictive tools currently being utilised to facilitate community participation at public consultation meetings.

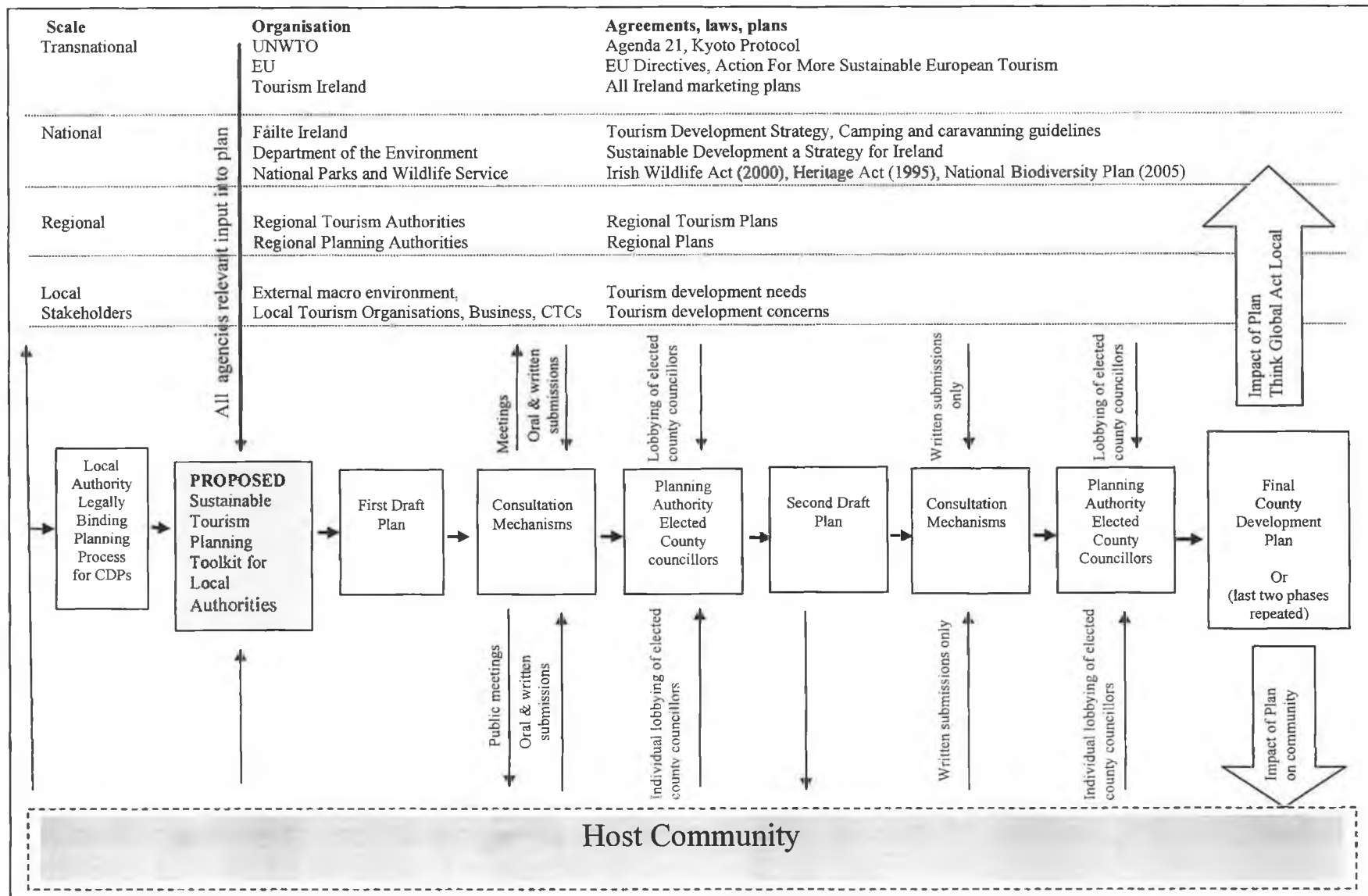


Figure 7.1 The amended Local Authority county development planning process, communication and interrelationships



It is suggested that this is located where the proposed toolkit for Local Authority planners is positioned in Figure 7.1. The checklist (see Figure 7.2) is designed to aid planners in this process and will be discussed under the following issues; host community, process of consultation, transparency, training and support, and compliance.

#### **7.5.1 Host community**

Local Authorities must recognise the statutory need to plan for communities and set aside specific resources (e.g., staff, finances) for planners to facilitate the participation process. This should allow them to develop policies which will focus on defining the host community and identification of all stakeholders.

There is also a need for Local Authorities to recognise the need to conduct research on the impacts of tourism on host communities. It is recommended that this research is not just made available within the County but also to other Local Authorities to allow planners to observe and learn from each other. Policy needs to focus on developing cooperation between the local authority and the host community and relative stakeholders to facilitate them in planning for their own future.

Local Authorities need to develop policies which recognise the important role communication plays with the host community in terms of the participation process, accountability and transparency of community submissions on draft plans. Where possible, best practice examples from other counties (i.e. Donegal) could be used to demonstrate the role of public meetings, workshops, submissions and amendments to draft plans.

#### **7.5.2 Process of consultation**

Local Authorities will need to decide on internal or external facilitator's to be used for the participation process. The next step is to determine an appropriate participation model or process which allows for active host community participation and shared decision making. The Local Authority needs to ensure a good match between the process to be followed and adequate resource allocation, development and management skills. The checklist encourages them to develop a policy which supports a model of participation

Figure 7.2 Host community participation checklist for Local Authorities

Issue	Criteria- has the Local Authority addressed this topic and is their policy relating to this issue?	Policy Number
Host community	Address the need to plan for host communities	
	Identify the role of host communities in planning for sustainable tourism, conduct research on host communities satisfaction levels with tourism , tourists	
	Fulfill the legal obligations for public consultation	
	Follow the legal process of consultation (Planning and Development Act 2000)	
	Fulfill legal obligation regarding the communication of public meetings	
Process of consultation	Decide on internal or external facilitator to be use	
	Select a specific model or process to be used to aid participation process	
	Put resources in place to facilitate consultation	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ensure participation process is specifically budgeted for</li> <li>• Ensure staff are allocated time and paid to facilitate process</li> </ul>	
	Ensure all tools to aid participation are utilised:	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Public meetings</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General talk on process and plan</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentations and exhibitions</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Questions and answers facilitated</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participatory workshops</li> <li>• Facilitate individual planning clinics</li> </ul>	
Transparency	Ensure a representative number of public consultation meetings are held	
	Facilitate written submissions to be received at public meetings	
	Ensure an inspection copy of draft plan is available to the public	
	Send copy of draft plan to all prescribed authorities:	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fáilte Ireland</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• OPW and Heritage Council</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National Parks and Wildlife Service</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• National and regional tourism agencies</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• County Development Boards</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• County Tourism Committees/forums</li> </ul>	
Training and support	Facilitate E-planning:	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Receive submission from host community online</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Make draft plan available to community on line</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Allow all submission made to be viewed on line</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide managers report online</li> <li>• Link specific submissions to policies made on line</li> </ul>	
Show direct alteration to draft plans form county councillors with specific councillor responsible and reason for alteration stated available online		
Compliance	Ensure Local Authority puts support in place for the planners	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• External training for planners in participation methods</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Internal training for all staff involved in public consultation</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• External training for county councillors on planning</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Request support from the DOE when making the CDP</li> <li>• Request literature and guides for public consultation from DOE</li> </ul>	
Compliance	Ensure Local Authority develops, finances and manages effective and measurable implementation strategies for all the checklist areas above	
	Ensure Local Authority complies with all State and EU directives, laws and policies in relation to community participation in planning	

Policy needs to support that appropriate staffing and training are put in place. Policies will need to reflect the important role of adequately financing the participation process, taking into consideration the time, resources and travel needed to engage the host community when planning for sustainable tourism.

### **7.5.3 Transparency**

Local Authorities need to develop and manage an effective mechanism which allows for clear accountability and transparency of the number of written submissions made by the host community. This necessitates making all submissions available for inspection in order to highlight actions taken or not in relation to each submission. This will allow the host community to track the progress of the submissions it has made and identify how it may have impacted on the development of the plan. Where possible, best practice should be followed whereby online databases of individually referenced submissions are kept with the reference of each submission quoted when alterations have been made to the draft plans.

The role e-planning plays in transparency and opening up communication lines in the planning process cannot be underestimated. While the research has found that the majority of Local Authorities have developed this capacity to a limited degree, it is important that the checklist ensures the creation of policies that support the development and maintenance of e-planning portals. These should make the draft plans available to the host community online, facilitate the receiving of submissions from the community and in turn allow them to view the manager's report on submissions and how they are linked to the plans, policies and strategies.

The impact and nature of alterations by county councillors to the draft plans should be made available to the host community. Therefore the checklist requires the Local Authorities to show direct alteration to draft plans from county councillors with specific councillors responsible for alteration named with the justification for alteration stated and made available online.

### **7.5.4 Training and support**

The research has identified a training need for Local Authority planners, staff and county councillors. The checklist requires the external training of forward planners in participation methods and basic external training for county councillors in planning. Internal training for all staff involved in the participation process also needs to be facilitated.

In terms of support for Local Authorities during the planning process the checklist requires planners to request support for the DOE when making the CDPs. They are also required to request any literature or support guidelines which may be available from the DOE on the public consultation phase of the planning process.

#### **7.5.5 Compliance**

Local Authorities need to develop and manage effective and measurable implementation policies for each specific topic within the checklist to facilitate host community participation. The checklist encourages planners to ensure that policies are supported by realistic, well financed and measurable implementation strategies which are reviewed and amended if necessary.

Local Authorities are also required to ensure they are complying with all State and EU directives, laws and policies in relation to community participation in planning, especially the Planning and Development Act (2000), LA 21 and its associated application.

#### **7.6 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING POLICY CHECK LIST**

Tourism has not been planned for by Local Authorities and this reflects a nationwide absence of comprehensive local level sustainable development policies to manage or mitigate the negative economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism. It is evident that the predominant development first approach to tourism planning at the local level in Ireland needs to be addressed. Sustainable tourism development comprises a number of interrelated goals including socio-cultural equity, ecological and environmental quality, economic feasibility for host community and the satisfaction of tourist expectations. The prevalence of global, EU and indeed national guidelines which aim to reconcile the tensions that exist between these three goals and seeks an equilibrium state in the long term to facilitate sustainable tourism development, has unfortunately had little impact on the design and content of the tourism plans and policies by Local Authorities in their respective CDPs.

As discussed, it is important to make a distinction between sustainable tourism the goal and sustainable tourism development the process. To reach the goal of sustainable tourism, sustainable tourism development must be planned for and operationalised before any tangible process can be made. Achieving sustainable tourism development requires an in-depth integrated approach to planning. Tourism development must be assessed on an ongoing basis

Figure 7.3 Sustainable tourism planning policy checklist

Issue	Criteria- is there a policy relating to this topic?	policy ref. #	Comments
<b>Economic</b>	Manage the long term economic impacts of tourism through responsible sustainable tourism development. Econometric analysis of tourism carried out, support local entrepreneurs and local production.		Policy needs to focus on cooperation between agencies, private and community enterprise and managing economic benefits while minimising leakages.
	Seasonality – Secure and manage tourism seasonal profile which is fully consistent with economic, social and environmental sustainability.		Policy needs to focus on addressing seasonality in underperforming areas and the current high season load incurred by honey pot destinations.
	Infrastructure – The development and management of sustainable tourism infrastructure (including land, sea, air, rail, signage, sewage, recycling and waste).		Policies need to reflect the reliance sustainable tourism development has on quality, well integrated infrastructure. Support Kyoto Protocol, CO2 reduction.
	Access – Protection management improvement of access to and understanding of natural tourism products (archaeology, heritage, landscapes, seascapes, prospects, rights of way, geology, walk ways, flora & fauna).		Policies may cover a variety of issues including protection of areas with open access, new or improved access, accessibility, interpretation for all members of society.
<b>Environmental</b>	Biodiversity- support the protection, conservation and enhancement of natural amenities and wildlife habitats. Area protection, EIA and sustainability indicators.		Policies need to recognise, protect and manage the symbiotic relationship between tourism and the environment.
	Non- Renewable resources- support the protection, conservation and enhancement of natural amenities, mountains, forests, monuments, archaeology, coastlines, rivers, lakes and inland waterways.		Policies may need to reflect the important attributes of non-renewable resources to tourism and the need to manage and protect them through sustainable tourism development.
	Carrying Capacity of sensitive natural areas of tourists centres must be identified and steps taken to ensure that this capacity is not exceeded. Zoning policies, tourist resort and camping and caravanning guidelines may be needed.		Policies may require a form of control to be exercised over the most highly sensitive areas and the implementation of plans for managing access to reduce extremes of pressure from too many visitors.
	Green housekeeping- support good environmental management of tourist accommodation and enterprises (including efficient use of natural and renewable resources, including water, energy, recycling and environmental procurement).		Policies may need to support EU directives and EU voluntary tools for tourism businesses. Such as Water framework directive, and European Eco-label for tourist accommodation.
<b>Social-Cultural</b>	Minimise adverse impacts from tourism on local communities. Protect and support social and economic prosperity while protecting and enhancing culture and host communities intellectual and cultural property rights. Disabled tourist provision.		Policies need to reflect regard for local communities concerning the impact of visitor numbers on local quality of life, culture and heritage.
	Consultation- Collaborate with host community and all tourism stakeholders in plan formation. Support and encourage educational institutions activity in the development of tourism. Industry regulation, corporate social responsibility. Formulate emergency tourism disaster plan.		Policies need to reflect consultation with all stakeholders. This can be facilitated by implementing the checklist for host community participation (see Figure 7.2).
<b>Compliance</b>	Sustainability indicators integrated into plan (resource use, waste, pollution, access to decision making, local satisfaction, tourist satisfaction, codes of conduct) Cross compliance -Tourism Policies need to have cross conformity within the CDP.		Ensure that sustainability indicators and associated tourism policy is supported and not diminished by other Policies within the Plan (including housing policy with specific reference to holiday home provision).
	EU and State compliance -EU and Government directives, laws and strategies are complied with.		Policy should address EU and Government tourism related laws, directives & strategies.
	Develop, finance and manage effective and measurable implementation strategies for all policy areas.		Policies need to be supported by realistic implementation strategies.



in order to identify the relevant impacts and provide valuable information to guide subsequent responses. In order to facilitate this, planners must actively and continuously plan for the ecological, social, economic and planning environments within their particular counties. This thesis suggests that the planning process can be aided through the provision of a guideline or tool which facilitates sustainable planning for tourism. Certainly the receptivity of the planning process seems to indicate that a sustainable planning policy checklist for tourism specifically designed for Local Authorities could have a significant impact. It is suggested that this is located where the proposed toolkit for Local Authority planners is positioned in Figure 7.1. The checklist of tourism policies (see Figure 7.3) is designed to aid planners in this process and will be discussed under the following issues; economic, environmental socio-cultural, compliance and implementation.

#### **7.6.1 Economic**

The thesis has identified a general absence of any policies to mitigate or minimise the negative economic impacts of tourism, which could be detrimental to the future of the Irish tourism industry leaving the growth and development of tourism open to dependency on imports, characterised by foreign ownership resulting in high leakages and low economic returns from tourism. Therefore, the checklist firstly requires planners to assess the economic impact of tourism and ensure policy focuses on cooperation between agencies to support the private sector and community enterprise in managing economic benefits while minimising leakages.

Policies will also need to focus on addressing the area of seasonality in underperforming areas and, if applicable, dispersing the current high season load incurred by some honey pot destinations within the county. Policies need to reflect the reliance sustainable tourism development has on quality, well-integrated infrastructure and support global agreements like the Kyoto Protocol. Policies will need to address a variety of issues in relation to public access including protection of areas with open access, new or improved rights of way, accessibility and interpretation of the area for all members of society.



### 7.6.2 Environmental

The crucial area of planning for the impact of tourism on the environment has not been addressed, with a general absence of clear policies and guidelines on tourism interaction with the environment, area protection and biodiversity. Even the most basic components of any tourism plan like tourism signage and guidelines for camping and caravanning have not been adopted by over half of all the Local Authority plans. Again this absence advocates a development first approach. Local Authorities tourism plans and policies do not demonstrate a clear understanding of the symbiotic relationship between tourism and the environment. The checklist will ensure that policies recognise, protect and manage this symbiotic relationship, reflecting the important attributes of non-renewable resources to tourism and the need to manage, protect and conserve natural amenities, mountains, forests, monuments, archaeology, coastlines, rivers, lakes and inland waterways through sustainable tourism development.

Policies on tourism land use, zoning, resort planning and design standards need to be applied and integrated into plans across Ireland. Sustainability indicators for tourism have to be developed for each area and integrated into the tourism plans, in order to provide tourism managers with the information they require to plan effectively. The checklist requires Local Authority tourism policies to exercise a form of control over tourism development particularly in highly sensitive areas with the implementation of plans for managing access to reduce extremes of pressure.

Policy needs to make sure steps are taken to ensure that this capacity is not exceeded, through establishing carrying capacity, zoning policies, tourist resort and camping and caravanning guidelines which in turn must be reinforced with achievable implementation strategies.

There is also a clear need for policies to support EU directives and EU guidelines and tools for tourism businesses. These include the Water Framework Directive, and European ecolabel for tourist accommodation that advocates and provides pan-European certification for green housekeeping, that supports good environmental management of tourist accommodation and enterprises (including efficient use of natural and renewable resources, including water, energy, recycling and environmental procurement).

### **7.6.3 Socio-cultural**

The need to plan, manage and mitigate socio-cultural impacts of tourism cannot be underestimated. The sustainable tourism planning framework has clearly highlighted a serious number of concerns regarding the absence of provision for local satisfaction surveys, ratio of tourists to locals and intellectual and cultural property rights. This highlights that socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Ireland are not being adequately addressed in Local Authority tourism plans. Policies need to provide for consultation with all stakeholders and this can be facilitated by implementing the checklist for host community participation (see Figure 7.3).

Individual policies clearly need to reflect a regard for the host communities concerning the impact of visitors on local quality of life, culture and heritage. Policies need to be designed to protect and support social and economic prosperity, while protecting and enhancing the host communities' intellectual and cultural property rights, and provision for all members of society including, for example, the disabled tourist.

The thesis also identified a serious lack of policy on industry regulation, professional association regulation, voluntary self-regulation or even corporate social responsibility. As this baseline study indicates, the Local Authorities at this time have made no attempt to regulate or control the tourism industry within their respective counties. Policy needs to ensure collaboration between the host community and all tourism stakeholders in developing codes of conduct, industry regulation, corporate social responsibility and the collective formulation of emergency tourism disaster plans.

### **7.6.4 Compliance**

One possible reason for such low levels of sustainable tourism planning could be related to the lack of integration of global and EU strategies and guidelines relevant to planning for tourism. The thesis suggests that this warrants urgent attention and further research. Moreover, the integration of national strategies was also low with only a quarter of Local Authority tourism policies reflecting the 'Sustainable Development, A Strategy for Ireland, 1997' report (DOE, 1997). Local Authority tourism policy must therefore be designed to integrate and comply with EU and Government directives, laws and strategies which pertain to tourism.

The area of cross compliance is essential and must be monitored. Tourism policies need to have cross conformity within the CDPs to ensure that sustainability indicators and associated tourism policy is supported and not diminished by other policies within the plan. For example, housing policy within the wider Local Authority plan must comply with the tourism policy on holiday home provision.

The majority of Local Authorities tourism policies had no implementation strategies and those which had, often lacked task designation, time frames and budget allocation. This in turn renders most existing tourism policies sterile with no effective means of implementation. It is essential that Local Authorities develop, finance and manage effective and measurable implementation strategies for all their tourism policies. This checklist integrates within the compliance section that implementation strategies need to be supported by realistic time frames, with trained staff to roll out the tourism plan, evaluate its success and adapt the plan in consultation with the community if needed.

#### **7.7 SUPPORT MECHANISMS FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING**

The sustainable tourism planning tool for Local Authorities needs to be supported at local, regional and national levels. Given the relative success of Local Authorities in developing policies in relation to archaeology and historic preservation, which is mainly due to the support of the 'Heritage Appraisal of Development Plans' (Heritage Council, 2000), it is suggested that this tool has a number of support mechanisms in place to facilitate its application, assisting Local Authorities to include appropriate parameters when planning for sustainable tourism. This will, however, need significant support from national agencies and a comprehensive communication and education programme for effective implementation.

The thesis recognises a need for national tourism agencies to proactively engage in the planning process with all Local Authorities across Ireland, in order to support them and ensure cross compliance of State and EU guidelines and strategies. The DOE needs to prepare detailed practical guidelines for planners on facilitating participation. This needs to be reinforced with education and training in relation to facilitating the host community in the planning process. This needs to be supported with specific Local Authority budgets and staff ring-fenced to engage the host community in the planning process. County Councillors across Ireland need to be educated and trained in the fundamentals of planning in a manner which respects the significant power and authority they have within the Irish planning system.

Given the relative success of the heritage appraisal of development plans by the Local Authority appointed heritage officers, it is recommended that Local Authorities appoint tourism officers who would be responsible for appraising the tourism plans and working with the community, stakeholders, planners and county councillors in planning for tourism in a sustainable manner.

## **7.8 FUTURE RESEARCH**

The two frameworks developed in this research allow for longitudinal analysis on the levels of host community participation and sustainable tourism planning to take place in the future, something rarely seen in tourism research. This should give a clear indication of any changes, in overall levels of participation and the nature of involvement by the host community and the relevant stakeholders, while also tracking the level and depth of sustainable tourism planning at Local Authority level across Ireland.

While there was some cross reference and integration of specific tourism policies within the overall CDPs, for example holiday home provision policies from the tourism section being integrated into the housing section of the CDP. This research did not focus on this area of integration and it was not significantly addressed. It is suggested that this would warrants further research.

The host community does not seem to actively engage in the planning process. It is not evident if these low levels of participation are due to complete contentment by the host community with how tourism is planned or because limited liability is being experienced. This warrants further research on the level of host community satisfaction within planning for tourism.

## **7.9 CONCLUSION**

This applied research has identified significant gaps in host communities' participation in sustainable tourism planning across Ireland. The fundamental need to recognise the role of host communities in planning and conduct research on their attitudes to tourism has been ignored. The process to facilitate community participation in CDPs to date is basic in nature and represents at best pseudo-participation. In many cases, sustainable tourism has not been planned for or even mentioned within CDPs. It has been established in the course of the enquiry that there is a gap in the transfer of knowledge from academics and tourism agencies to Local

Authority forward planners who are responsible for facilitating the community in designing the tourism component of CDPs.

One of the fundamental keys to improving this situation rests with the Local Authority forward planners. This research provides these planners with a practical solution, in the form of a sustainable tourism planning toolkit. The design of this toolkit recognises the limitations discussed by the forward planners and the results generated from the application of the two frameworks in terms of process, staffing, finance, training and time. This toolkit consists of two specifically designed checklists. The first facilitates planners in engaging host communities in meaningful participation when planning for tourism. The second assists planners in the process of planning for tourism in a sustainable manner in the context of the tourism component of CDPs.

This proactive solution to what represents a significant gap in the transfer of knowledge will be communicated to the recently established environmental unit of Fáilte Ireland and the forward planning division of the DOE. If these checklists are adopted in principle by these agencies there should be a positive transformation in host communities' participation in sustainable tourism planning at the Local Authority level within the republic of Ireland.

## **APPENDIX A**

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### SUMMARY OF ABBREVIATIONS FOR COUNTIES USED IN ANALYSIS TOOLS



CW Carlow  
CN Cavan  
CE Clare  
CK Cork  
DL Donegal  
SD South Dublin  
F Fingal  
G Galway  
KE Kilkenny  
KD Kildare  
KY Kerry  
LS Laois  
LM Leitrim  
LK Limerick  
LD Louth  
Lc Limerick City  
MH Meath  
MO Mayo  
MN Monaghan  
O Offaly  
R Roscommon  
S Sligo  
Ts Tipperary South  
Tn Tipperary North  
WD Waterford  
WM West Meath  
WX Wexford  
W Wicklow

## **APPENDIX B**

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### **SUBMISSIONS FOR BRPA**

## WRITTEN SUBMISSIONS RECEIVED DURING CONSULTATION

An Taisce  
Banbridge District Council  
BMW Regional Assembly  
Bogside and Brandywell Initiative, Derry  
Bonner, Cllr. Alice, Donegal County Council  
Brennan, Cllr. Joe, Monaghan County Council  
Castleblayney Town Council  
Cavan Town Council  
Caldwell, Ms. Joan  
Co Monaghan Regional Game Council  
Coiste Chontae Liatroma Cumann Luthchleas Gael  
Colreavy, Cllr. Michael, Leitrim County Council  
Combat Poverty Agency  
Construction Industry Federation  
Cootehill Chamber of Commerce  
Council for the West  
D'Arcy, Cllr. Jim, Louth County Council  
Department of Arts, Sports & Tourism  
Department of Communications, Marine & Natural Resources  
Department of Enterprise, Trade & Employment  
Department of Finance  
Department of the Environment, Heritage & Local Government  
Department of Transport  
Dolan, Mr. Seamus, Belturbet, Co. Cavan.  
Donegal County Council  
Donegal County Council – Community, Culture & Enterprise Department  
Donegal County Development Board  
Drogheda Borough Council  
Drogheda Port Company  
Dundalk Chamber of Commerce  
Dundalk Institute of Technology  
Dundalk Town Council  
East Border Region  
Eastern Regional Fisheries Board  
Enterprise Ireland  
ESB  
Faussett, Cllr. Robert, Cavan County Council  
Forfas  
Foyle Fishermans Co-Op, Donegal  
Glor Bhreifne  
Greater Dublin Area RPG Review Team  
Guckian, Mr. Brian, Independent Rail Campaigner  
Heritage Council  
IBEC North West  
ICBAN  
IDA Ireland  
Irish Waste Management Association  
Kearns, Mr. Hubert, County Manager, Sligo  
Killycashel Project  
Leitrim County Council  
Leitrim County Development Board  
Leitrim Partnership  
Letterkenny Chamber of Commerce & Industry  
Living Architecture Centre, Leitrim  
Louth County Council  
Maher, Cllr. Frank, Drogheda Borough Council  
Marine Institute, Galway  
McFadden, Mr. John, Member of County Forum, Donegal  
McGloin, Cllr. Siobhan, Leitrim County Council  
McGowan, Cllr. Patrick, Donegal County Council  
McKenna, Cllr. Patsy, Monaghan County Council

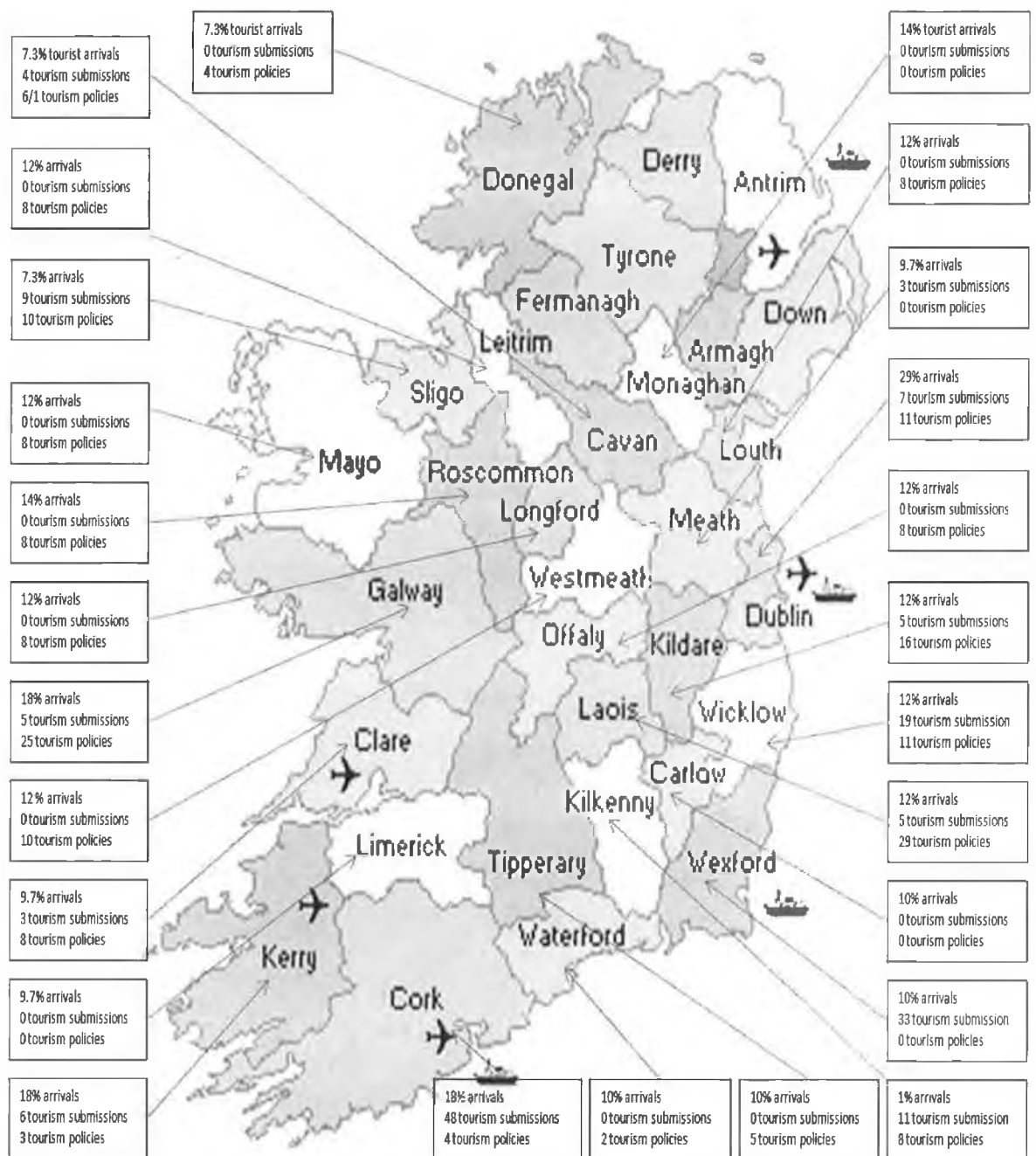
Midland Regional Authority  
Minister for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Brian Cowan, T.D.,  
Minister for Social & Family Affairs, Ms. Mary Coughlan, T.D.  
Monaghan County Council  
Monaghan Federation ICA  
Mulroy, Aid. Jimmy, Drogheda Borough Council  
National Roads Authority  
Newry & Mourne District Council  
North West Region Cross Border Group  
North Eastern Health Board  
North Western Health Board  
North Western Regional Fisheries Board  
Northern Regional Fisheries Board.  
O'Brien-Campbell, Cllr. Maria, Mayor of Drogheda  
Office of Public Works  
Quinn, Mr. Brendan, Sligo  
Reilly, Cllr. Tommy, Louth County Council  
Royal Town Planning Institute  
Sinn Fein  
Sinn Fein Elected Members, Clones Town Council  
Sligo County Council  
Sligo County Development Board  
Sligo County Enterprise Board  
Smyth, Mr. Martin, NRA Liaison Engineer  
Tesco Ireland Ltd.  
Truagh Development Association, Monaghan  
Tully, Cllr. Oliver, Louth County Council  
Udaras na Gaeltachta  
West on Track  
West Regional Authority

## **APPENDIX C**

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### **Geographic location of community submissions**

## Geographic dispersion of tourist arrivals, tourism policies with the CDP's and host community submissions made to the CDP



### Key:

% arrivals = The total percentage of tourist arrivals to the destination

Tourism submissions = The total number of tourism related submission made by host community to the County Development Plan

Tourism policies = The total number of tourism policies in the tourism component of the plan



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