Alexandre Panosso Netto
Luiz Gonzaga Godoi Trigo *Editors*

Tourism in Latin America

Cases of Success

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Presentation

The quality of Latin American tourism has been the theme of increasing analysis focus by experts, as well as awakened interest from international scholars, on leisure and tourism, in the continent. Researchers who work exclusively with English have difficulties to find studies on tourism related to this area of the globe and articles which have high quality are written in English. We also identify interest from a large group of international investigators on tourism work and development methods, tourism studies, and practices of this area.

Scholars from Latin America are supposed to do such analysis and reflection, providing the theme at a global level (hence the importance of publication in three languages), so it gets more notorious, discussed, and developed, both in the continent and in other countries interested in economy, society, culture, and tourism of Latin America countries.

The continent has been through many difficulties over its five centuries, from European colonization until its independence, particularly over the last 30 years. Such difficulties have led to deep changes in the world. The continent reaches the twenty-first century with new possibilities and innovations in many areas of economy, including tourism. Countries such as Mexico, Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Chile, and Argentina have nowadays positive results generated by cases of success. The continent is no more a land of future promises and is becoming with new conquests a continent of realities and good practices which should be analyzed and criticized by experts.

It is important to notice how this advancement has taken place, how these cases have developed, understand their causes, agents, management, and planning system, as well as their form, their ability to face challenges, and their handicaps.

The Gross Domestic Product of these countries expands intensely in the tertiary sector. These economies are no longer agricultural and exporting, and have become references in the sector of specialized services, including those focused on leisure and involve hospitality, travels and tourism, entertainment, gastronomy, events, indoor and outdoor recreation, etc.

The main languages of the continent, Spanish (spoken by approximately 400 million people in the world) and Portuguese (spoken by 235 million people in the

world), represent a huge market in terms of culture, history, economy, social issues, and a considerable collection of specific tourism cases, successful and typically Latin American. The publishing market in Spanish language is very significant, both in original Spanish-American works and in translation to other languages. On the other hand, Brazil, Portugal, and several African countries are the largest consumers of publications in Portuguese.

In the acronym BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India and China) the first letter stands for Brazil, a country which during last decade has acted harmoniously with other Latin peoples, including those from Iberian peninsula, inaugurating a foreign policy committed to the continent and aiming at exchanging economies, ideals, and culture with its Latin America neighbors. The continent regional, cultural, thematic, linguistic, economical, and academic integration will be discussed in this book.

Mexico, Brazil, Chile, and Costa Rica are some of Latin American countries which have some good examples and models of touristic development, respect for the environment and social inclusion, despite several problems they still present. Some of the best practices are object of study, along with analysis of how these projects helped improving the environmental and social surroundings and to ensure return on investments.

The authors of this book are all acknowledged in the area of tourism in the Latin America, whereby some possess acknowledgment abroad also in their countries of origin and beyond American frontiers.

This Latin-American collaboration increases the axis of studies and publications in tourism, formed by Canada–United States, United Kingdom, China, Southeast Asia, Australia, and New Zealand, since Latin America has a history of successful cases in tourism and needs to find its specific and relevant place acknowledged by international academy.

In a time of deep changes all over the world, in technological, social, political, economic, and cultural fields, the Latin American countries also face challenges and doubts about how to increase their performance, but also have enough will power to be a part of this new world, respecting their different profiles and competences.

It is important to understand the *ethos* and the nature of Latin American process through contemporary history. The continent is no more a weird place of *magic realism* or just a network of *plantations* to serve the foreign imperialism. The agro business, the industrial belts in some countries, the strength of financial markets, the hubs of high technology, and the flamboyant field of services bloom in the last decades forging new economies. Those services are also specific in terms of market niches, from the popular niches until the luxury and exclusive desires of consumption.

In the tourism field, the offers are also much more complex and tasteful. The chapters of this book shows that the Latin American tourism is more than just carnival and soccer in Brazil, the Mexican white sand beaches, the lust nature of Costa Rica, the Colombian coffee, the vineyards in Chile, and the rural farms of Argentina. Not to mention the breathless landscapes famous since von Humboldt and other European explorers drafted to the world some centuries ago.

The following chapters discuss how the continent awakened for the importance of professional tourism, to the diversity of tourism attractions, and the higher quality of services. The two first introductory chapters are responsible to presents these new realities, and the next ten chapters discuss some top cases in several countries.

For sure there are still even problems or opportunities to develop the tourism sector in the continent, and there is a long way to get the same highest standards found in the development areas of the world. But there is also a history of well-being enterprises, projects, and good examples of success.

We hope the readers will meet here the clear sensation that there are new destinations and new players in the competitive world in search of consumers well connected with environment preservation, high quality of services, respect for ethics and social justice, and needs of sustainable development.

That was the target of this book.

Winter North, Summer South, 2014.

Sao Paulo, Brazil

Alexandre Panosso Netto
Luiz Gonzaga Godoi Trigo

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Chapter 1
Latin America: Imaginary, Reality and Tourism

Alexandre Panosso Netto and Luiz Gonzaga Godoi Trigo

Abstract Latin America has always dazzled travelers. Conquistadors, missionaries, courtiers, merchants, smugglers, adventurers, chroniclers and scientists have always been enchanted by its natural wonders and its aboriginal cultures. A rich culture and history shaped the challenges and conquers of Latin America. In this chapter we described and analyzed contributed to social and local economic difficulties and, consequently, difficulties for tourism. We should reflect on the fact that tourism does not develop satisfactorily in the macro-region because it suffers the negative effects of poor public management, poverty and a lack of formal education in the population.

The authors believe that a different type of tourism will only be possible in a more participative society. Capital and knowledge are important in building that society, but reassigning value to humanism is essential for life to be preserved and dignified.

Keywords Latin America • Tourism • Imaginary • Culture • Problems of tourism and cases of success

Introduction

Latin America has always dazzled travelers. Conquistadors, missionaries, courtiers, merchants, smugglers, adventurers, chroniclers and scientists have always been enchanted by its natural wonders and its aboriginal cultures. These peoples can be found throughout this vast territory composed of rich metropolises and fragile, impoverished villages.

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Fig. 1.1 Latin America. *Source*: Authors, 2013

From Mexico to Patagonia, Latin America extends for 21 million km^2 and is home to nearly 600 million people, currently divided into 20 countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela. Latin languages like Portuguese and Spanish prevail, followed by French and Italian to a lesser scale. There are also native languages, spoken by smaller ethnic groups and tribes, such as Quechua, Xavante, Guarani, Aymara, Nahutl and several Mayan languages. The imaginary of this part

of the American continent, to the south of Anglo-Saxon America, is a mosaic constructed by foreigners and natives over the course of centuries, one that overlaps the local reality (Fig. 1.1).

The imaginary of the peoples of Latin America was, from the start, built on dubious ground. It started with humans confronting the unknown, when Europeans turned their gaze here during the Age of Sail in the sixteenth century, a time when Portugal and Spain traveled the world.

A Portuguese saying from the 1500s foretold of the heterodox, divergent alternatives to the rigid European morality that failed to take hold in the recently-discovered continents: "south of the Equator, everything is permitted." Brazilian musician and songwriter Chico Buarque expressed these feelings in his song *Não existe pecado ao sul do Equador* ("There is no sin south of the Equator"):

> There is no sin below the Equator;
> Let's sin together, ripping, sweating, at full steam,
> Let me be your hag, your doormat, your lover,
> A river of love. When it comes to depravity,
> check it out, I teach the course.

The theme of the song is a rereading of French anthropologist Lévi-Strauss' *A World on the Wane* (first published in France in 1955 as "Tristes Tropiques"). The moral foundations for the new continent had set. In addition to a relaxed sexual morality, there were also economic and political liberties, as well as a cultural void. This void was filled, albeit only partially and in a sectarian manner, by the missions of the Jesuits, Franciscans, Dominicans and other religious groups that brought the Christian cross wherever the European conquistadors' swords reached.

There was no lack of Latin Americans who repudiated their own lewd customs, in the early twentieth century, despite relegating them to the bygone age of discovery:

> The climate, the lonely freedom, the sensual natives, encouraged and multiplied unions of purely animal emotion. The Edenic impression that assailed newcomers' imaginations climaxed with the charm of the indigenous women's complete nudity. (. . .) For the men coming from guarded Europe, the ardent temperament, amoral manners, lack of civilized modesty – and all the constant voluptuous tumescence of the virgin nature – were invitations to live a wild, unbridled life where everything was allowed. The natives, in turn, were lewd animals, living without any constraints over the satisfaction of their carnal desires. (Prado, 2001, pp. 73–74).

This critical spirit is strong and explicit. The city of Salvador, Bahia, Brazil's first capital and a center of lush historical and architectural wealth, is thus described: "Located in a rolling region crossed by clear rivers, blue skies, fertile land and forests of lush trees, the city seemed to be the image of Paradise. It was, however, where demons tempted souls into populating hell." (Miranda, 2006, p. 8).

Thus arose Latin licentiousness, particularly the Brazilian variety. At its base were the ethnic and cultural roots of exploitative colonialism, as opposed to the settler colonialism of North America, which had received migrant families bringing tools, cattle, and other domestic animals. These groups had familial or geographical

ties. They left Europe behind as they crossed the Atlantic heading west in search of land, work, liberty and a future to be built.

The part of the continent that would come to be Latin America became an exploitation colony, all thanks to its geographical characteristics, immense mineral riches, and a climate that favored extensive agriculture. This land drew in solitary men who wanted to "make it in America" and return to Europe with capital. They left behind their temporary women, bastard children and slaves, both native and imported from Africa. All of this in the hostile, exuberant wilds.

A History Rich with Images

The first centuries after the "meeting" between Europeans and natives were marked by confrontations, ecstasy and battles. They fought against the strange and enormous nature that gushed through the immense, untamed territories. The natives who survived the European conquest had no writing with which to express their ideas. Latin America was portrayed, in books and periodicals, by the foreigners arriving at her shores. Afterward they told of their experiences in the "world on the wane," or, as the oldest accounts put it, in the simulacrums of the garden of Eden.

Some Guarani natives had a legend about the "land without evil," which they sought throughout their travels into the savage heart of South America. The Europeans, in turn, had a vague sense that the biblical Eden might be located somewhere inside the newly-discovered lands. Sérgio Buarque de Holanda (2010, first published in 1959) dedicated two chapters of his book, *Vision of Paradise*, specifically to this topic: chapter 7, "Paradise Lost"; and chapter 8, "Vision of Paradise."

> In any case, it cannot be said that the lure of the subject of paradise had been any lesser for the Portuguese during the Middle Ages and the era of great maritime discoveries, than it had for the other Christians from all over Europe, and even Jews and Muslims. (. . .). The belief that Eden was extant and physically real seemed unshakeable at the time. (Holanda, 2010, p. 226).

In addition to the Judeo-Christian, other, pagan legends told of fantastic islands and other lands west of Europe, lost in the wilderness of savage seas. The island of Hy-Brasil was told to lie at the same latitude as the Azores and south of Ireland. The islands of the Lotophagi and of Prospero were located in the Mediterranean, therefore there could be other wonders in the huge, unknown oceans that extended beyond the Pillars of Hercules (Page & Ingpen, 1992).

The legend of El Dorado (from the Spanish *el dorado*, "the gilded one"), Manoa (from the Achaua *manoa*, "lake") or Manoa del Dorado arises during the 1530s. The story told of a native from Colombia who had covered himself with gold dust and dived into a lake in the Andes. At first a golden man or golden king, and subsequently a place rich in gold was imagined.

Although Muisca artists worked gold into many items, some of which can be found today in the rich collection of Bogota's Gold Museum, the golden cities dreamed of by conquistadors, who hoped to repeat Francisco Pizarro's feat in Peru, never existed. All evidence suggests the Muisca got their gold by trading with indigenous peoples from other regions.

Hungry for more gold, the conquistadors made the legend migrate eastward, to the Llanos of Venezuela and then beyond, to today's Brazilian state of Roraima and the Guyanas. By the late sixteenth century, the legend had evolved into a version that placed the golden city, then known as Manoa, in the vast and imaginary Lake Parima, and it was said to have been founded by Incan refugees fleeing Pizarro. The legend is similar to the one about Paititi, or Candire, a city full of riches that is said to have served as refuge for the Incas escaping from the Spanish conquest, but which was usually located much further south, in the jungles of Bolivia and Peru or in Brazil. The two legends share a common origin in the dreams of becoming rich held by conquistadors such as Francisco Pizarro, the conqueror of the Incas (Page & Ingpen, 1992, pp. 109–111).

The first images of American lands started appearing in the early sixteenth century, in pictures accompanying the letters of Amerigo Vespucci, published as serials. At the time, Vespucci did not have a very clear idea of where he had gone ashore and neither were cartographers in agreement over their location. The name "America" was adopted by German cartographer Martin Waldseemüller in 1507, when he drew a new planisphere and included, for the first time, the recently-discovered lands.

> The name of this place arises from the desire to overcome the legendary scope brought about by conjectures regarding the utopian existence of islands and passages, by the discovery of land and by the finding of an inhabited continent. Beyond the Atlantic, there was nothing but legend and, for this reason, the testimonials told by travelers acquired the guise of truth and the images they evoke are seen as evidence. (Belluzzo, 1994, p. 18).

The first two books containing illustrations from French travelers to Brazil were published by André Thevet. They were entitled *Les singularitez de la France Antarctique* (1557) and *La cosmographie universelle* (1575). Thevet accompanied Villegagnon's 1555 expedition to the region now called Rio de Janeiro with the intention of founding "Equinoctial France," a project that withered in the face of Portuguese resistance. He did, however, leave behind illustrations and commentary about the "strange, extraordinary and exotic" things found in the new world being unveiled to Europeans. Animals, plants, natives and landscapes composed a fantastic imaginary that portrays a mysterious, unknown, exciting and fascinating paradise.

Cesariano's illustrations for Vitruvio's 1521 book *De Architetura* were probably the main sources for sixteenth century illustrators, and were pivotal in defining popular knowledge about the Americas. The main focuses were

> Images based on the ancients' ideas about the life of primitive men, nude, crouching, gathered in bands, living joyfully around the fire, which was interpreted as a symbol of man's passage into social life. (. . .). They were beings with bodies perfected by an active

> lifestyle, in touch with nature, beautiful men and women, harmoniously sculpted and as serene as Greek heroes. (Belluzzo, 1994, p. 39).

Other illustrators such as Jean de Léry, Theodore de Bry and Assuerus de Londerzell multiplied the number of images about the recently-discovered lands. Despite depicting regions that today belong to Brazil, these illustrations interpreted the whole for its parts. Only later was information compiled about the other cultures from this continent. In 1557, Juan Fernandéz Ladrillero, sailing aboard the San Luis, began exploring Patagonia, in the continent's southernmost reaches. This was immediately following the discovery of the strait that bore the name of Fernando de Magallanes, first traversed in November 1520, in an expedition that gave the region its name, Tierra del Fuego.

In the case of Brazil, at the root of every testimonial is German explorer Hans Staden's, who lived as a prisoner among the Tupinambá natives. His story assumed legendary undertones and founded the genre of travel literature for the country (Belluzzo, 1994).

One of the first landscape illustrators to come to the Americas was Franz Post, a young Dutch painter who traveled to the Brazilian northeast in 1637, at age 25. His paintings with scenes from Olinda, Recife, and the Pernambuco countryside are masterpieces. In celebration of the 500 years since the Portuguese arrived in Brazil, a publication listed the foreign artists who portrayed Brazil and South America. Here are some artists who defined a significant part of the Latin American imaginary: Albert Eckhout (1610–1655), Nicolas Antoine Taunay (1755–1830), Thomas Ender (1793–1875), Jean Baptiste Debret (1768–1848), Conde de Clarac (1777–1847), Arnaud Julien Palliére (1783–1862), Aimé Adrien Taunay (1803–1828), Johann Moritz Rugendas (1802–1858, whose canvases about our forests are impressive for their beauty and cyclopean scale), Charles Landseer (1799–1879), William Burchell (1781–1863), Eduard Hildebrandt (1818–1869), C. J. Martin (1820–1860), Abraham Louis Buvelot (1814–1888), Raymond A. Q. Monvoisin (1794–1870), Joseph Leon Righini (1820–1884), Ferdinand Keller (1842–1922), François-Auguste Biard (1798–1882), Henri Nicolas Vinet (1817–1876) and Emil Bauch (1823–1890). The nineteenth century saw new pioneers, foreign photographers who were the first to portray the South American world using the new technique. Among them stand out Louis Compte, Victor Frond, Benjamin Mulock, August Stahl, Revert-Henry Klumb, George Leuzinger, August Riedel, Alberto Henschel, Albert Frisch, Marc Ferrez. Lastly, in the twentieth century came professional photos by Claude Lévi-Strauss, Pierre Verger, Marcel Gautherot Jean Mazon, Geneviève Naylor and Orson Welles (Ferreira, 2000).

The long list of foreign artists shows how the continent has always held an aesthetic, sensual and cultural allure for the European imagination. Long before the rise of tourism in the twentieth century, American wonders delighted Europeans and fulfilled their dreams and desires, as in the past the wonders of the East, near and far, had ignited their imaginations. The only contender for European and global attention toward the Americas was perhaps Africa.

In 1799, Alexander von Humboldt and Aimé Bonpland came to South America embroiled in a complex social fabric and at a critical point in history. They had come to work on a project involving travel, research and case reports that led to an ideological reinvention of the continent, with repercussions on both sides of the Atlantic. His 30-volume work, entitled *Travels to the Equinoctial Regions of America*, later influenced Darwin's travels and received compliments from Simon Bolívar.

Other important books produced by Humboldt were *Views of Nature* (1808) and *Views of the cordilleras and monuments of the indigenous people of America* (1810). About him, Pratt said:

> Humboldt reinvented South America first and foremost as nature. Not the accessible, collectable, recognizable nature, but a dramatic, extraordinary nature, a spectacle capable of overwhelming human knowledge and understanding. Not a nature that sits and waits to be known and possessed, but an active nature, bestowed with vital powers, many of which are invisible to human eyes; a nature that dwarfs humans, dominates their beings, awakens their passions, challenges their powers of perception. (Pratt, 2010, pp. 229–230).

Humboldt's immense work canonized three South American nature scenes: (1) an overabundance of natural forests (Amazon and Orinoco); (2) snow-capped mountains (the Andes and Mexican volcanoes); and (3) the vast central plains (Venezuela and the Argentinean pampas).

These, the first of the more scientific travel reports, are part of a body of work represented by other explorers like Henry Stanley, who witnessed the looting of Africa; Roger Casement, who traveled to expose the horrors described by Stanley; and Joseph Conrad, the Polish-British author who converted the ruin of the Congo into an allegory for Europe's failure and who wrote the masterpiece *Heart of Darkness* (1903). This last novel was adapted into the movie *Apocalypse Now*, directed by Francis Coppola, in 1979, in a setting transplanted to Southeast Asia (1970), amid a war the United States was fighting against the Vietcong in Vietnam.

Attraction and Estrangement

The wilderness in Africa, Asia and Latin America is strange and frightening. The reports about Cambodia by André Malraux (*The Royal Way*, 1930) are all it takes to see how the hot, sticky oppression of the forests crushes the will of human beings who venture through those green walls. It is impossible not to compare the despair of the forests with the estrangement caused by the flooded South American plains, as terrible as the dense, mysterious forest. The Mesopotamias of the south surround the river basins that disappear into the horizon among the waters and lowlands, covered with vegetation and desolation. On this, Saer stated:

> The smell of these rivers is unique in this land. It is a smell of the source, of humid, hard-working formation, of growth. Leaving the monotonous ocean and penetrating into them has been like descending from Limbo to Earth. We could almost see life forging itself anew from the rotting moss, the clay welcoming millions of formless creatures, minuscule and

> blind. The mosquitoes blotted out the sun in the swamp's environs. The absence of humans did nothing but add to this illusion of primordial life (Saer, 2002, p. 26).

Untamed nature offers travelers the oppression of its magnitude, estrangement and loneliness, not to mention the horror of its dangers, latent, elusive and almost alien. The natural dangers of exotic lands (exotic for whom?) were compounded by a sparse few intriguing legends and ruins.

The source of mythical tales of lost civilizations lies in the rubble of colossal monuments, overgrown with forests or abandoned in the plateaus. It was only in the nineteenth century that archeologists like F. Catherwood, among others, would bring them to light. Thus the world learned about the stone cities in Yucatán, the Tehotihuacan complex, the cave paintings and architecture of Tiahuanaca, Nazca, Machu Picchu and Cuzco. These ancient temples are so strange that they and their oriental parallels became the sources of cosmic horror envisioned by H. P. Lovecraft in the 1930s. They were passed on to his circle of literary followers and readers around the world. Lovecraft's dismal and nihilistic view of the world and of life is so successful that to this day it is difficult to find his books, even at used book stores. His work represents North America facing its unconscious fears, the fruits of previous generations, aboriginals and immigrants bringing together their individual horrors when faced with a new world to challenge them and bearing a profound estrangement to their neighbors south of Mexico (to this day, still a challenging and permissive border, represented by Tijuana and other exciting locations along the border between the Anglo Saxon and Latin Americas).

This is the same fear reported in the countryside of old Brazil by Leite Moraes:

> We walked to Itaboca, famous Itaboca, the terrible Adamastor of Tocantins mariners, the insatiable tomb that holds in its depths hundreds of corpses and dozens of vessels, the likely path into eternity, the journey through the unknown, the present absorbed by the past; the time without a future! Itaboca is the grim thought that, from the upper Araguaia, darkens the face of the boldest navigators and prostrates them, burdened with the sinister omens of a catastrophe! (Moraes, 1995, p. 259).

Or, in opposition to fear, the courage of German priest Sommer, in *Vila dos Confins* ("Frontier Village"). There, in a dark hut, he stalks and hunts the black jaguar with a simple spear. He pits another hunter's teachings and his own courage and cold-bloodedness against the greatest terror of all the mammals: facing a big cat in the darkness, in the confines of an unexplored cave (Palmério, 1989, p. 88).

The untamed wilderness dominated the continent for centuries. Wilson Martins states that

> *Vila dos Confins* is, in its way, a "portrait of Brazil," as bitter and melancholy as Paul Prado's, but infinitely more shocking, that is, more eloquent. Brazil is 'that' and will continue to be 'that' for a long time: it's astonishing to see the difference in 'cultural eras' separating us, men from the metropolitan cities, and men from the countryside. The constellation of values is entirely different, which is often stated, albeit without calculating the exact scope of the phenomenon; the psychological reality itself is different. (Palmério, 1989, p. XVI).

There are many Brazils, according to Martins (apud Palmério, 1989), which overlap and contrast with one another. The same holds for Latin America. The brutal differences in economics, culture and the various stages of development and conflict also characterize this macro-region. A certain sadness and melancholy is installed by the Latin *Macondos*. These emotions are so hurtful they could be called harrowing and are made evident even in the simplicity of daily life.

> A stubborn little rain lashes the canopy of the mango tree that shades the back of my backyard, the water soaks the ground, soft as cemetery soil, something unpleasant I can't identify pursues me without positively fixing onto my spirit. I feel troubled, oppressed. Under the maddening rain, a sort of sticky fog, the mango tree in my yard and the neighbor's rose bushes are almost invisible. (Ramos, 2004, pp. 15–16).

The continent's solitude has a patron: Octávio Paz. In his classic work *The Labyrinth of Solitude*, he portrays Mexico's paradoxical conflict, "born of a singular and duplicated imperialistic violence: by the Aztecs and the Spanish." (Paz, 1984, p. 92).

As was the case in other locations in the continent, Mexico's self-awareness as a nation arose in a hybrid manner, between pagan legends and Christian teachings. J. Lafaye tries to explain how these spiritual factors were articulated between the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries. After the Spanish conquest, two major Aztec deities, civilizing hero Quetzacóatl and Mother Goddess Tonantzin, were identified by Creole priests respectively with Saint Thomas the Apostle ("São Tomé" in Brazil) and Our Lady of Guadalupe, worshipped in the shrine of Tepeyac, on the outskirts of Mexico City.

The legend of Thomas the Apostle in the Americas is ancient and can also be found south of the Rio Grande. As early as 1516, as Duarte Barbosa completed his book about the worship of this saint in the Indies, his presence was already reported on the Brazilian coast. The first known version of this presence of the disciple of Jesus Christ in American lands is effectively found in what is known as the New German Gazette. And it referred, as we know today, to the journey of one of the ships equipped by D. Nuno Manuel, Cristóvão de Haro and others, which on October 12, 1514, reached the island of Madeira on its return trip. The records in the Gazette told that

> . . .Gospel preaching had reached these ports and their natives remembered its teachings. 'They remember Thomas,' says the text. And it continues: 'They wanted to show Thomas the Apostle's footsteps along the countryside to the Portuguese. They also say they have crosses throughout the land. And when they speak of Thomas the Apostle, they call him the lesser God, but say there is another, greater God. (Holanda, 2010, p. 175).

It is interesting to note that the Mormons, from the Midwestern United States, also have stories about the coming of Christian apostles to the Americas long before the discoveries.

Jorge Luis Borges fills his voluminous literary work with European motifs that are repeatedly combined with the Latin American imaginary. Mirrors, labyrinths, swords, ethics, tigers and old age compose his oeuvre, anchored on the teachings of literature and philosophy. Between the Germanic and Spanish languages, Borges

created a mythos of his own that went beyond the borders of Buenos Aires or Argentina. His works *Fervor de Buenos Aires*, *Cuarderno San Martin*, and *El Martin Fierro* show a cultured but Latin Argentina. Unlike, truth be told, Robert Arlt, the first Argentinean author to introduce Buenos Aires' landscape of poor suburbs, urban heroes and the city's forgotten, anguished majority to literature; he fled from the regionalism that dominated the literary period spanning the first half of the twentieth century. All this is part of the *Latin American Labyrinth*, the auspicious title to Octávio Ianni's essay discussing the many historical interpretations, the dilemmas of national issues, and the labyrinths of ideas from the continent.

The Sacred and the Profane

The overlap of official and popular Christianity on native beliefs initiated the construction of the meta-region's spiritual mythos. This mythos would later be enriched by the arrival of African slaves who brought another source of the spiritual treasure that would articulate itself on the new American continent. Europeans, native Americans, Africans and immigrants from all cultures came to live in a place Luis Spota (1956) called, with a sense of irony, "casi el paraíso" (Almost Paradise) in his novel by the same name. In fact, paradise it was not, but it was becoming a place that was all at once marvelous, scary and strange for its inhabitants and for adventurous travelers who ventured down its unknowable paths.

Africans account for a special chapter in the continent's history. At the end of the eighteenth century, they championed the only victorious revolt against white slave owners and founded a country in Haiti, which over time has become an example of misery, corruption and oppression, but this time perpetuated by their African brothers. However, from Louisiana to the Brazilian coasts, through the Caribbean and Central America, the African culture created new spiritual ties, often overlap onto those of Catholicism or aligned with native beliefs. This forged cultural identities and expression that drew the attention of anthropologists Pierre Verger and Roger Bastide and united the African and American continents.

Europeans, Africans and Native Americans felt the weight of conquest and continental exploitation, whether through solitude, anguish or estrangement. As for the natives, almost nothing was left of their ideas, dreams and hopes. There was no future for the autochthonous people of the continent. They were devastated by wars, illnesses and misery of every sort. Very few Aztec, Mayan and Quechua poems are known, with rare exceptions that were recovered from the rubble of history, such as the collection El Reverso de la Conquista (The Reverse of the Conquest) (Leon Portilla, 1978).

Few expressed the feelings of estrangement as did Argentine Juan José Saer. He recounted the impressions of a European lost in the simplicity of the rivers that empty into the Plata river. Liquid lead colored plains that intersect lush lands, under a sky that is often threatening.

> This absence of the senses, which, uninvited, pervades us and everything, it permeates us quickly with a taste of the unreality of days, which wear away under its weight and somnolence, leaving behind only a flavor, a vague reminiscence or shadow of objection that somewhat clouds our interaction with the world. (Saer, 2002, p. 152).

It is not only nature that causes this estrangement, but also culture. In this sense, fantastic realism is something that emerges in the realm of a rich, innovative and committed literature rooted in the crossing of cultures. Understanding Latin America means, necessarily, listening to its music, watching its movies, seeing its dances, and perhaps dancing them yourself in a hot night, under the full moon while slightly drunk from local liquors. It involves participating in celebrations of various types and tastes, contemplating its majestic cities where misery and luxury overlap, from hillsides covered in precariously dangling shacks to the suburbs that in one place boast luxurious condominiums and, in another, shantytowns devoid of infrastructure or beauty.

You have to read its books. So much conflict, beauty, wars and wealth have generated a strong and exquisite literature. Many of its writers have won the Nobel Prize: Chilean poets Gabriela Mistral (1945) and Pablo Neruda (1971); Colombian Gabriel García Márquez (1982), Guatemalan Miguel Ángel Asturias (1967), Mexican essayist and poet Octavio Paz (1990); and Peruvian Mario Vargas Llosa (2010). Argentinean Jorge Luis Borges has probably not won a Nobel for Literature because of his conservative views, which is a pity, because his work is genius.

In the 1930s, three young Latin American writers (Miguel Angel Astúrias, Arturo Uslar e Alejo Carpentier) in Paris, decided to ignore French surrealism, which was unnecessary in their opinions, because their continent abounded in "wonderful realism". Thus emerged the fantastic realism that culminates with A Hundred Years of Solitude (1967) by Gabriel Garcia Marques. The work recounts magic, miracles, legend and fantastic events that happen in Macondo, the novel's fictitious town, which has become, in of itself, a fantastic reality in universal culture.

Populism

From fantastic realism to the populism of the first half of the twentieth century, the continent acquired its own characteristics, not all admirable, but certainly native. Populism was a typical phenomenon that moved from the archaic agrarian societies to urban, industrialized and more modern centers. It happened in Mexico under the leadership of General Porfírio Diaz, at the end of the nineteenth century, and with Lázaro Cárdenas (1934–1940); in Argentina with Yrigoyen in the 1920s, and with Juan Domingo Perón (1946–1955); several times in Ecuador between 1934 and 1972 under the governments of José Maria Velasco Ibarra; between the 1930s and 1950s in Bolivia with Victor Paz Stensoro and Hermán Siles Suazo; in Brazil with Getúlio Vargas (1930–1945 and 1951–1954) and in the labor government of João Goulart in the 1960s.

In the twenty-first century, there has been a populist revival in Venezuela and Bolivia, with leftist governments that are nominally democratic. There have also been localized phenomena of intense popularity, such as with the government of Lula in Brazil (2003–2010) that was nonetheless characterized by democratic and pluralist structures accompanied by great economic development. A standard of the continent is the Cuban dictatorship, in place since 1959, one of the last places on the planet to carry the label "socialist" and to maintain authoritarian and centralized practices.

Stereotypes

The image of the continent in the view of more advanced countries, especially the United Sates, was built on the propaganda campaign of WWII. With the intent of gaining Latin American sympathies for the Allies (US, France, UK, and ex USSR), Hollywood approached the continent to the south of its empire by constructing professedly "friendly" stereotypes to attract partnerships against the Axis (Germany, Italy and Japan).

A good example of such pre-conceived notions communicated to the world is the character of Joe Carioca. He is a friendly parrot who loves samba and soccer and detests work, who lives off swindles and by taking advantage of his friends. Such characteristics were remarkable and created the illusion that the Brazilian population adheres to the same social principles. Born in the Disney studios in the 1940s, Joe Carioca started his career in comic strips. He garnered worldwide fame with the movie *Alô, amigos* (*Hello, Friends*) in 1942, which earned Oscar nominations for Best Sound, Best Soundtrack and Best Original Song, followed by *Saludos Amigos* (*Hello Friends*), and the *Três Cavaleiros* (*Three Gentlemen*), and *Você já foi a Bahia*? (*Have you Been to Bahia*?) in 1944, which was nominated for three Oscars in the categories of Best Sound and Best Soundtrack in a Musical. There were also a Mexican and possibly an Argentinean character, but the Brazilian stereotype was the most publicized.

As for Brazil, specifically, the stereotype persists that the country is a place for carnival, beautiful women and the best soccer in the world. This imaginary limits the possibilities for creating a proper tourism image for the country, which partially explains the low number of foreign tourists it has hosted over the years. The same is true, to a greater or lesser extent, of other Latin countries. Worldwide they are viewed as delayed, underdeveloped, violent, lacking in tourism infrastructure, covered in forests, mosquitoes and wild animals. That image of the continent with regards to tourism limits the efforts of national governments to create successful strategies to promote tourism. Changing this image for international tourism requires money, knowledge, technology, effort and time.

Military Dictatorships

Recent tragic moments for the continent took place during military dictatorships that spread starting in 1964 with the military coup of Brazil (which lasted until 1985), followed by bloody coups in Argentina (1966–1983), Chile (1973–1989), Uruguay (1973–1984), Bolivia (1971–1985), Guatemala (1970–1985), Peru (1968–1980), with the government of El Salvador (1931–1979) and Paraguay (1954–1989), and were prolonged by the military regimes. During the Cold War (1947–1991), the Latin American bourgeoisie sought to maintain their status by relying on the local military, with tactical support from the US. Such actions had disastrous effects for the local economies and cultures. It stopped development, maintained the untouchable privileges of the few and hindered social advancements. However, it achieved its objective: to combat socialist tendencies and maintain the status quo of the establishment.

Specific Problems and Possible Solutions to Latin American Tourism

The context we described and analyzed contributed to social and local economic difficulties and, consequently, difficulties for tourism. We should reflect on the fact that tourism does not develop satisfactorily in the macro-region because it suffers the negative effects of poor public management, poverty and a lack of formal education in the population.

Among the primary specific problems for the development of tourism in Latin America, of note are:

- A lack of concern for the environment in some destinations.
- The absence of skilled workers to meet the demands of tourism;
- The inconsistency of public policies and plans for tourism. With each government that comes into power, a new tourism plan is implemented.
- Widespread poverty of the population living in the macro-region, though countries like Chile, Mexico and Brazil have seen economical growth recently.
- The erroneous vision of Latin America and its possibilities for tourism held by foreigners. In addition to this is a lack of a clear tourism image of the countries.
- The economic instabilities of the region do not allow for consistency in tourism investments. This also hinders foreign investment in Latin American tourism.
- The great distances from the main sources of tourists, including Europe, Asia and even the US and Canada.
- The stereotype held by local communities that tourism is only for rich people who come from distant places. Such a point of view makes it difficult to involve local communities in the tourism industry.

But how can we improve this situation and correct these mistakes? In a certain way, these issues have already been discussed by Panosso Netto and Trigo (2009) and are reiterated here in their entirety.

The need to reposition the discussion and actions surrounding tourism policies is obvious, whether domestic or international, public or private, industry or community, macro or micro. Several problems need to be addressed. One is to end the discourse that only recognizes the good points of tourism and condemns critics as not having strategic vision. The other problem is the erroneous custom of not preparing communities and different business sectors to have a group discussion and take joint responsibility for tourism projects and policies. Much is said about the responsibility of governments, but little is said about the responsibility of the organized civil society: unions, environmental organizations and people interested in quality of life, businessmen and their associations.

Businessmen have direct responsibility for planning, ethics and the maintenance of high quality standards. When there are problems in the hotel and tourism industries, businessmen are some of the first to be affected and it is essential to maintain the financial stability of the countries, starting with the health of businesses, because this is beneficial not only to businessmen but also to their employees, suppliers, clients and to governments (which depend on the taxes paid by everyone). It is obvious that the responsibility also falls upon the governments. However, the changes that must be made are the direct responsibility of those connected to the travel and tourism industries.

We believe that another type of tourism is possible for Latin America. A more inclusive, sustainable, responsible, participative, ethical and democratic tourism.

This type of tourism is standard practice in other destinations. The world has lost much of the rebelliousness and spontaneity that arose during the 1950s and 1960s with the beat and hippie movements. The last 30 years of the twentieth century contemplated the end of socialist ideals and the dampening of libertarian dreams. The yuppies inaugurated a cynical and materialist way of life and, soon after, violence exploded throughout the world, filling the void left by the defeated utopias. We experienced a world of what is "possible" and with that misery and mediocrity increased around the globe. The laws of the market corrupted the laws of society and both society and the market suffered with that degradation. A small minority became richer and more powerful, dominating a world that is ever more similar to the worst nightmares of the science fiction of the last century. This model is reflected in Latin America, to a greater or lesser degree in different countries.

The events of the beginning of the twenty-first century, such as the attack on the twin towers in New York and the west's response to this act of terrorism, herald another century of barbarity.

How can we say that tourism is a flag of peace in a world where war continues to be a profitable means of domination?

How can we state that tourism helps build understanding between peoples if borders are closed to millions who are excluded?

How do we view tourism as a possibility for development if globalization threatens to degenerate into a "globaritarian" and dogmatic system?

What can be done with those who are excluded in a planet that irresponsibly exhausts its natural resources and where shortages of water, food and habitable land threaten entire populations?

What will tourism be like in 2050 or 2080.

The possibilities for balanced, fair and sustainable growth exist, and new technologies should benefit life to the detriment of the struggle for hegemonic power that leads to suffering and death.

Globalization needs to enhance positive aspects and deter its perversions, typical of disproportionate power and lack of social vision. Poor destinations, including those in Latin America, Africa, Asia and Middle East are included in this context. New societies must be founded on humanism and on scientific knowledge aimed at the full development of human, natural and technological resources. It is up to the generations currently living on the planet to determine its future. Enlightenment must hover over everyone. For starters, we must propose an agenda of discussions and initiatives concerning the consequences of tourism and its relationship with the current world.

It must consider the following items in order to build not only a better tourism in Latin America, but a better world as a whole:

- Democratic digital access
- Citizenship
- Opposition to prejudice in general
- Opposition to corruption, organized crime and impunity
- Opposition to child sex trade
- Opposition to terrorism in all its forms
- Political democracy
- Reduction of social and economic inequalities
- Higher education for everyone
- Understanding that tourism is not just an economic fact
- Ethics in all levels of government, politics and society
- Globalization with emphasis on social, not just economic, aspects
- Inclusion in all its forms
- Social justice
- Better distribution of wealth
- A greater guarantee of access to opportunities for all
- Democratic and cultural pluralism
- Recovery of a sense of peace and liberty
- Solidarity
- Sustainability

The travel and tourism industry is one of the most significant in the global economy; therefore it must play an important role in building a new international order. Anywhere in the world, tourism depends on a balanced and fair society in order to fully develop.

A different type of tourism will only be possible in a more participative society. Capital and knowledge are important in building that society, but reassigning value

to humanism is essential for life to be preserved and dignified. Human life, animal and vegetable life and the planet itself, which sustains all of that life, are our greatest assets. The rest—money and intellectual ability—, must be secondary to the life of the majority, according to all religions and symbiotic philosophies that have endured millennia. Humanity's journey on this planet is already 100,000 years old. There was great material and intellectual progress in that period, in comparison to the first hominids, but the same is not true about the progress of our awareness that the planet is the home of every man and woman and of life in general, which was present even before primates came to be. Our goal is to ensure that everyone enjoy this adventure in the Universe, and science or technology cannot ensure that in isolation.

Each has to play a part. That is what we wish for tourism in Latin America.

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Chapter 2
Latin American Economy and Tourism

Glauber Eduardo de Oliveira Santos

Abstract This chapter analyses tourism in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) from a broad economic perspective. Despite of its immense potential, tourism in LAC has presented disappointing results. The region has some of the best natural and cultural attractions, but still receives only 7.7 % of world international tourist arrivals. A myriad of aspects can be listed as causes of this deficit, most of them being related to more general economic and political problems. Most LAC countries are developing economies characterized by poor public policies, deep social inequality, low educational levels, faulty investments and a long history of poverty, characteristics that provide hard conditions for tourism development. Nevertheless, general economic and political conditions seem to be improving over the last years. The region is going to face some relevant opportunities in the near future and development perspectives are relatively good. This chapter's introduction analyzes LAC's economic history and general economic conditions. An overview of tourism supply in LAC is presented next. Tourist attractions, infrastructure, services and governance are briefly described. International and domestic tourism figures are analyzed subsequently. Arrivals, receipts and contribution to GDP are examined by country and region. Finally, some present challenges and future perspectives for tourism in LAC are debated.

Keywords Tourism in Latin America • Tourism economics • Tourism development • Impact of tourism • Tourism statistics

This chapter analyses the relationships between tourism and economy in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), a region with 52 countries and territories that extend from Patagonia to Mexico, including more than 7,000 islands in the

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Caribbean Sea.[1] This is an exceptionally diverse region in geographical, cultural, economic, political and tourism terms. Such diversity imposes substantial challenges for summarizing and analyzing the local reality considering all its dimensions and details. However, relevant similarities and relationships among these countries and territories turn this effort into a valuable task.

The European colonization process is the first and main common aspect providing unity to LAC. Most of this territory was colonized by Spain and Portugal, although France, Netherlands, England and the United States had their shares in the occupation process, especially in the Caribbean. LAC's economic history is attached to exporting mining and agricultural sectors. The first relevant commodities of this region were silver, gold and sugar. In the first centuries after the arrival of the Europeans, LAC's economy developed majorly through the implementation of monoculture farms and mining companies. These production units gave birth to the oligarchies that dominated power and shaped local society. Slave and indigenous labor were used in large scale and the segregation between white and non-white people, rich and poor, remained strong for centuries. The oligarchies also shaped the nature of the state, its functioning, vices and weaknesses.

Most LAC countries became independent in the first half of the nineteenth century. In the same century, after the abolition of slavery and the increase of immigration, some initial structural changes in the economic system took place. However, the essential characteristics of LAC economies and societies remained stable until the first decades of the twentieth century (FURTADO, 1970, 2003). The most evident transformations in this region happened after World War I with the birth of industry and major political changes. Since then, the history of this region was marked by revolutions, coups, overthrows, civil wars, dictatorships and populist governments. The populist governments of Perón in Argentina (1946–1955), Vargas in Brazil (1930–1945/1951–1954) and Cárdenas in México (1934–1940) are some of the most relevant examples of the first half of the twentieth century, while in the second half the most significant regimes are the military dictatorships that happen in several countries of LAC, including Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, El Salvador, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela.

The weight of European guidance in LAC diminished along the twentieth century as the United States became the occidental leading power. North American

[1] Latin America itself groups the set of American countries which had Spanish, Portuguese or French colonization. The Caribbean corresponds to those countries and territories in the Caribbean Sea, including islands and continental areas. In this study, the operational definition of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) includes the following countries and territories: American Virgin Islands, Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, Bolivia, Bonaire, Brazil, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Curaçao, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, French Guiana, Grenada, Guadeloupe, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Martinique, Mexico, Montserrat, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Puerto Rico, Saba, Saint Barthélemy, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Martin, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Sint Eustatius, Sint Maarten, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands, Uruguay and Venezuela.

influence on the region increased significantly after the victory of the Allies on World War II. The Cold War with Russia boosted U.S. interest on LAC as the spread of communism became a major concern. U.S. foreign policies eventually led to massive political, diplomatic, military, economic and cultural influence on the region. LAC countries continued to be at the periphery, although the role of the central economy started to be played by a new country. This permanent peripheral condition gave birth to the structuralist economic school of Raúl Prebisch and Celso Furtado (FILIPPO, 2009). These ideas had significant influence on some LAC economic policies. Unfortunately, they were not sufficient to free LAC from its peripheral condition and track it to the development path. After its revolution, Cuba became the only significant anti-American enclave in LAC. The commercial and financial embargo imposed by the U.S. against Cuba had profound impact in the economy and society of this socialist island.

Social and economic damage of sociopolitical disturbs along the twentieth century were substantial in several LAC countries. Many years were necessary to compensate direct losses of these events. These disturbances also led to organizational chaos, what harmed long term economic growth. Economic instability, inflation, public indebtedness and trade isolationism were remarkable characteristics of most LAC countries along the twentieth century. Despite of the innumerous governmental economic plans, these countries were not able to achieve continuous development. Additional negative shocks in the economy of the region were caused by decreases in commodity export prices. Public inefficiency, bureaucracy and corruption also contributed to mine the Latin American project of economic development. Local growth explosions were almost always preceded and followed by decades of stagnation. The result of this set of factors was a long term economic growth that failed to rescue LAC from poverty and underdevelopment.

Nowadays, LAC concentrates 8.1 % of the world GDP. In absolute terms, two countries qualify as large economies. Brazil, with a US$2.3 trillion GDP, is the seventh largest economy of the world. Mexico, with a US$1.2 trillion GDP, is at the 14th position of this ranking. Argentina, Venezuela, Colombia, Chile, Peru and Puerto Rico may be considered medium economies as their GDP exceed US$100 billion. The GDP of another 14 LAC countries is between US$100 billion and US $10 billion.

The economic power of large and medium LAC economies is shown to be illusory when their large populations are taken into account. Brazil, with a population of 199 million people, has a GDP per capita as small as US$11,300. In Mexico, the population of 121 million people takes the GDP per capita down to US$9,700. The average GDP per capita in LAC is US$9,600, the equivalent of one fifth of the United States. The discrepancy among LAC countries is also substantial. The GDP per capita in Bermuda is US$86,100, what makes it the only high income country in LAC. Among medium income countries are Puerto Rico, Aruba, Bahamas, Trinidad and Tobago and Chile. The poorest countries in LAC are Haiti, Nicaragua, Honduras, Bolivia, Guatemala, Guyana, El Salvador and Paraguay. The GDP per capita in Haiti is only US$771, less than 1 % of Bermuda's GDP per capita!

Social, political and economic problems of recent LAC history led to disappointing growth. From 1960 to 2012 the per capita income annual rate of growth in LAC was only 1.8 %. At the same period, per capita income increased each year by 3.5 % at the East Asia and Pacific countries and 2.3 % at OCDE and European Union countries. Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, Belize, Panama and Chile were the fastest growing LAC economies in this period. At the opposite side are some disasters of the economic growth, such as Nicaragua and Venezuela, where income increased at the annual average rate of 0.1 % between 1960 and 2012.

General economic conditions of LAC are far from the worse considering world reality. However, misery is everywhere. Slums, homeless townsmen and miserable peasants are some tragic icons of the enormous social inequality. According to the Gini Index, 9 among the top 20 countries with worse income distributions worldwide[2] are Latin American (UNDP, 2013). The richest 10 % in each country controls between 30 % and 48 % of national wealth, while the poorest 10 % attain between 0.4 % and 2.6 % of this total (World Bank, 2012). Some of the most unequal LAC countries are Haiti, Honduras, Bolivia, Colombia, Guatemala and Brazil (UNDP, 2013).

Medium income level in conjunction with enormous inequality lead to relatively low life conditions in LAC. Barbados has the higher Human Development Index (HDI) of the region. Nevertheless, it is only at the 38th position of the HDI world ranking.[3] Chile, Argentina and Bahamas are also among the top 50 world higher HDI. On the other hand, 9 LAC countries are not even among the top 100 world higher HDI. Some of the countries with the worst conditions of life are Haiti, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Honduras.

Nowadays the industrial production is larger than the primary sector in all LAC countries.[4] The industry accounts for no less than 50 % of the GDP in Trinidad and Tobago, Venezuela and Puerto Rico. In the two former, the main industrial activity is petrochemical, while the industrial sector in Puerto Rico is mainly oriented towards manufactured goods exports to the United States because of its reduced trade barriers associated with its condition of associated state. Despite of these exceptions, the tertiary sector dominates most LAC economies. Tourism, as it will be discussed afterwards, constitutes the main economic activity in several Caribbean islands. Banking is a particularly relevant service export in Bahamas and Cayman Islands. In the remaining LAC countries, the major share of tertiary production is oriented to retail, transportation, housing, communications, education, health and public administration services. The tertiary sector accounts for 61 % of LAC's economic production, while the industry accounts for 33 %, and the primary sector for the remaining 6 %, as shown in Fig. 2.1.

[2] Information available only for 129 countries.

[3] Information about the HDI was obtained from the United Nations Development Program (UNDP, 2013).

[4] General information about the economy of each country was obtained from the World Bank database (World Bank, 2012). The main statistics quoted along the text are available for each country at Appendices 1 and 2.

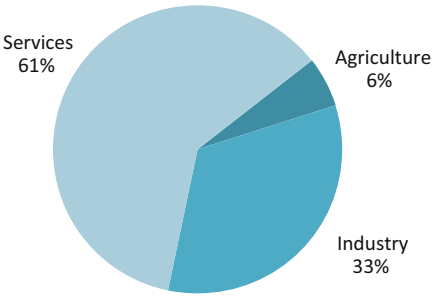

Fig. 2.1 Distribution of LAC GDP by sectors. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

Tourism industry presents a large potential to generate income and welfare in LAC. Nonetheless, its development imposes innumerous challenges and risks. The actual condition of this activity in LAC, the potential of the region, its deficiencies and future perspectives are analyzed in the following section.

But before proceeding, one explanation is necessary. The LAC reality is extremely heterogeneous, what encumbers the accomplishment of an abbreviated analysis. This region is formed by countries with very different geographical, social and economic characteristics. Differences among countries are also found with respect to their distances to the main tourism markets, climate, natural and cultural resources, sociopolitical conditions, and in several other aspects. Given this complexity, the analytical process of the LAC tourism and economy may be facilitated by the identification of some relatively homogeneous regions. This analytical strategy will be adopted in the following. In this sense, South America, Central America and the Caribbean islands are identified as relatively homogeneous regions, or, at least, less heterogeneous. Mexico constitutes an independent category due to its particular dimension and location. Finally, Cuba is another country that requires special attention because of its unique sociopolitical condition.[5]

Tourism Potential and Obstacles in LAC

The set of tourist attractions in LAC is wide, diversified and formed by several world class elements. The set of natural tourist resources ranges from paradise beaches to snowy mountains, including exuberant jungles and the greatest biodiversity. The region has innumerable internationally known beaches.[6] The Amazon, a rainforest

[5] The reality of Cuba is so unique that it will receive little attention in the following analysis. The complexity of the Cuban case has been examined by various specific studies. Some of the recommended studies about this case are Henthorne and Miller (2003), Padilla and McElroy (2007), Miller, Henthorne, and George (2008), Sharpley and Knight (2009) and Taylor and McGlynn (2009).

[6] According to the Choice Awards promoted by TripAdvisor (2013), six out of the top ten best beach destinations of the world are in LAC.

that spreads over nine South American countries, has landscapes and species of extraordinary value and immense potential to attract tourists. The Andes and the Patagonia offer many alternatives for snow and mountain tourism, including winter sports and adventure.

Besides these elements of uncontestable prominence, many other areas in LAC offer relevant natural attractions. The region has 36 natural World Heritage sites (UNESCO, 2013). Seven Latin American countries are among the ten most biodiverse countries of the world.[7] Brazil is at the top of this list with more than 3,000 known species. According to the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI), which was developed by the World Economic Forum (WEF, 2013), Brazil has the best set of natural tourist attractions of the world. Costa Rica and Mexico are also in the top 10 best natural tourism destinations. In fact, Costa Rica is internationally known as a benchmark for the management of nature tourism (Matarrita-Cascante, 2010; Simms, 2010; Weaver, 1999). Besides, Panama, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Argentina, Venezuela and Bolivia are also part of the world elite in terms of natural tourist attractions.

The set of cultural tourist attractions of LAC is also notable. Pre-Colombian ruins spread from North to South. Machu Picchu and the Mexican pyramids are probably the most prominent sites. Besides, the region offers relevant cultural attractions related to the colonial and recent history of each country. At total, LAC has 91 cultural World Heritage sites (UNESCO, 2013). Mexico, with 32 of them, is the sixth country with the largest number of World Heritage sites. Popular culture, traditional festivals, craftwork and modern cultural manifestations complement the mosaic of cultural attractions of the region. According to the TTCI, Mexico and Brazil are among the top 25 cultural tourism destinations (WEF, 2013). The cultural tourist potentials of Colombia, Peru and Argentina are also very important, what places these countries in the top 50 cultural tourism destinations.

But tourist motivations in LAC are not restricted to natural and cultural attractions. Health treatments, religion, business, friends and relatives are also important tourist motivators. Medical tourism has developed significantly in some LAC countries, mainly due to price competitiveness. The quality of medical services of some specialties has also contributed to the increase of this activity. Some highlights are cancer treatments in Cuba and plastic surgery in Brazil. Religious tourism in LAC, which is relevant mainly at the domestic level, is majorly related to Christian festivals and devotions. The Basilica of Our Lady of Guadalupe in Mexico and the National Sanctuary of Our Lady of Aparecida in Brazil are important examples of attractions in this tourism segment, each one attracting more than 10 million visitors every year. Business also motivates substantial international and domestic tourism flows in LAC. Large economies, such as Brazil and Mexico, and countries highly opened to international trade, such as Panama and Puerto Rico, are important destinations for business tourism. Finally, visiting

[7] Data from the "Red List of Threatened Species 2010" published by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and available on WEF (2013).

friends and relatives is a major tourist motivation, especially in highly populated countries, such as Brazil, Mexico and Colombia. The same holds true for highly populated cities, such as São Paulo, Mexico, Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Lima and Bogotá.

The level of tourism development in LAC is highly heterogeneous. Several Caribbean islands make good use of their tourist potential, especially in terms of sun and sea tourism. However, most LAC countries still take few advantage of their potential. South America is probably the least efficient region in the use of its tourist resources, attracting only a few million tourists despite of its immense potential (Santana, 2001).

In general terms, LAC countries undergo diverse structural problems that severely harm their ability to develop the tourism industry. Economic and financial instability, structural unemployment, inflationary pressure, income inequality, uncontrolled urbanization, lack of public safety, health problems and political uncertainty are some of the main fundamental factors that ruin tourism perspectives in the region (Strizzi & Meis, 2001). These problems hamper the development of tourism in three main ways. First, such difficulties compete with tourism for public and private resources available for investment. In several cases, the urgency of social matters prevents granting any level of priority to tourism development. Second, the reality of underdevelopment causes direct harms to tourist experience, such as through traffic jams, pollution and lack of public safety.[8] Third, structural problems leading to poverty, corruption, social disruption, environment destruction and other problems contaminate the image of LAC tourist destinations, and consequently decrease their attractiveness.

In addition to structural problems, there are innumerous specific obstacles to the development of tourism in LAC countries. Few countries face tourism as an economic priority. In this small list, Jamaica, Barbados, Dominican Republic and Costa Rica should be underscored (WEF, 2013). It is not a coincidence that tourism in these countries has developed significantly. On the other hand, at most LAC countries the lack of efforts oriented towards tourism development contributes to the partial employment of existing tourism potential.

One of the most important requirements for the development of modern tourism is air transport. This activity is particularly relevant for LAC countries because of the large distances between them and the European and Asian source markets. South America, differently from Central America and the Caribbean islands, is also distant for USA tourists, what turns the air transport even more crucial for this region. Unfortunately, the reality of air transport in LAC is not favorable. The airport infrastructure is deficient in many South and Central American countries, such as Paraguay, Nicaragua, Guyana, Bolivia, Guatemala, Suriname, and Venezuela (WEF, 2013). Air transport services are also poor in several countries. One of the main reasons for that is the legacy left by inefficient state air companies that

[8] A very interesting analysis of the relationship between public safety and tourism in Colombia is available on Ospina (2006).

long survived through governmental protection against competition. Air transport deregulation and competition increase in LAC countries is recent and still incomplete. Although some air companies affirm to be low-cost, just a few ones actually adopt this marketing strategy. Most recently, there has been some renovation process in a few countries and internationally competitive air companies are beginning to emerge.

Ground transport infrastructure is also poor in several LAC countries. Insufficient road networks and faulty roads maintenance are serious harms to independent domestic tourism. Difficulty of access by ground, water or air makes it impossible to develop tourism in several locations with important resources. Innumerous waterfalls, mountains, monuments and other potential tourist attractions of great value remain isolated and without any use because of their inaccessibility.

Tourism services in LAC are highly diverse. Some of the most relevant accommodation services are regular hotels, chain hotels, small posadas, resorts and cruise ships. The fast expansion of international hotel chains has changed the scenario of the accommodation sector at large LAC cities, forcing the adoption of international standards by the whole industry (Álvarez, Cardoza, & Bernardo, 2005; Proserpio, 2007). Resorts are particularly important at the Caribbean islands and Mexico (Issa & Jayawardena, 2003; Harrison, Jayawardena, & Clayton, 2003; Montero, 2011). This sort of accommodation facility has recently increased also in the rest of Latin America (Hall & Braithwaite, 1990; Jayawardena, 2002; Kester, 2003; Lawton & Butler, 1987; Wood, 2000). More than half of the international visitors of several countries in the Caribbean Sea are cruise passengers.[9] In Cayman Islands and Dominica this share is above than ¾. Most recently, the cruise industry has also increased in some South American countries (Saab & Ribeiro, 2004), where some highlights are the summer cruises in Brazil, Colombia and Venezuela and the austral cruises in Chile and Argentina.

Chain hotels, resorts and cruise ships are frequently created from large foreign investments. Consequently, most economic benefits of these accommodation services are usually reap by a few investors. Besides, social and environmental costs of these facilities are frequently significant. Social concerns related to these sorts of accommodation services in LAC range from distress of local inhabitants with the massive presence of tourists up to hostility and violence (Boxill, 2004; Jayawardena, 2002). Environmental impacts include occupation of fragile areas by resorts, maritime pollution by cruise ships and stress of general natural resources by both. Additionally, tourists in resorts or cruise ships usually have little or none contact with local communities of visited areas. Therefore, the flow of tourism income is restricted and social segregation becomes evident. Finally, cruise ships compete with other types of tourism, repelling some of the traditional tourism activities (Bresson & Logossah, 2011; Brida & Zapata, 2010). In summary, due to this set of factors, the liquid benefits of chain hotels, resorts and cruise ships to LAC economies are contestable at some degree.

[9] According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) Yearbook (UNWTO, 2010).

The growth of large tourism service companies at the major LAC destinations has led to reduction of the participation of locally owned companies. However, this sort of companies is still the majority in smaller destinations with insufficient scale to sustain large companies. Small locally owned companies are also majority among food services, ground operators, retail and other tourism supporting services. These companies usually follow family managed standards, sometimes presenting low service quality and inefficiency in terms of employment of resources.

Several initiatives of community based, low impact and soft tourism have been carried out (Bartholo, Sansolo, & Bursztyn, 2009; Boxill, 2003; Trejos & Chiang, 2009). The search for a more sustainable tourism has included the tentative of obtaining a better distribution of tourism economic benefits, at the same time that social and environmental costs are minimized. Unfortunately, these initiatives are still rare enough to be unable to define the actual reality of tourism in LAC. In fact, nowadays these initiatives are still best described as laboratories of future promises.

International Tourism

In 2012, LAC attracted 79.2 million international tourists, what corresponds to mere 7.7 % of the worldwide 1,035 million international tourist arrivals.[10] The amount of international tourists in LAC is relatively small if compared, for instance, to the 83.0 million tourists that visited France in 2012. Even more worrying is the fact that the share of LAC in world inbound tourism is decreasing in recent times. Over the last two decades, the tourism rate of growth in this region was smaller than in the rest of the world. From 1990 to 2012, the number of international arrivals in LAC increased at an average annual rate of 3.4 %, a slow pace as compared to the world rate of 4.0 %.

But this unfavorable condition does not represent all countries in LAC since there is a strong heterogeneity in the region. Most countries attract small numbers of tourists, while few countries present substantial inbound tourism flows. Mexico is the main tourism destination of LAC, attracting over 23.4 million tourists in 2012. The difference between Mexico and other LAC countries is large, since it is visited by over four times the number of tourists Argentina, the second largest destination in the region.

One of the main competitive advantages of Mexico is its geographical location. The Mexican border with the large USA market is a blessing for its inbound tourism. In fact, about 42 % of the inbound tourists of Mexico visit only the border zone. Even among those who go beyond this zone and visit other areas of the country, 82 % come from the USA (México, 2012).

[10] Information about international tourist flows was obtained from the UNWTO (2013).

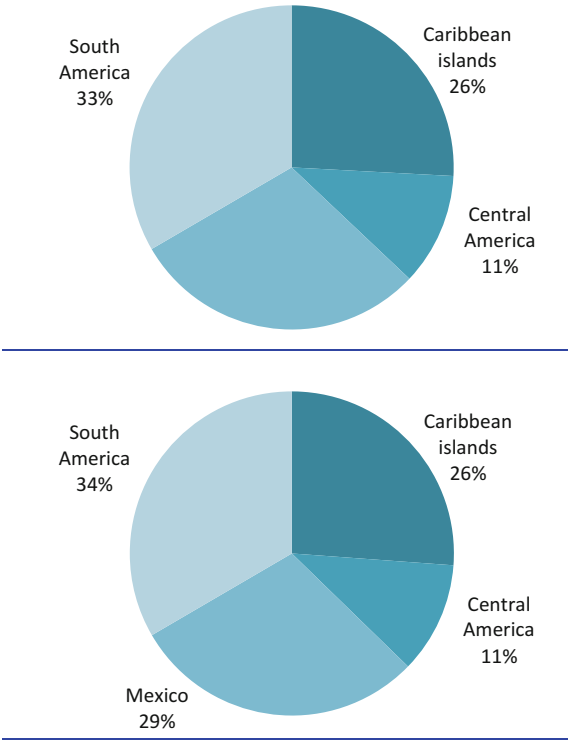

Fig. 2.2 Distribution of LAC inbound tourism flow by regions. *Source*: UNWTO (2013)

The Mexican inbound tourism flow accounts for 29 % of the total international tourism in LAC. South America registers 34 % of total inbound tourism in LAC, the Caribbean islands 26 % and Central America 11 %, as shown in Fig. 2.2.

The distribution of the inbound tourism flow among LAC regions has changed significantly over the last decades. In 1990, the market-share of Mexico was 45 %, while South America accounted for only 20 % and Central America for no more than 5 %. Hence, over the last two decades international tourism has grown faster in South and Central Americas than in Mexico and the Caribbean islands.

Nowadays, among South American destinations, the highlights are Argentina and Brazil with over 5 million arrivals each. Chile attracts about 3.6 million international tourists every year, while this figure in Peru, Uruguay and Colombia surpass the 2 million mark, as shown in Fig. 2.3. In Central America the main tourist destination is Costa Rica, which receives over 2.3 million tourists. Each of the remaining Central American countries receives about 1 million international tourists, except for Belize, which receives a considerably smaller number, as shown in Fig. 2.4. Finally, among the Caribbean islands, Dominican Republic is the major tourist destination, receiving more than 4.5 million international tourists. In this region, Puerto Rico, Cuba, Jamaica and Bahamas are also relatively large destinations, as shown in Fig. 2.5.

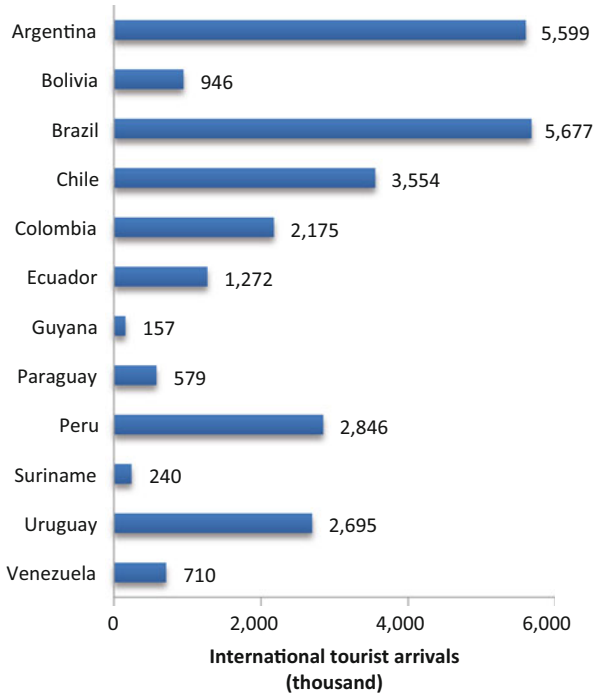

Fig. 2.3 South American annual inbound tourism flow by countries. *Source*: UNWTO (2013)

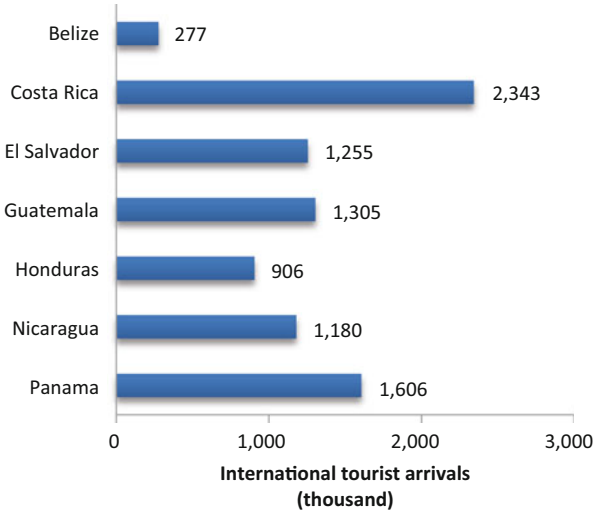

Fig. 2.4 Central American annual inbound tourism flow by countries. *Source*: UNWTO (2013)

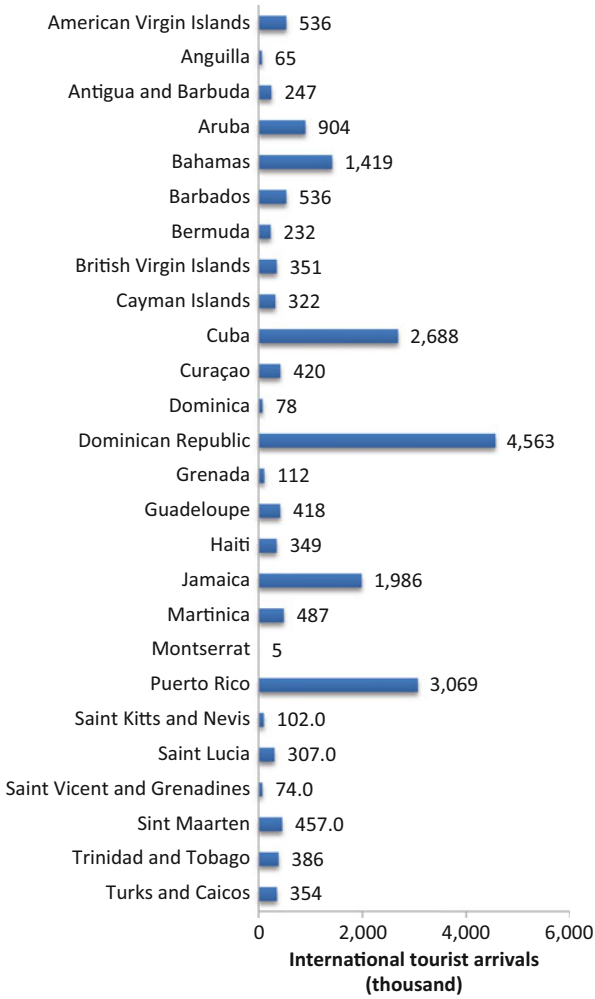

Fig. 2.5 Caribbean islands annual inbound tourism flow by countries. *Source*: UNWTO (2013)

Most international tourism in LAC is intraregional.[11] About 78 % of tourists visiting countries in this region are residents of Americas. In some cases, such as Guatemala and El Salvador, the intraregional market almost accounts for the totality of the inbound tourism. Europe is an important source market for most LAC destinations, accounting for 16 % of total international arrivals in this region. The share of the European market is especially relevant at French territories, such as Guadeloupe, Martinique and French Guiana.

[11] Information about the origin of international tourist was obtained from the UNWTO (UNWTO, 2010).

Contribution of Tourism to Exports

The relevance of inbound tourism to income generation across LAC countries is extremely heterogeneous. Tourism is the main exporting activity in several Caribbean islands. In that region, the agricultural exporting economy was rapidly substituted by the tourism economy in the second half of the twentieth century (CEPAL, 2010). After 1980 tourism exports started accounting for more than half of total service exports in several Caribbean islands. In Antigua and Barbuda the share of tourism in total exports achieved the incredible level of 81 % in 1989 (CEPAL, 2011)!

In middle 1990s, the participation of tourism in the Caribbean economy started to decrease. Several economic diversification policies were implemented in order to reduce the dependence from tourism. The decrease in the rate of growth of international arrivals also contributed to the loss of relative importance of tourism. Nevertheless, international tourism still is the main exporting activity in several countries of that region. Except for Trinidad and Tobago, Cuba and Puerto Rico, countries with very peculiar economies,[12] the average share of tourism in total exports among Caribbean islands is 43.0 %.[13] The dependence of international tourism in the Caribbean islands is only comparable with the Pacific island small states, where tourism participation in total exports is 40.5 %. This enormous dependence is the source of various concerns (Jayawardena & Ramajeesingh, 2003), especially due to the volatility of tourism demand.

The role of tourism in the exports of Latin America is modest as compared to the Caribbean islands. In Central America, Belize presents the highest participation of tourism in total exports, 26.7 %. In the rest of that region, tourism accounts from 7.8 % up to 15.4 % of total exports. Within these bounds, Costa Rica and Panama are at the top level, while Honduras and Nicaragua are at the bottom. Panama is the Central American country where tourism participation in total exports increased faster over the last years, shifting from 4.9 % in 1995 up to 12.4 % in 2010.

The importance of international tourism to total exports is significantly smaller in South America. The average ratio between tourism and total exports is 3.4 %. The leading tourism exporters in relative terms are Suriname and Uruguay, where tourism accounts for 17.6 % and 13.0 % of total exports, respectively. Venezuela is the last in this ranking with a tourism share of 0.9 % on exports.

Finally, despite of the importance of Mexico as a tourist destination of LAC, the dependence of that country from tourism is not large. International tourism receipts account for only 3.4 % of total Mexican exports. The minimum, mean and maximum international tourism share of total exports of countries in each LAC region is presented in Fig. 2.6.

[12] Trinidad and Tobago's economy is strongly based on the exports of oil derivatives. Cuba's economy is highly singular because of its socialist regime and due to the economic, commercial and financial embargo imposed by the USA. Puerto Rico's economy is defined by its political condition of USA associated free state.

[13] Information about international tourism receipts were obtained from the World Bank database (World Bank, 2012).

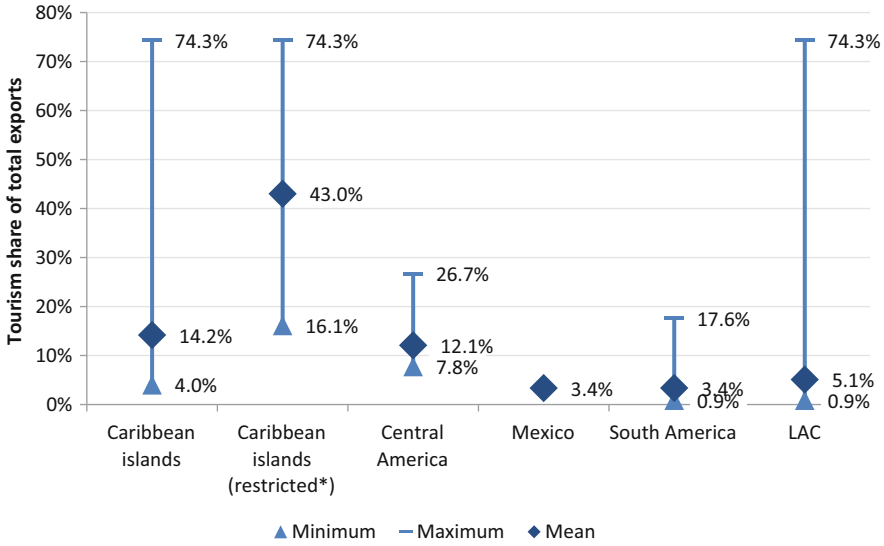

Fig. 2.6 International tourism share of total exports of LAC countries by region. *Source*: Estimates based on data from the World Bank (2013). *Caribbean islands excluding Trinidad and Tobago, Cuba and Puerto Rico

Domestic Tourism

The description of domestic tourism in LAC is severely harmed by lack of data. However, some exploratory analysis might be conducted from the sparse information available. Domestic tourism in Brazil accounts for about 190 million annual trips (FIPE & MTUR, 2012), what represents about 97 % of total tourism trips in that country. In Peru 82 % of all guests of accommodation services are domestic.[14] In Mexico this share is around 76 %, in Chile 69 % and in Bolivia 68 %. On the other side, the share of domestic tourists among all guests in accommodation services is roughly 30 % in Nicaragua and Puerto Rico. Finally, in Uruguay and American Virgin Islands this share is lower than 10 %.

Domestic tourism in LAC is usually more relevant at countries with large consumer markets and several tourism destinations. If the country has a small population, and its inhabitants do not travel frequently, domestic tourism tends to be less significant than inbound tourism. Moreover, tourism consumption of residents in countries with a small number of destinations is usually dominated by outbound tourism. These two factors explain why domestic tourism is of little importance in the Caribbean islands and not very relevant in Central America.

[14] Information about the domestic or international nature of guests in accommodation services were obtained from the UNWTO Yearbook (UNWTO, 2010).

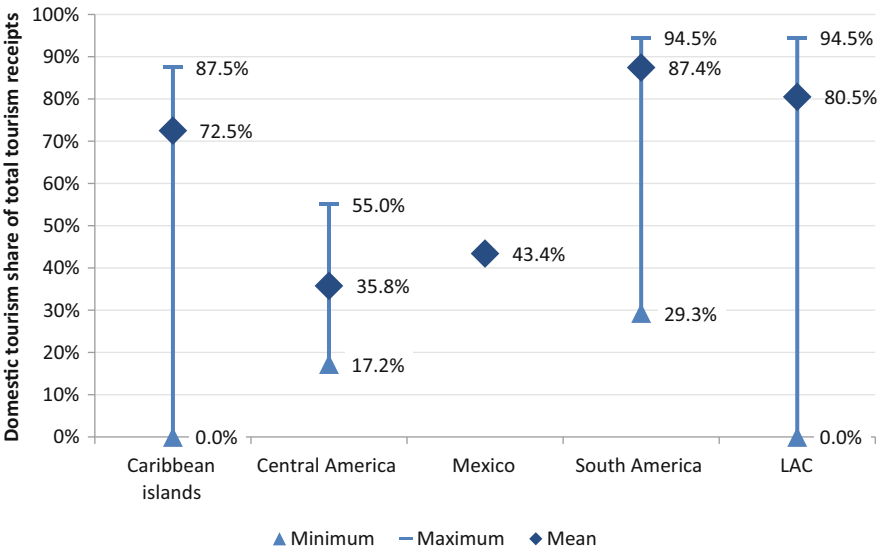

Fig. 2.7 Domestic tourism share of total tourism receipts of LAC countries by region. *Source*: Estimates based on data from the WTTC (2013)

In fact, according to estimates of the WTTC (2013), domestic tourism represents more than 70 % of total tourism receipts in countries such as Brazil, Venezuela, Mexico, Chile, Argentina, Colombia and Peru. In Brazil and Venezuela, 19 out of 20 dollars of tourism production are originated by the expenditure of domestic tourists. At the other extreme, domestic tourism in Anguilla, Dominica and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is virtually inexistent. Figure 2.7 illustrates this reality by presenting the minimum, mean and maximum share of domestic tourism in total tourism receipts of LAC countries by region.

Contribution of Tourism to Income

Considering both international and domestic trips, the annual tourism GDP of the LAC economy is US$221.9 billion.[15] Tourism activity in Brazil generates US$76.9 billion of income. The second largest tourism producer in LAC is Mexico, with a tourism GDP of US$68.3 billion. Other major tourism GDPs in LAC are Argentina, Venezuela, Chile, Peru, Colombia and Dominican Republic, as shown by Fig. 2.8. From that, it is also possible to realize that the heterogeneity of tourism GDP across LAC countries is enormous, since in most countries tourism GDP is lower than US $1 billion.

[15] Information about the economic contribution of tourism was obtained from the WTTC (2013).

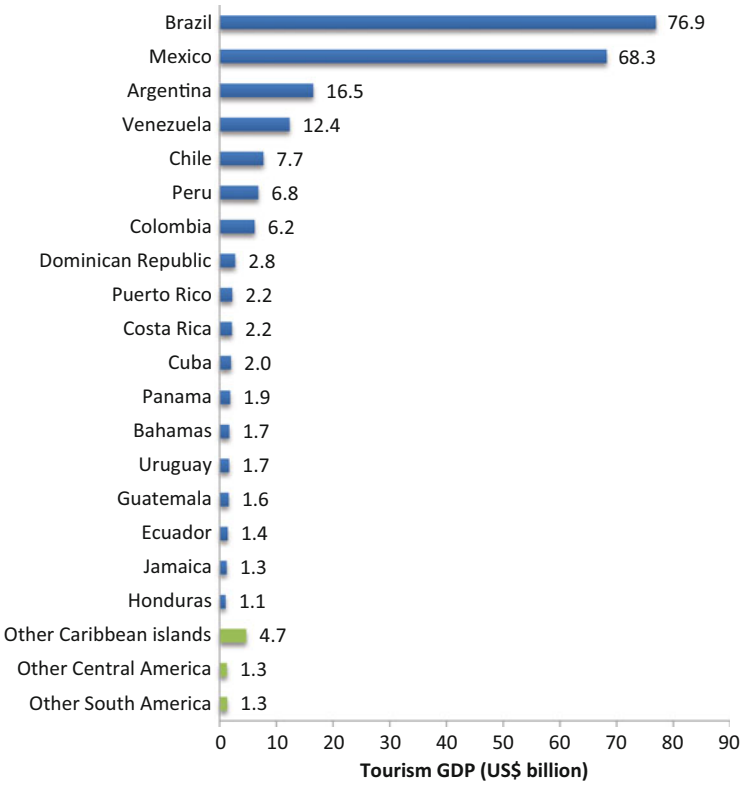

Fig. 2.8 Largest tourism GDPs in LAC. *Source*: WTTC (2013)

Tourism accounts for 3.8 % of GDP in LAC, what places the region ahead of the world average (2.8 %). However, the tourism share of the GDP is smaller in LAC than in some other regions of world, such as Southeast Asia (4.4 %) and North Africa (5.9 %). The participation of tourism in the economy is larger in Mexico, where it represents 5.7 % of the GDP. In the Caribbean islands and in Central America the relative economic importance of tourism is also high, achieving an average of 4.5 % and 4.4 %, respectively. In South America tourism production represents 3.1 % of the GDP, still higher than the world average. Therefore, LAC might be seen as a relatively tourism dependent region. The minimum, mean and maximum shares of tourism in the economy of LAC countries by region are presented at Fig. 2.9.

The participation of tourism in the GDP tends to be larger in small economies. In the British Virgin Islands, for example, a territory with a US$1 billion GDP, tourism accounts for 27.1 % of the total economy. Similar conditions are found in other small economies, such as Aruba, Anguilla, Bahamas, Antigua and Barbuda, Saint Lucia, Belize and American Virgin Islands. All LAC countries and territories where tourism accounts for large shares of the GDP are small Caribbean island economies, as presented at Fig. 2.10.

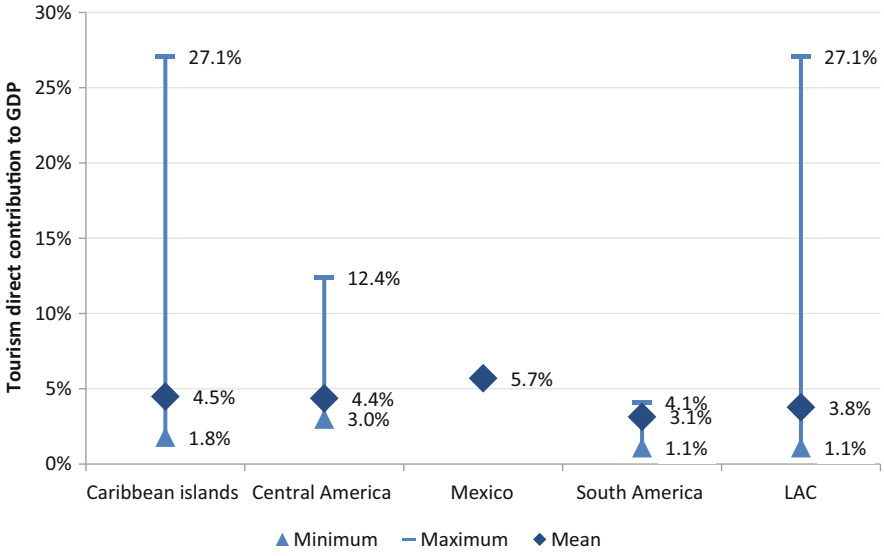

Fig. 2.9 Tourism share of GDP of LAC countries by region. *Source*: Estimates based on data from the WTTC (2013)

Caribbean countries, highly dependent from tourism, face the harm of demand volatility. Political and economic crisis at relevant source markets may lead to substantial income decreases. The GDP of some countries during the world economic crisis initiated in 2007 illustrate this risk. Countries such as Antigua and Barbuda, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Barbados and Bahamas had negative per capita growth rates from 2007 to 2012.[16] In Antigua and Barbuda the average annual per capita growth rate in this period was −3.9 %. Dominican Republic was the only Caribbean island that had a substantial per capita growth rate during this period.[17] Excluding that country, the average annual per capita growth rate of the Caribbean islands from 2007 to 2012 was −0.9 %. In Central America this rate was 3.2 %, while in South America it was 3.9 %. The negative outcomes in the Caribbean islands were mainly due to the decrease of tourism demand, what evidences the harm of strong tourism dependence.

The participation of tourism in the GDP does not necessarily indicate that this activity contributes to the economic growth of the country. Several factors must be taken into account for a more detailed analysis of the actual contribution of tourism.

[16] Information about GDP growth rates were obtained from the International Monetary Fund database (IMF, 2013).

[17] The economic success of Dominican Republic from 2007 to 2012 is due to several factors, including an expansionist monetary policy, fiscal incentives to production, IMF interventions and to the production oriented towards the foreign market.

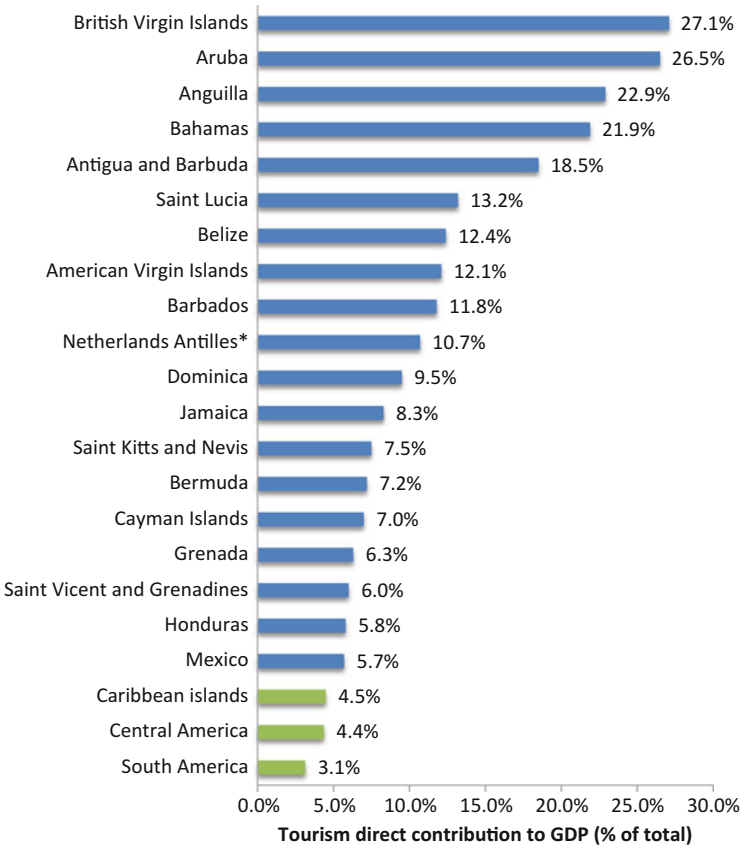

Fig. 2.10 Largest tourism shares of the GDP in LAC. *Source*: Estimates based on data from the WTTC (2013). *Netherlands Antilles include Aruba, Bonaire, Curaçao, Saba, Sint Eustatius and Sint Marteen (In 2010 this region was divided in three countries of the Kingdom of the Netherlands (Aruba, Curaçao and Sint Marteen) and three special municipalities of the Netherlands (Bonaire, Saba and Sint Eustatius). However, the region is still registered as a single geographical unit in the WTTC statistics)

Market distortions[18] and economic leakages may reduce the rate of conversion of tourism receipts into real income. In particular, imported inputs for the tourism industry reduce the liquid economic effect of tourism significantly. In this sense, two usual problems in LAC destinations are the lack of competitiveness of local inputs and the poor integration of the tourism value chain (Torres, 2003).

Analyzing imports triggered by the tourism industry in each country is a difficult task due to the lack of statistical information available. However, general

[18] Such as monopolies and other sorts of imperfect competition, externalities, public goods and information asymmetry.

dependence on imports may be used as an indicator of the dimension of these imports. The analysis of this indicator reveals that Central American countries and Caribbean islands present high levels of imports dependence. The average ratio between the total expenditure with goods and services imports and the GDP in Central America and the Caribbean islands is over 50 %. In Aruba this ratio achieves up to 86.4 %. Hence, a large share of tourism receipts in these regions leaks to foreign countries as payments for imports of the tourism industry, what diminishes the income generation for local residents. In Mexico the ratio between imports and GDP is 34.0 %, what reveals a medium level of imports dependency. South American countries are the most imports independent. In most countries of this region total imports represent less than 25 % of the GDP. Brazil imports the equivalent of mere 14.0 % of its GDP, what indicates much lower leakages of tourism receipts.

Already considering all aspects that complicate the analysis of the effective contribution of tourism receipts to real income, a series of studies has proved that the impact of inbound tourism is positive is several LAC countries, such as Aruba (Vanegas & Croes, 2003), Bahamas, Barbados and Jamaica (Singh, Wright, Hayle, & Craigwell, 2010), Brazil (Brida, Punzo, & Risso, 2011), Chile (Brida & Risso, 2009), Colombia (Brida, Pereyra, Risso, Devesa, & Aguirre, 2009) and Uruguay (Brida, Lanzilotta, Lionetti, & Risso, 2010). The positive economic impact of inbound tourism was also confirmed for the whole LAC in the remarkable study conducted by Fayissa, Nsiah, and Tadesse (2011). These authors studied the relationship between inbound tourism receipts and GDP per capita from 1990 to 2005 using a sophisticated econometric model which was able to examine the causal relationship between both variables in detail. The conclusion of that study was that, for the average LAC country, a 10 % increase in inbound tourism receipts cause a 0.78 % increase of the GDP per capita.

Present and Perspectives

The political system in LAC has become gradually more stable over the last decades. Local crisis are still fairly frequent, but they are no longer a constant in LAC scene. Dictatorial regimes are no longer majority and democracy has become more and more consolidated in several countries. Several economies went through liberalization processes that included privatization of public companies and increased openness to international trade and foreign investment. Several countries followed these policies at different levels, including are Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela. Some results of these liberal economic policies were the bankruptcy of many companies that used to be state-protected, increasing participation of multinational companies in the economy and the strengthening of the financial sector. This liberal twist seemed to boost the economic growth of LAC, although this conclusion is contested (Dupas & Oliveira, 2005). On the other hand, there seems to be little doubt that these policies contributed to the increase of social inequalities.

More recently there was a shift of some Latin American governments towards the left-wing, including Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela. However, most of these regimes may be considered reformists rather than revolutionaries. They did not actually implemented strong changes in the political and economic systems. In some cases, the leftist character of these governments has been disputed due to their resemblance to more liberal regimes.

Evo Morales and Hugo Chaves are some of the greatest examples of the most recent leftist governments in LAC. The strong nationalist policies of these governments, including expropriation of foreign private companies,[19] have pushed Bolivia and Venezuela towards international economic isolation. The emphasis in the person of the president and the constant appeal to the power of the people in these regimes bears important resemblances with populist Latin American governments of the first half of the twentieth century.

Despite the diverse reality of LAC, its political and economic stabilization process since the 1990s is evident, what has certainly contributed to tourism development. Irresponsible economic policies of the past has been substituted by more consistent strategies, leading to relatively stable exchange rates, inflation under control and incentives to production. Some effects of this new reality on the tourism sector can already be noticed. Still, most results are expected to happen in medium and long terms. Therefore, the most important consequences of the political and economic stabilization on the tourism activity are expected to take place along the next decades.

According to the UNWTO, improvements of conditions for tourism development will lead LAC countries to obtain larger shares of the world tourism market (UNWTO, 2011). Forecasts indicate that by 2030 South America will attract about 3.2 % of world tourists, a 30 % increase of its market-share as compared to 2010. Central America's market-share is expected to increase about 50 % until 2030, achieving up to 1.2 %. On the other hand, the Caribbean islands will lose about 20 % of their market-share, achieving 1.7 % in 2030. The major factors leading to this loss are the advanced level of current tourism development in the Caribbean and the growth rate slowdown of the sun and sea world market.

Recent changes in the world economic scenario, especially after the global economic crisis initiated in 2007, point to a downturn of the developed economies, which are going to open space in the world scenario for some least developed countries. The growth of new consumer markets around the globe is a window of opportunities for developing tourism destinations. In particular, three groups of countries should be underscored because of their high perspectives of consumption growth. The BRIC countries, Brazil, Russia, India and China, are expected to account for increasing shares of world tourists.[20] The consumer markets of LAC

[19] Discrimination against foreign companies included some cases in the tourism sector, such as the expropriation of Hilton hotels in Venezuela.

[20] China is already the third largest market for international trips, while Russia is top seven (UNWTO, 2012).

are also expected to increase above the world average, what will have important influence for tourism destinations in this region. Finally, the gravity center of the world economy is expected to move towards Asia, not only due to the growth of China and India, but also because of the growth of other East and Southeast Asian economies, such as South Korea, Taiwan, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and others.

The conquest of these new consumer markets requires focused marketing strategies, adequate infrastructure and new approaches to the attractive potential of each destination. The distance between LAC and the major world markets will always be a challenge at stake. Therefore, policies for the integration of LAC tourism destinations might help to boost long haul travel as far as they promote multidestination trips. The chance that a Chinese tourist chooses to visit Ecuador, for instance, can be significantly increased if the trip includes other South American countries, such as Peru or Colombia.

The emergence of new tourism consumer markets will increase the need novelties in terms of attractions and experiences. These new tourists do not have the same preferences of the traditional ones. The growth of the Asian market, for example, will decrease the relative importance of beaches as tourist attractions, as well as it will increase the prominence of natural and cultural attractions. Hence, LAC countries should intensify their policies for tourist attractions diversification and niche marketing. Besides, it is necessary to recognize that tourists' tastes will change even faster in the future. Thus, innovation in the tourism sector must become a constant.

Besides marketing their destinations, LAC countries must implement policies to maximize the liquid benefits obtained from tourists. Tourism products and services of high value added should be stimulated, at the same time that social and environmental costly products should be discouraged. Tourism supply chain development policies are also required in order to integrate tourism companies with national suppliers, avoiding income leakages, especially in the Caribbean islands.

The international competition among tourism destinations is intensifying since the potential positive impacts of this activity are becoming evident. Tourism companies are getting more efficient as a result of the cumulative process of technological and managerial innovations. Tourists are getting more informed and continuously seeking for new experiences. In the postmodern scenario, the future of tourism is uncertain, while change is the only constant. The best long term strategies are barely predictable. Hence, the adaptation ability becomes essential to any tourism destination, company or other organization. At this point may reside the core competitive advantage of LAC for the future. The enormous diversity of the region renders it great capacity to adapt to new conditions, what might be the key to the future success of tourism in this region.

Acknowledgments The author acknowledges the contributions of the Mexican economist Óscar Saenz de Miera.

Appendix 1: Economic Information About LAC

Country or territory	GDP (US$ billion)[b]	GDP *per capita* (US$ thousand)[b]	GDP *per capita* average growth rate (%)		Aggregated value by sector (US$ billion)[e]			Human Development Index (position at the world ranking)[f]	Income Gini Index (position at the world ranking)[f]	Concentrated income (%)[g]		Goods and services exports (US$ billion)[h]
			1960–2012[c]	2007–2012[d]	Agriculture	Industry	Services			10 % richest	10 % poorest	
American Virgin Islands	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Anguilla	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Antigua and Barbuda	1.2	13.2	–	−3.9	0.0*	0.2*	0.8*	67	–	–	–	0.5*
Argentina	470.5	11.5	1.1**	5.4	38.6	129.2	216.5	45	44.5	32.3	1.46	92.8
Aruba	2.6*	25.4*	–	–	0.0*	0.4*	1.9*	–	–	–	–	1.8*
Bahamas	8.1	21.9	0.9	−0.4	0.2*	1.2*	5.9*	49	–	–	–	3.4*
Barbados	4.2	14.9	2.1	−0.6	0.1	0.6	2.9	38	–	–	–	1.8
Belize	1.4*	4.6*	2.8*	2.7	0.1***	0.3***	0.8***	96	–	42.2	0.94	0.9*
Bermuda	5.6*	86.1*	2.2*	–	0.0*	0.4*	5.0*	–	–	–	–	–
Bolivia	27.0	2.6	0.7	4.8	2.3*	7.3*	9.1*	108	56.3	43.28	0.45	12.8
Bonaire	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Brazil	2,252.7	11.3	2.3	3.2	100.3	503.2	1,310.5	85	54.7	42.93	0.77	282.9
British Virgin Islands	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Cayman Islands	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Chile	268.2	15.4	2.6	3.8	8.6*	88.6*	136.0*	40	52.1	42.77	1.53	91.7
Colombia	369.8	7.8	2.1	3.9	22.0	126.8	189.2	91	55.9	44.43	0.87	63.7*
Costa Rica	45.2	9.4	2.2	3.2	2.4*	9.5*	25.4*	62	50.7	39.5	1.23	17.0

Cuba	60.8**	5.4**	–	–	2.5***	10.5***	37.5***	59	–	–	–	12.5***
Curaçao	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Dominica	0.5	6.7	–	1.4	0.1*	0.1*	0.3*	72	–	–	–	0.2*
Dominican Republic	59.0	5.7	3.0	5.0	3.1*	17.2*	31.7*	96	47.2	36.41	1.81	14.7
Ecuador	84.0	5.4	1.6	4.5	7.5*	27.5*	39.3*	89	49.3	38.32	1.35	26.2
El Salvador	23.9	3.8	1.1	0.7	2.7*	5.7*	12.8*	107	48.3	37	1.03	6.8
French Guiana	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Grenada	0.8	7.5	–	−1.2	0.0*	0.1*	0.5*	63	–	–	–	0.2*
Guadeloupe	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Guatemala	50.5	3.4	1.3	2.8	5.0*	13.1*	25.9*	133	55.9	44.92	1.06	12.6
Guyana	2.9	3.6	1.0	4.0	0.5*	0.8*	1.0*	118	–	33.97	1.33	0.7****
Haiti	7.8	0.8	–	1.3	–	–	–	161	59.2	47.67	0.66	1.0*
Honduras	18.5	2.3	1.3	2.6	2.3*	4.4*	9.4*	120	57.0	42.4	0.43	9.3
Jamaica	14.8	5.5	–	−1.0	0.8*	2.7*	8.9*	85	45.5	35.9	2.25	4.5*
Martinique	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Mexico	1,178.0	9.7	1.8	1.8	46.4	415.1	679.0	61	48.3	37.51	1.99	387.5
Montserrat	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Nicaragua	10.5	1.8	0.1	3.2	1.7*	2.2*	4.9*	129	40.5	31.51	2.61	3.8*
Panama	36.3	9.5	2.7	8.6	1.1**	4.2**	19.4**	59	51.9	40.08	1.1	20.6**
Paraguay	25.5	3.8	2.1	3.6	4.0	6.5	12.6	111	52.4	41.11	0.98	11.9
Peru	197.0	6.6	1.5	6.5	10.3*	58.5*	91.9*	77	48.1	36.11	1.39	50.2
Puerto Rico	101.5	27.7	3.1	–	0.7*	49.3*	48.8*	–	–	–	–	78.0*
Saba	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Saint Barthélemy	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

(continued)

Country or territory	GDP (US$ billion)[b]	GDP *per capita* (US$ thousand)[b]	GDP *per capita* average growth rate (%)		Aggregated value by sector (US$ billion)[e]			Human Development Index (position at the world ranking)[f]	Income Gini Index (position at the world ranking)[f]	Concentrated income (%)[g]		Goods and services exports (US$ billion)[h]
			1960–2012[c]	2007–2012[d]	Agriculture	Industry	Services			10 % richest	10 % poorest	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0.7	14.0	–	−0.6	0.0*	0.1*	0.4*	72	–	–	–	0.2*
Saint Lucia	1.2	6.6	–	1.1	0.0*	0.2*	0.8*	88	–	32.48	2.01	0.6*
Saint Martin	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.7	6.5	2.5	−0.6	0.0*	0.1*	0.4*	83	–	–	–	0.2*
Sint Eustatius	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Sint Maarten	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Suriname	4.7	8.9	–	4.1	0.4*	1.5*	2.1*	105	–	40.56	1.11	0.5****
Trinidad and Tobago	24.0	17.9	2.2	−0.7	0.1*	12.9*	9.6*	67	–	29.89	2.07	12.1**
Turks and Caicos	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Uruguay	49.1	14.4	1.7	5.7	3.8*	9.6*	26.9*	51	45.3	34.36	1.91	9.2***
Venezuela	381.3	12.7	0.1	2.0	21.2**	190.6**	153.7**	71	44.8	33.17	1.2	99.8
Netherlands Antilles	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Caribbean islands[a]	293.5	7.1	2.8	0.8	7.7	95.8	155.5	–	–	–	–	131.7

Central America[a]	186.3	4.2	1.9	3.2	15.3	39.4	98.5	–	–	–	–	71.1
South America[a]	4,132.6	10.3	1.7	3.9	219.7	1,150.2	2,189.0	–	–	–	–	742.3
LAC	5,823.6	9.6	1.8**	3.6	290.2	1,716.5	3,159.7	–	–	–	–	1,370.6
World	71,918.4	10.2	1.8**	3.2	2,960.9*	17,331.5**	39,285.8**	–	–	–	–	22,448.4

– unavailable data

[a]Estimates ignoring countries with unavailable data

[b]Data for 2012, except *2011, **2008. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

[c]*2011, **2006. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

[d]*Source*: IMF (2013)

[e]Data for 2012, except *2011, **2010, ***2008. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

[f]Data for 2013. *Source*: UNDP (2013)

[g]Most recent available data. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

[h]Data for 2012, except *2011, **2010, ***2008, ****2005. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

Appendix 2: Tourism Information About LAC

Country or territory	UNESCO World Heritage[b]			Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (world rank)[c]				International inbound tourism		Origin of the international inbound tourists[g]		Participation of cruise passengers on the international inbound tourism (% of total)[g]	Tourism GDP[h]	
	Cultural	Mixed	Natural	Prioritization of travel and tourism	Air transport infrastructure	Natural resources	Cultural resources	Arrivals (thousand)[e]	Receipts (US$ billion)[f]	Americas (% of total)	Europe (% of total)		US$ billion	% of GDP
American Virgin Islands	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	536*	1.0*	–	–	72.0	0.58	12.1
Anguilla	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	65	–	83.8	13.2	3.1	0.05	22.9
Antigua and Barbuda	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	247	0.3	57.1	41.4	63.1	0.211	18.5
Argentina	4	0	4	81	66	20	44	5,599	6.1	78.8	16.5	–	16.51	3.5
Aruba	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	904	1.4	90.6	8.9	40.2	0.683	26.5
Bahamas	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	1,419	2.3	91.0	6.5	65.1	1.719	21.9
Barbados	0	0	0	8	32	133	50	536	1.1*	54.4	44.0	51.2	0.553	11.8
Belize	0	0	1	–	–	–	–	277	0.3	80.0	13.9	70.9	0.19	12.4
Bermuda	1	0	0	–	–	–	–	232	0.5	82.2	13.3	52.0	0.442	7.2
Bolivia	5	0	1	128	104	27	72	946*	0.5	59.4	31.5	–	0.753	2.8
Bonaire	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	56.8	41.9	70.4	–	–
Brazil	12	0	7	102	48	1	23	5,677	6.8	57.1	35.9	–	76.929	3.4
British Virgin Islands	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	351	–	–	–	61.2	0.274	27.1
Cayman Islands	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	322	0.4*	92.1	6.9	83.7	0.24	7.0
Chile	5	0	0	56	55	93	53	3,554	2.7	79.8	16.6	–	7.727	2.9
Colombia	4	0	2	88	73	16	37	2,175	3.1	79.3	18.6	9.5	6.187	1.6
Costa Rica	0	0	3	20	44	7	93	2,343	2.4	84.0	14.4	13.3	2.164	4.8
Cuba	7	0	2	–	–	–	–	2,688	2.5	59.6	39.2	0.2	2.01	2.7
Curaçao	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	420	0.5	64.8	33.5	45.7	–	–
Dominica	0	0	1	–	–	–	–	78	0.1	85.2	13.6	81.2	0.05	9.5
Dominican Republic	1	0	0	9	59	130	100	4,563	4.4	53.5	32.9	9.5	2.755	4.7
Ecuador	2	0	2	76	84	13	76	1,272	0.8	76.1	20.0	–	1.439	1.9
El Salvador	1	0	0	93	80	132	113	1,255	0.7	97.0	2.4	–	0.721	3.0
French Guiana	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	33.9*	61.5*	–	–	–

Grenada	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	112	0.1	50.8	34.6	68.5	0.05	6.3
Guadeloupe	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	418*	–	–	99.5***	16.4***	0.264	2.2
Guatemala	2	1	0	94	100	47	88	1,305	1.4	99.4	10.8	3.7	1.617	3.2
Guyana	0	0	0	65	105	97	132	157*	0.1*	88.5*	7.6*	–	0.108	4.1
Haiti	1	0	0	–	–	–	–	349*	0.2	85.9	5.9	62.2	0.145	1.8
Honduras	1	0	1	57	70	48	106	906	0.7	90.1	9.0	27.3	1.071	5.8
Jamaica	0	0	0	7	63	80	108	1,986	2.1	83.2	16.2	38.2	1.256	8.3
Martinique	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	487	–	18.6*	80.8*	12.6*	0.262	2.4
Mexico	27	0	5	34	49	8	21	23,403	12.3	87.9	6.7	7.0	68.252	5.7
Montserrat	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	5	–	67.6	31.1	3.6	–	–
Nicaragua	2	0	0	83	112	52	101	1,180	0.4	83.2	6.8	4.8	0.361	4.8
Panama	2	0	3	32	16	11	77	1,606	2.9	77.4	7.9	13.3	1.878	5.2
Paraguay	1	0	0	52	136	100	107	579	0.3	89.7	7.9	–	0.426	1.8
Peru	7	2	2	58	75	12	43	2,846	2.9	72.2	22.1	2.9	6.838	3.3
Puerto Rico	1	0	0	41	40	104	92	3,069	3.1	78.2	–	27.8	2.226	2.1
Saba	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	43.3	46.7	–	–	–
Saint Barthélemy	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Saint Kitts and Nevis	1	0	0	–	–	–	–	102	0.1	89.3	8.3	76.4	0.05	7.5
Saint Lucia	0	0	1	–	–	–	–	307	0.3	66.9	31.8	67.0	0.169	13.2
Saint Martin	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	74	0.1	72.6	26.2	64.0	0.04	6.0
Sint Eustatius	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	32.2	52.5	–	–	–
Sint Maarten	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	457	0.7	70.7	21.7	73.9	–	–
Suriname	1	0	1	114	97	38	91	240	0.1	31.3*	66.3*	–	0.05	1.1
Trinidad and Tobago	0	0	0	117	56	75	69	386**	0.6*	83.1	14.5	10.2	–	–
Turks and Caicos	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	354*	0.3**	89.1**	10.1**	–	–	–
Uruguay	1	0	0	24	87	108	46	2,695	2.4	79.7	7.2	11.4	1.685	3.4
Venezuela	2	0	1	120	92	24	103	710	0.8	54.8	40.5	13.1	12.35	3.1
Netherlands Antilles	0	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.639	10.7

(continued)

Country or territory	UNESCO World Heritage[b]			Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (world rank)[c]				International inbound tourism		Origin of the international inbound tourists[g]		Participation of cruise passengers on the international inbound tourism (% of total)[g]	Tourism GDP[h]	
	Cultural	Mixed	Natural	Prioritization of travel and tourism	Air transport infrastructure	Natural resources	Cultural resources	Arrivals (thousand)[e]	Receipts (US$ billion)[f]	Americas (% of total)	Europe (% of total)		US$ billion	% of GDP
Caribbean islands[a]	12	0	4	–	–	–	–	20,887	20.9	68.5	23.1	–	14.668	4.5
Central America[a]	8	1	7	–	–	–	–	8,872	8.7	88.4	9.3	–	8.002	4.4
South America[a]	44	2	20	–	–	–	–	26,673	26.6	71.3	22.9	–	131.002	3.1
LAC	91	3	36	–	–	–	–	79,835	69.0	77.8	16.2	–	221.924	3.8
World	704	27	180	–	–	–	–	1,035,000	1,249.5	16.5	52.6	–	2,056.72	2.8

– Unavailable data

[a]Estimates ignoring countries with unavailable data

[b]Data for 2013. *Source*: UNESCO (2013)

[c]Data for 2013. *Source*: WEF (2013)

[d]Data for 2012, except *2011, **2010. *Source*: UNWTO (2013)

[e]Data for 2011, except *2010, **2002. *Source*: World Bank (2013)

[g]Data for 2008, except *2007, **2006, ***2005. *Source*: UNWTO (2010)

[h]Data for 2012. *Source*: WTTC (2013)

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Chapter 3
Tourism in Rio de Janeiro: From the Triad Beach-Soccer-Carnival to Complexity of Contemporary Tourism Experience

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Abstract Tourism has always earned a distinguished place within the context of Rio de Janeiro. Considered one of the most beautiful tourism destinations in the world, the city begun its process of touristification in the nineteenth century, but only from de 1990s on it has been able to escape from the stigma of tourism based on the triad beach-soccer-carnival and be included in the context of worldwide tourism circuit as a complex and multifaceted destination, capable of receiving large and relevant international events. This process of city retouristification has been followed by an urban restructuring movement as well as the spreading of tourism activity through the geographical area of the city, configuring new urban tourism functional areas.

Keywords Rio de Janeiro • Tourism • Urban restructuring • Large events

Introduction

Historically the city of Rio de Janeiro has always been present in the imagery of many tourists because of its beauty, its differentiated events such as Carnival, and unfortunately also because of violence, irregular occupation of urban areas and political problems.

However, as a tourism destination, Rio de Janeiro may be always considered a case of success, despite all its ups and downs. Nowadays, the city is considered one of the main tourism destinations in Latin America and in all the Southern Hemisphere.

Located in the southern part of Brazil, it is the second urban conglomeration of the country, with 6,323,037 inhabitants (Ibge, 2010) and concentrates 5.1 % of

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Brazilian Gross Domestic Product (GDC). But for a long time, this context has been associated to just one dynamic economic activity—oil extraction—an intensive activity in capital, capable of generating a high GDC, but little work and income. Nowadays, this scenario has been changing considerably.

The city finds itself in an extremely positive moment, to the point of being considered "one of the 10 more dynamic cities in the world", according to the latest *Global Metro Monitor* (joint publication of London School of Economics and Brooking Institution)" (Urani & Giambiagi, 2011, p. 03).

Rio de Janeiro's touristification process had its beginning in the twentieth century, as secondary effect of rather generic actions whose objective was to reverse the situation at that time—of a town that was not attractive, let alone marvelous.

The characteristics of this touristification, however, have kept being changed over the last decades, configuring a new context of tourism insertion in space and urban social practices. Since the decade of 1990 these changes have become more substantial, indicating the trend of tourism product complexity as well as the spreading of urban space activity in Rio de Janeiro city.

Therefore, the objective of this text is to analyze this historiographic point of view and understand how the movement of tourism development of the city in which new trends have been designed has taken place from 1992 until today, identifying new "products" and "areas" that have been touristified in the city.

Having as reference the touristification process of Rio, three marks of temporal cutting are defined, which are (a) the period between 1992 and 2008, including the city's preparation for Rio 92 International Conference, the first strategic plan and Plano Maravilha (master plan of tourism), (b) the time of second strategic plan for the city in 2008, and (c) this present moment of projects' coordination and restructuring actions of tourism functional areas in the city (Hayllar, Griffin, & Edwards, 2008).

As objects of analysis there are the main interventions that have been done in order to allow the city to host large events, among which are the International Conference Rio + 20 (2012), the World Youth Day (JMJ) in 2013, the 2013 Soccer Confederations Cup, the 2014 Soccer World Cup and the 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games, within guidelines considered appropriate to definitely insert the city into the circuit of international tourism destinations.

These interventions are (a) the Project Porto Maravilha, (b) the restructuring projects of the city's transport system, (c) the installation of pacifying police unities (UPPs) within the slums, (d) the affirmation of Lapa and Santa Teresa as urban tourism functional unities and (e) the enlargement of the city's hospitality industry. These projects gain prominence in this present analysis, but it is worth noticing that there are other specific actions and interventions, which will also directly affect this process of social territorial reorganization.

Among the points raised in this discussion it is the issue about levels of articulation between city, state and federal government, the risk inherent in continuity of projects and movements of gentrification in slums and docklands, themes that take one to think on the legacy to be effectively left to the city after 2016.

From Beach Tourism, Soccer and Carnival to the Complex Tourism Experience of Contemporaneity

Touristification of Rio de Janeiro and the City Process of Political Emptying and Decadence

Founded in the sixteenth century, between the years of 1763 and 1960 Rio de Janeiro was, respectively, capital of the Colony, capital of the Empire and capital of the Republic. Nevertheless, in the end of the nineteenth century and beginning of the twentieth, it could not be considered a modern city, let alone attractive, as far as tourism was concerned.

The streets were narrow, winding, evil built, poorly lit, dirty and humid, full of rats and insects. Insalubrity steered away strangers from the city once it did not offer minimum health and hygiene standards to its visitors. Therefore, Rio de Janeiro was far from being attractive to tourism and deserving to figure among the main cities in the world, let alone being called Marvelous City.

Newly emerged from Empire and slavery and as capital of Brazil, Rio de Janeiro were not only repulsive to tourists, but also to immigrants as well as foreign investments, considered by the dominant elite of that time essential to country's modernization.

On the whole, new values of modernity developed themselves mainly in cities, requiring changing of urban structures. In Brazil, such modernization would pass through the carioca metropolis. In order to beautify and give modern features to the city, it was necessary to attract the flow of desired visitors.

Like other cities in the world, changes that took place in Rio de Janeiro at that time acted on its artificial form (the fixed ones, uttered through edifications, monuments and squares) modifying its spatial forms and providing the generation of different flows, including the touristic one.

Modern cities then became touristic attractions not only because of their natural beauty, but also mainly through their artificial form, cultural heritage and centers of business and trade.

The project for carioca modernity started in the early twentieth century, with interventions known as "Bota-Abaixo" (Bring it Down) and "Regeneração" (Regeneration). Bota-Abaixo was characterized by the demolition of a substantial amount of the city's central area, which would still resemble the backwardness of its colonial period. On the other hand, the enlargement of narrow streets, the opening of major avenues, the construction of beautiful gardens and imposing buildings was the movement named "Regeneração", which aimed at making Rio a rather modern and attractive city. Soon Rio started to show the first signs it was becoming interesting for tourism.

In 1908, the city held an "Exposição Nacional—Agrícola, Industrial, Pastoril e de Artes Liberais (National Exhibition—Agricultural, Industrial, Pastoral and of Liberal Arts), [...] celebrating the centennial of the opening of Brazilian ports to

friend nations" (Machado, 2008, p. 103). This event that took place in Urca district, had the participation of several countries—with their beautiful stands—received thousands of visitors and can be regarded as the first large event in Rio de Janeiro to attract tourists to the city.

In 1922, another large exhibition: the Exposição Internacional (International Exhibition), celebrating the centennial of Brazil's independence. Larger than the first one, the event required the expansion of city's tourist structure. Among the hotels that emerged to meet the demand of the exhibition were Hotel Glória (1922) and Hotel Copacabana Palace (1923), to this day two icons of tourism in Rio de Janeiro.

Numerous other initiatives were conducted, including the launch of carnivalesque march "Cidade Maravilhosa" (Marvelous City), composed by André Filho and recorded in 1934 by Aurora Miranda. The song would be one of the most performed during carioca Carnival, becoming the city's official anthem (through act nr. 5 of May 25th 1960), which adopted the expression as an adjective—Rio de Janeiro, marvelous city—replicated all over the world.

In 1943, it was time for the American culture to collaborate to dissemination of carioca citizen image around the world, from the character Zé Carioca, launched in the move *Saludos amigos*, produced by Walt Disney Company.

From that time on, also "Carmem Miranda becomes a kind of ambassador of Brazil abroad, [...] consolidating Rio de Janeiro as an important center within international circuit of tourism of modernity" (Machado, 2008, p. 136). The Carnival, born in the late nineteenth century, already became in the 1930s the most important popular feast of the city and of Brazil (Machado, 2008).

The year of 1950 crowned modernity in Rio de Janeiro, with the city hosting the final of the Soccer World Cup, which required the construction of Maracanã Stadium, inaugurated on June 16th 1950, and witnessed the first large sporting event hosted by the city of Rio de Janeiro that received tourists of all country and of many parts of the world.

The years that followed the Cup marked the beginning of a period of economic decadence in the city, accentuated in 1954 because of president Café Filho's decision of creating the Comissão de Localização da Nova Capital Federal (Committee of the New Federal Capital Location), which launched the construction of Brasília, the new country's capital since 1960.

With the transfer of the federal capital to Brasília in 1960, the city of Rio de Janeiro, which since 1834 had had the status of "neutral municipal area" (Padilha, 1985), assumed the role of unity of Federation, under the name of State of Guanabara.

During the decades of 1960 until 1990, the city went through a period marked by cultural, social, political and mainly economical emptying. As State of Guanabara, with the stigma of being the only unity of federation ruled by groups opposed to federal government, on a number of occasions it found itself on the sidelines of large public investments that could have contributed to its maintenance as the country's main economic, cultural and political center.

From the point of view of its touristic function, however, the city continued to stand out as the main Brazilian destination, responsible for advertising the country abroad. During this period, the image of Brazil in the foreign market became intertwined with city of Rio de Janeiro's own image, given by its main products: the beach of Copacabana, Maracanã stadium, Carnival, soccer and Corcovado.

One distinguishes that this general perception of Rio de Janeiro and of Brazil is so strongly rooted in the collective unconscious even globally that in 2002 a research ordered by the Ministry of Development, Industry and Foreign Trade (MDIC) and performed by McCann Erickson in ten countries pointed out that people still associated five elements to the image of Brazil: sand, soccer, sun, sensuality and music. Although they are positive attributes they also collaborate to reinforce reductionist stereotypes that do not faithfully translate the potential of Rio de Janeiro city (Reis, 2011).

It is possible to state that until de beginning of the 1990s the touristic image of Rio was focused on its beaches, the carioca's lifestyle (particularly carioca woman), soccer and Carnival. The touristic space used by the foreigner visitor is restricted to southern zone maritime foreland (represented by the districts of Flamengo, Botafogo, Copacabana, Ipanema and Leblon) and to Forest of Tijuca (more specifically to Corcovado Hill), with a few incursions through central area (historic center) and Maracanã stadium. Besides this quite restrained urban area, the presence of visitors is concentrated at Galeão airport, located in Ilha do Governador, city's point of access and exit.

This concentration of tourism space in the city's southern zone is mainly substantiated from the construction of Aterro do Flamengo (Flamengo's landfill) in the early 1950s. This work can be considered fundamental to city's urban restructuring, to consolidation of southern zone waterfront strip as a favorite residential area of privileged social classes and for definitive transference of hotels to southern zone despite of its previous concentration area downtown. Copacabana arises almost naturally as the main nucleus of city's touristic occupation.

In this process, between the years of 1945 and 1990 several hotels were inaugurated in southern zone (Trigo & Spolon, 2001), such as Castro Alves (1948), Olinda (1948) Califórnia (1950), Hotel Novo Mundo (1950), Trocadero (1958), Leme Palace (1964), Hotel Nacional (1971), Hotel Intercontinental Rio (1974), Hotel Sheraton Rio (1974), Hotel Everest (1975), Le Meridien (1975), Rio Othon Palace (1979), Caesar Park (1979), Rio Palace Hotel (1979), Rio Atlantica (1989) and Rio Internacional (1989).

Touristic product offered and commercialized by travel agencies is supported basically by *city tours* that include a visit to Sugar Loaf, Corcovado, Maracanã stadium, southern zone beaches, Rodrigo de Freitas lake, Copacabana night clubs and, during Carnival, schools of samba parade (Av. Presidente Vargas, later Rua Marques de Sapucaí and from 1984, Sambódromo), in the city's central area.

The tourist average staying in the city is no longer than 4 days and visits beyond the touristic places above mentioned are seldom.

Within this period it is worth mentioning in terms of support and touristic equipment infrastructure the construction of Centro de Convenções do Riocentro

(1977) as well as the inauguration of the first city's subway line (1979), the opening of Sambódromo (1984)—in the old Rua Marquês de Sapucaí (Catumbi's district) and the reformation and expansion of Aeroporto Internacional do Rio de Janeiro (1990).

The construction of Sambódromo represents the transformation of the city's main cultural event—the schools of samba parade during Carnival. For the first time governor and mayor belong to the same party, which allows a series of joint actions in Rio de Janeiro city.

Besides, agreements made at that time between public power and representatives of the main schools of samba towards professionalization of the spectacle enabled the work of big tourism international agencies. As result of these agreements Liga das Escolas de Samba do Grupo Especial (Schools of Samba from Special Group League) (LIESA) is born to be in charge of the organization of the main carioca Carnival parade, leaving with Riotur only responsibilities related to Sambódromo area (security, infrastructure, lightening, etc.).

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the city of Rio de Janeiro experienced what could be defined as a warning moment, when some sectors of civil society and some political leadership assumed responsibility for rethinking the city.

Detachment and disarticulation between decisions of three spheres of government—federal, state and municipal—reach a critical point that incites a group of local leadership to start a movement of city restructuring, both from an institutional as well economic, political and cultural point of view. One realizes the need of a proactive movement that replaces the city on the development path.

City's Renewal by the Cariocas

The United Nations Organization Environment Conference (Rio 92), held in Rio in 1992 arises as one of the most positive happenings in this process of city's renewal conducted by its inhabitants. Although it does not have strength enough to restore the city to a growth path, the event shows it is possible for the city to regain its important place in the national and international scenario.

As for the local touristic sector, the event serves to expose possibilities of growth as well as points out many of its fragilities, from quality of services to facilities and equipment provided by the city to its visitors.

The context of changes within the national scenario contributes to this first moment of warning. At that time the country experienced a significant moment of economical restructuring, with actions directed to a further opening to foreign market, initiatives to control inflationary process, search of management improvement of public accounts and modernization of communication systems (Alqueres, 2011, p. 65).

The city of Rio de Janeiro succeeded in breaking the vicious circle in 1993, with the constitution of a public-private consortium, responsible for the elaboration of the first city's strategic plan, the Rio Sempre Rio Plan (1993–1996). This process,

that had been initiated from an agreement between businessmen and municipal public power was institutionalized with the installation of the City Council (composed of 305 members), on January 20th 1995.

In the message to its promoters (City Hall, Industries Federation of Rio de Janeiro and Commercial Association of Rio de Janeiro), City of Rio de Janeiro Strategic Plan—Rio Sempre Rio was presented as

> A basic instrument of city's action, whose success is guaranteed by the participative character and commitment of the agents involved. [...] The unprecedented institutional and citizens participation with Rio de Janeiro dimensions and problems enabled the elaboration of a plan that encompasses the longings of all society. It is not just a government plan, but also the plan of a city that wants to be welcoming, participative, competitive, internally and externally integrated, and give to cariocas access to opportunities of a better life... (Prefeitura do Rio de Janeiro, 1996, p. 9).

The process relies on the advice of Spanish experts and has as model the strategic plan implemented in Barcelona in the early 1980s. Exactly because of this, one of the main projects proposed consisted of the launch of Rio de Janeiro application to host the Olympic Games of 2004.

The tool for the organization of large events is incorporated by city managers as a strategy to reintroduce the city into a worldwide scenario. This attempt, however, took place few years ago with the choice of the city to host two of the main sporting worldwide events: the 2014 Soccer World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games.

Although the Strategic Plan Rio Sempre Rio has not achieved concrete results, its greatest contribution may be attributed to the change in behavior of several city promotion agents, which generates a dynamic context of dialogue between all city sectors and leaderships. This new context somehow contributes to external agents change of perception about the city.

Due to lack of political continuity in municipal government between 1997 and 2000, the Plan was resumed only in 2001, when it was reissued to the period from 2001 to 2004. This new edition was based on the methodology proposed by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (BIRD), focused on local economic development (DEL) and presented a proposal to the city from its 12 administrative regions.

During the period contemplated by the two strategic plans, one still perceives the difficulty in conducting an articulated process among all city sectors. Besides, the striking political-administrative discontinuity of municipal management within the period ends up generating conflicts between the urban policy, approved by the City's Master Plan and the projects approved by strategic plans. In several moments there were confrontations between businessmen, the City Hall, the Town Hall and organized civil society, indicating the city immaturity to adopt a participative and decentralized management.

However, even having these moments of crisis and conflict, the tourism in the city retook its line of development, particularly from the publication of City of Rio de Janeiro Tourism Plan—Plano Maravilha, in 1997. Elaborated with Catalan advise and also having as model the city of Barcelona's project, this Plan was developed by a Board of Directors, with participation of over 1.500 city

representatives, in a process that extended itself during the entire year of 1997. Although its proposals were coherent, also due to issues of discontinuity in municipal public management, most of the projects proposed were not carried out.

In 2007, the Tourism Plan Cidade Maravilhosa—Rio Mais was launched, proposing a unified policy for the city tourism management. However, it was rather a compilation of projects in progress, without methodological care and hardly contributing to the city touristic development.

Within this same year of 2007, the city of Rio de Janeiro hosted the XV Panamerican Games, an event that gathered 47 sports and 5,633 athletes from 42 countries. The event attracted a relevant receptive touristic flow, making the occupation rate general average in all city reach 85 % and get to 95 % in districts such as Barra da Tijuca and São Conrado, according to data provided by Associação Brasileira da Indústria de Hotéis (Brazilian Association of Hotels Industry)—ABIH.

After the Pan American Games of Rio de Janeiro, Paralympic Pan American Games took place in 2007. This multi sporting event for handicapped people was organized in partnership with the Brazilian Parapan Committee (CPB) and had the participation of approximately 1,300 athletes from 26 countries of the American continent, competing in 10 different sports. For the first time the Parapan American Games was held right after the Pan American Games in the same host city.

However, the eagerly-waited legacy to the city and its inhabitants were reduced, since most part of resources applied in the execution o Pan American and Parapan Games in Rio de Janeiro were focused on construction and reformation of installations used during the games without significant interferences on the carioca citizen routine.

It is important to remind that many of these installations will not be able to be used during the 2016 Olympic Games once they do not comply with requirements of the International Olympic Committee (COI). Likewise, to be used during 2014 Soccer World Cup, they are going through new reformation, in order to meet FIFA's recommendations, as it is the case of Mário Filho (Maracanã) Stadium, whose value of the works is estimated in R$ 859 million, according to Federal Audit Court (TCU). They were finished with some delay, by the end of the first semester of 2013 and its total cost was R$ 1,235 million, according to the same organ.

It is also important to notice that since 2005 a series of factors in the Brazilian political scenario has propitiated a rather promising context to city of Rio de Janeiro. The election of president Lula, followed by reelection of governor Sérgio Cabral (with federal political support) and the election of mayor Eduardo Paes in 2008 followed by his re-election in 2012 (always with the governor's and the president's support), created a special moment in the city's recent history, when three levels of government were articulated and cohesive in search of restructuring and requalification of Rio de Janeiro city.

Within this new party-political context, a collective project of city revitalization and requalification arises, centered on the objective of acquiring the right to host 2016 Olympic Games. In 2009, the third municipal strategic plan was elaborated, under the name Rio Pós 2016, characterized as a government plan, for the period

2009–2012. In the end of 2013, that plan was reviewed and presented a new vision of future to the city for the year of 2030, besides guidelines, goals and initiatives for the period 2013–2016.

Along with publication of Plano Rio Pós 2016, in 2009, the mayor sent to the Town Hall a proposal of City Master Plan review, duly updated in order to allow the city to meet international commitments assumed to hold the 2014 Soccer World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games.

This new version of the City Master Plan was approved in 2011. In essence, Rio de Janeiro organizes itself to foment a receptive environment to attract large private investments and allow the articulation of public-private partnerships to promote some large-sized urban interventions, necessary to stimulate the process of local economical development.

In this scenario, one observes the adoption of a new strategic approach of city's management, more focused on its preparation for new projects and enterprises, even if it means an emptying in investments on issues related to city's collective interest urban structure.

In other words, Rio de Janeiro chooses to adopt a development model focused on "selling" the city in the worldwide market, which favors large projects that expand the city's image, even if it means higher levels of leverage.

In this list can be included the project Cidade das Artes [City of Arts] (in Barra da Tijuca district), Museu do Amanhã (in central area, next to Mauá pier) and the construction of sporting equipment for the Olympic Games, among others that, besides their own functions, already constitute new urban landmarks in the city's skyline and should reach international recognition.

Nowadays, Rio de Janeiro's image in terms of ranking in the country and abroad shows that it has reached a new plateau of exposure, different from the one in previous decades, turning the city more attractive to differentiated social groups—like in the case of its status as an important LGBT destination, once it has been chosen for the second year running "the sexiest gay destination in the world", in an election of the website http://www.tripoutgaytravel.com, in partnership with the American MTV channel, and considering that this election takes into account only touristic issues, without evaluating legislation and social acceptance.

This time, the city's image is positive and the citizens themselves recognize changes in political line, identify improvement in infrastructure as well as quality of services and, most importantly, legitimate governmental initiatives towards actions focused on violence reduction, improvement of social indexes and incorporation of culture in the city's residents and visitors routine and generates several outcomes, among which the city's retouristification process.

Space Regained by Tourism in Rio de Janeiro City: A New Scenario in Formation

Once the space of tourism is understood as the part of space where touristic attractions and equipment and services are concentrated, sustained by an urban infrastructure of support (Beni, 2000; Boullon, 2002) where flows and interrelations between production agents and tourism producers have been determined, it is possible to realize that, in the case of Rio de Janeiro city, this space has been kept in a very limited manner over the last 50 years.

Only during the first decade of this present century, due to issues that go from changes in touristic product consumer behavior (more demanding, less worried about equipment and more focused on the quality of experience that places may offer), to restructuring of management and governance forms of national and municipal touristic sector, one observes major changes in city's touristic space.

Backed up by a context of significant physical and social changes that the city and the state of Rio de Janeiro have gone through over the last years, fruit of a conscience renewal process of their inhabitants about their place in life, tourism offered by the city to its visitors acquires new contours both from spatial and segmentation point of view.

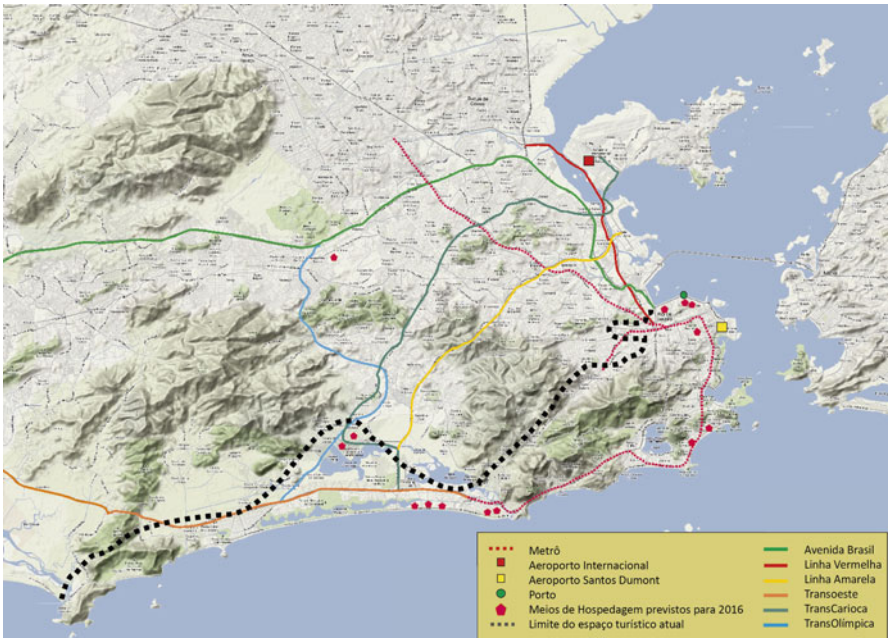
Rio de Janeiro's image as touristic destination of sun, soccer, beach and sex starts to be questioned and reassessed since the early 1990s, with attempts of inclusion, touristic packages offered, of attractions related to protected natural environment (Floresta da Tijuca, Parque Nacional da Tijuca) and with cultural characteristics (historic center, Lapa, Santa Teresa, museums), as well as peculiar areas of precarious urban occupation, more known as favelas.

Until de end of the 1980s, products offered to visitors, both through Riotur's official promotion material and those used by tourism agencies, relentlessly repeated the same tours and places: Sugar Loaf, Corcovado, Copacabana and Ipanema beaches, Maracanã stadium and the Botanic Gardens.

From Rio 92 on, the city's agencies discover new possibilities of products to be traded. Supported by the strengthening of environmental movement and the concept of local basis sustainable development, operators are able to offer to city's visitors at least two other options of tours: rides to Floresta da Tijuca and *tours* to Rocinha slum.

This attitude leads to a significant change in the space used by tourism within the context of Rio de Janeiro city. If up to that moment tourists were "confined" to a narrow urban strip in the city's southern zone, including Copacabana, Ipanema, Leblon, Flamengo and Botafogo and, precariously, to the city's urban center (Castelo, Lapa, Cinelândia), since Rio 92 they have been spread to other areas, advancing mainly towards the city's western zone (São Conrado and Barra da Tijuca districts).

The growth of tourism and businesses events segments also contributes to the expansion of the city's touristic space. The construction of Riocentro in the western zone collaborates with the emergence of the first hotels in Barra da Tijuca back in



Map 3.1 Touristic space of Rio de Janeiro in 2011. *Source*: elaborated by the authors

the early 1990s. Also in the city's central some hotels are re-emerging in order to meet the needs of business visitors, giving other dynamics to that region.

However, large interventions, expected and ongoing works, because of large events that city will host over the next years, are contributing to change and expand more significantly the space of tourism in the city, both in physiografic terms and in opportunities to new experiences that go beyond the sun, the beach and the Carnival. Map 3.1 shows the present touristic space of Rio de Janeiro.

The large works of access roads and means of transportation improvement (expansion of subway and construction of new strategic corridors for collective transportation) are creating new spaces of flow to visitors and facilitating all urban mobility of local population through the city.

The pacification process of slum areas in the city, responsible for control resumption over these communities territory by public power, in turn, is making possible two simultaneous and distinctive processes of touristification (Knafou, 1996; Fratucci, 2009) of these areas.

For tourists, one satisfies the curiosity to get to know these areas so far inaccessible to them and, from residents point of view, one responds to the desire of getting the most out from the opportunity of small businesses structuring in order to attract and to attend these new visitors in the places where they live.

Areas not so long ago considered impossible of being incorporated by tourism agencies tours because of the risk they offered to their visitors, the slums have been "rediscovered" and offered differentiated touristic experiences.

Parallel to this "rediscovery" of landscapes and to redesign of possibilities, the works of current urban interventions in the city are unveiling new experiences to visitors and to cariocas themselves in the central and oldest area of the city, mainly the docklands restructuring, from the project entitled Porto Maravilha and for retouristification of bohemian area of Lapa district, where the highlight has been the Antique Fair of Lavradio street, that takes place always on the first Saturday of each month, during the day and to the newly established Museu de Arte do Rio de Janeiro [Rio de Janeiro's Musem of Art] (MAR), at Mauá Square.

The project Porto Maravilha contemplates the re-urbanization and re-funcionatilization of a large urban area next to the docs, including Gamboa, Santo Cristo, Saúde, Cidade Nova and Caju districts, in a huge process of restructuring.

All this operation was approved by Complementary Municipal Act nr. 101/2009, that created the Rio de Janeiro's Joint Operation of the Docklands Special Urban Interest Area.

The project aims at "promoting local restructuring, by means of expansion, articulation and requalification of public spaces of the region, in order to improve quality of life of their current and future residents and the environmental and social-economic sustainability of the area" (CDURP, 2012a), encompassing a total area of five million square meters, requiring approximately R$ 8 billion in investments until 2015.

These investments will involve from large infrastructure works and modern transportation systems to implementation of cultural centers and museums, like Museu de Arte do Rio (MAR)—already inaugurated—and Museu do Amanhã, work of Spanish architect Santiago Calatrava, both in the area of Mauá Square.

The investments have been raised with private investors through the selling of Constructive Potential Certificates (CEPACs), from the Act 101/2009, which authorizes the construction beyond limits established in the legislation for that area, except areas of preservation, of historical, cultural, architectural heritage and public buildings (CDURP, 2012b).

The revitalization project of Docklands is directly linked to the city's Olympic project and, in that area are expected installations of media hotels area, construction of five-star hotels and installation of a series of cultural and entertainment equipment which will certainly attract more visitors, expanding the space of tourism in the city.

Within this current context, in which Rio de Janeiro city is inserted, where inertia and apathy of its leaders, politicians and businessmen has given way to several movements and plans for spatial, social, cultural, political and economic restructuring, the space of tourism has gone through several changes and reformulations.

Allied to city's endogenous movements, the changes occurred in worldwide touristic market and particularly in the touristic product consumer behavior have provoked and continue to provoke modifications in city's touristic space, which have been expanding both from geographic space point of view, as well as from

segments and experiences that the visitor may enjoy during his/her staying in the city.

A good indication of these changes may be found in the set of promotional material that Riotur has been using nowadays to promote the city to the marketplace and the visitors, a high quality material, awarded by Ministry of Tourism as the best promotional campaign of Brazilian inductor touristic destinations, which represents a city a lot more complex than the one advertised and promoted by the same company until the decade of 1990.

In the official touristic map, an important part of this promotional material, one has a perfect view of what is understood as space of tourism. Despite of presenting in the back a map without scale and encompasses all city's territory, in a small window one finds a kind of map index that shows how the four stretches regarded as touristic articulate themselves, these ones presented in expanded scale.

The four expanded maps (also without scale) represent the area between São Conrado and the city center, the city's central zone, the western zone coastline (Barra da Tijuca) and Paquetá island.

If compared to previous touristic maps, this one clearly shows an expansion of touristic space which, until not long ago would finish in Leblon beach, did not include Paquetá Island and gave little information about the city's western zone.

But as the eyes get farther of geographic space and search for a more complex view of city's urban fabric, it is possible to realize that what has been offered and presented to the visitor nowadays goes far beyond.

The city has still been sold as a destination of beach and sun, but its cultural, architectural and gastronomic characteristics are now highlighted along with opportunities for the practice of several sports, of entertainment and of conferences and professional events.

Another portrait of changes in carioca tourism space is given by mapping of current supply (Table 3.1) of hotels (rooms) and the comparison with inclusion of hotel enterprises that are being built, in a process of approval by the City Hall and under prior consultation, in data made available by the city's development agency, Rio Negócios (Table 3.2).

Nowadays the area classified as Copacabana and includes all city's southern zone, from Glória to Leblon represents 47.96 % of rooms in hotels, while Barra (from São Conrado to Guaratiba), represents 19.21 % of rooms (Graphic 3.1a). Maracanã area, that represents the central area plus great Tijuca and Leopoldina, currently represents 26.38 % rooms supply and the area of Deodoro (northern zone and western part of the city) represents 4.11 % of that supply.

With the figures of rooms expected to be in the market until the year of 2016 (Table 3.2), these percentages will have some changes, with the area of Copacabana reducing its participation to 39.95 % of total supply, while the area of Barra will represent 29.74 % of the supply. The participation of Maracanã and Deodoro areas, despite the absolute addition in rooms supply, will lose relative space, representing 25.29 % and 5.01 % of that supply respectively (Graphic 3.1b).

The estimation is of an increase of 138.84 % in rooms supply in the area of Barra, while in the area of Copacana this increase will be of approximately 26.94 %

Table 3.1 Hotels supply in Rio de Janeiro—2011

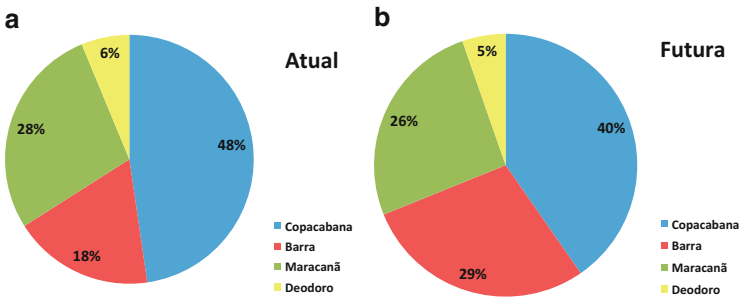
	Barra		Copacabana		Maracanã		Deodoro		Total cidade	
	Property	Rooms	Property	Rooms	Property	Rooms	Property	Rooms	Property	Rooms
Hotel	20	3,000	128	13,325	58	5,070	7	244	213	21,639
5 stars	4	1,609	9	2,768	1	44	–	–	14	4,421
4 stars	4	614	42	5,397	6	1,204	1	62	53	7,277
3 stars	7	536	41	3,689	15	1,824	–	–	63	6,049
2 stars	2	130	28	1,271	10	824	1	36	41	2,261
No classified	3	111	8	200	26	1,174	5	146	42	1,631
Small hotels	10	143	9	93	10	139	–	–	29	375
Hostel	8	31	66	614	18	168	1	8	93	821
Apart-hotel	20	2,702	32	2,072	1	108	–	–	53	4,882
Bed and breadfast	128	141	631	727	152	182	23	26	934	1,076
Motel	18	749	7	271	76	3,622	25	1,771	126	6,413
Total	204	6,766	873	17,102	315	9,289	56	2,049	1,448	35,206

Subtitles: BARRA: AP4, Alto, São Conrado, Vidigal, Guaratiba e Sepetiba; COPACABANA: AP2 (except Grande Tijuca); MARACANÃ: AP1, Grande Tijuca, Zona da Leopoldina, Del Castilho, Cachambi; DEODORO: AP5 (except Guaratiba and Sepetiba), Ilha do Governador, Realengo, Osvaldo Cruz, Pavuna. Source: Riotur, 2013

Table 3.2 Hotels estimated supply (properties) and rooms in Rio de Janeiro, until 2016

	Barra		Copacabana		Maracana		Deodoro		Total	
	Proper-ties	Rooms	Pro-perties	Rooms	Pro-perties	Rooms	Proper-ties	Rooms	Proper-ties	Rooms
Current supply	204	6,766	873	17,102	315	9,289	56	2,049	1,448	35,206
In works or licensed	28	6,282	24	3,218	13	1,758	2	176	67	11,434
Under analysis	14	2,504	10	1,370	16	2,534	2	499	42	6,907
Under consultation	2	608	1	20	2	162			5	790
Estimation 2016	**248**	**16,160**	**908**	**21,710**	**346**	**13,743**	**60**	**2,724**	**1,562**	**54,337**

Source: Adapted from Riotur, 2013



Graphic 3.1 (**a**) Current and (**b**) future rooms supply in Rio de Janeiro, per area. *Source*: Rio Negócios, 2011

in the area of Maracanã will be of 47.94 % more in the current supply. Certainly the most significant increase in the area of Barra is directly related to the offer of sites liberated for construction and with proximity of spaces for events.

Another important observation in this new spatialization of hotels and rooms supply in Rio de Janeiro is related to the size of enterprises in phase of construction, approval and consultation. While enterprises expected for the area of Barra have an average of 23,632 rooms/property, in the area of Copacabana this average is of 13,507 rooms/property and in the area of Maracanã, the average is of 15,730 rooms/property.

On balance, the general average of rooms/property in Barra da Tijuca will be more than the current 8,717 rooms/property to 13,357 rooms/property, while in the area of Copacabana it will go from 6,766 rooms/property to 7,575 rooms/property and in the area of Maracanã it will go from 5,764 rooms/property to 7,175 rooms/property, and in the area of Deodoro, it will increase from 6,130 rooms/property to 7,292 rooms/property. In these averages are not included the housing unities of accommodations of bread and breakfast type.

These figures, linked to one of the main equipment related to touristic development of any destination—the hotels—confirm the trend of urban expansion to the city's western region and indicate other points of attraction to visitors. However, most elements that continue to attract visitors are still in southern zone and in the city's central area.

Final Considerations

This analysis of social-spatial processes, result of touristic practices in Rio de Janeiro, allows us to conclude that the space of tourism in the city have gone through changes both from its spatiality point of view as well as typologies of activities and products made available to the city's visitor.

Rio de Janeiro city's image as touristic destination of soccer, beach and Carnival, very strongly widespread since the decade of 1940 has taken new directions and gained differentiated components from a series of attempts to revitalize the city's urban space.

After a long period of carelessness from governors, population and local leaderships towards the city (decades of 1970 and 1980), an attitude provoked by the process of political, cultural and economic emptying because of capital transference to Brasília in 1960, it is possible to identify a time of resumption, marked by UN II Conference of Environment (Rio 92), in 1992.

In this first attempt, a considerable effort has been made to show the world and the marketplace that the city presented organizational urban structure to host large events and receive a large number of visitors with security, comfort and hospitality.

Although Rio 92 has been well succeed as event, it did not have strength to replace the city in the positive track of cultural and economic development process resumption. At that time, it lacked one of the most important points to any urban restructuring process: the articulation of all social agents involved in the processes, including the three level of government that interfere in the city—municipal, state and federal. This gap was a recurrent problem during all the temporal period analyzed in this work.

In 1993 the first cycle of the city's strategic planning took place and generated the Plan Rio Sempre Rio (1993–1996), in which the organizers made clear that it was not a plan of government, but "a plan for all city". Having as model the strategic planning performed in Barcelona, the Plan Rio Sempre Rio proposed that the city played a prominent role within the chain of global cities and that, for this purpose, among other objectives, it applied to host mega events as a strategy to gain more visibility, mainly in the sense of attracting more visitors and more investors.

This way, it can offer more opportunities to population, whether through generation of jobs, income redistribution or quality of life improvement.

The disarticulation among local political leaderships, materialized in the interruption and in the discontinuity of municipal administration in 1997, did not allow that objects of this Plan and Plano Maravilha were hit within the expected temporal horizon. After a hiatus of 4 years, a new attempt was initiated, with the edition of a second strategic plan, called *The cities of the City*, with eyes more focused on local development and the city seen as a set of parts (administrative regions) that must be thought and managed individually, but without loosing sight that, together, they formed a larger system.

However, disarticulation of city's social agents and administrative discontinuity in municipal management during the period of these two plans ended up creating conflicts between strategic proposals and city's urban policy, once the Master Plan in force did not take into consideration many of the projects and actions included in the strategic plans.

The tension was only solved, in an environment of many conflicts between several sectors of society in 2001 when a new Master Plan was approved by the Town Hall.

This environment of conflicts and disarticulation between many levels of city's government was resolved from 2006 on, with the election of a new state government that compounded the basis of federal government (re-elected in 2010) and, from 2008 on, with the election of the current mayor (re-elected in 2012) who has been in the same political line of federal and state government.

After many decades Rio de Janeiro city has now three levels of articulated government around the same party-political project, in favor of a city's restructuring project. This project takes shape in Rio Pós 2016, which despite being elaborated within the context of a strategic planning process has been assumed as a government plan by the current municipal administration.

In the bulge of this new strategic plan are all projects and actions internationally assumed to give the city the right to hold the largest events of the next years. Built according to a work methodology less participative, the plan follows the model of strategic plans based on places' marketing criteria, which herald that the city must be prepared to be sold and not only be a place of life to its residents.

Within this focus, changes are made in urban policy in order to enable the attraction of large enterprises to the city. Among these interventions is Porto Maravilha Project that includes a large city docklands restructuring, encompassing the territory of four districts, in a state of abandonment and commercial and economic emptying and that today have become a huge building site, such as that implosion of Perimetral viaduct and the implementation of new modals of public transportation.

The big changes in road and transportation system of the city are a second intervention that is modifying the mobility within urban space, placing areas previously inaccessible at disposal of population and visitors.

Also the pacification of slums project, known as UPPs, is redefining the city's space, including in the areas considered as urban, other areas of precarious occupation, known as favelas (slums). This intervention in slums spaces, developed by the state government, constitutionally responsible by public security, allied to projects of inclusion of re-conquered territories from pacified slums to the city are also contributing to an expansion and complexity of tourism space in the city, once new touristic products are being offered to visitors in these places.

Two latest projects are the affirmation of Santa Teresa and Lapa districts, in terms of what has been called by Hayllar, Griffin, and Edwards (2008), as functional touristic areas[1]—areas in which tourism is more clearly evidenced, although it is not the exclusive social-spatial activity—and the expansion of hotels in Rio de Janeiro city that not only re-invents itself from the quality point of view but

[1] The authors define a touristic functional area as a differentiated geographic area, characterized by a concentration of uses, activities and visitation related to tourism, with frontiers commonly difficult to be defined. It is a concept that, in making reference to different spatial scales, can be applied to a region and that incorporates clear references to varied elements of natural space—area, concentration, soil usage, visitation and frontiers. One highlights that these functional areas can be visited also by residents, but what defines them as touristic is the priority or marked presence of visitors, whether tourists or hikers.

describes a geographic movement of city's territory spreading, occupying areas to which it did not show any interest whatsoever.

Rio de Janeiro city today finds itself worldwide exposed and lives a moment of great physical, spatial, social and economic changes, as it did not live for so long. After loosing political, commercial and economic space, the city can be considered "the cue ball", the place where everyone wants to live in and invest on.

One of the examples of this worldwide exposition was the re-edition of UN Conference About Environment and Development (Rio-92) 20 years later. It was the UN Conference About Sustainable Development, Rio + 20, held in the city between 13 and 22 June 2012.

In recognition to the importance of the city within the worldwide context, UNO general meeting chose Rio de Janeiro as headquarter of the event already in 2009. Rio + 20, whose objective is to contribute to the definition of a sustainable development agenda for the next decades emerged as the first current large challenge to public managers and the private initiative to effectively insert the city into the global agenda. With the participation of several chiefs of state, and their representatives, besides environmentalists of all over the world, attracting numerous visitors to Rio de Janeiro city, Rio + 20—although it still cannot objectively and entirely evaluate the positive and negative effects of the event just held –faced problems and presented innovative solutions as part of a learning process that has just started.

Recently, challenges have been working as tests preceding the Soccer World Cup and the Olympic Games. The World Youth Day (JMJ Rio 2013) took place between July 23 and 28 2013 in Rio de Janeiro city

This event that aimed at making young people from all over the world celebrate and learn about Christian faith as well as build relationships of friendship and hope among continents, peoples and cultures returned to South America after 25 years, since its second edition was held in 1987 in the city of Buenos Aires and gathered approximately one million participants. The previous edition took place in Madrid between August 16 and 21 2011 and gathered approximately 1.5 million participants. This event traditionally attracts thousands of tourists from several countries and the expectations of National Confederation of Bishops of Brazil (CNBB) were confirmed, with Rio de Janeiro edition being one of the greatest ever held, generating a total impact of pilgrims expenses on the economy of the city of R$ 1,868,176,517.67 (Observatório do Turismo do Rio de Janeiro, 2013a).

In 2013, Rio de Janeiro was also the headquarters of the Soccer Confederation Cup, a tournament organized by FIFA and disputed by six continental champions, besides the host country and the latest FIFA's World Cup champion, totalizing eight participant countries. This event, considered a preparation for the World Cup attracted numerous visitors, interested in watching matches among some of the main national teams of the world and generated a total of tourists expenses on the economy of the city of R$ 105,418,735.64 (Observatório do Turismo do Rio de Janeiro, 2013b).

Large private investments keep on being raised and public-private partnerships start to stimulate significant interventions in urban space, which has led to transfiguration, both of carioca's daily space and of space used to tourism and by

tourists. Places, attractions and functional urban areas until not so long considered inappropriate or inaccessible to residents and visitors are now being incorporated to the city as new housing options or new touristic products (and places) marketable.

Certainly all these changes bring with them several processes of modifications less objective than the ones physical-spatial, like the processes of gentrification that have been verified in some slums, in Lapa and in the Docklands. In these places, the population living there for decades has been replaced by new residents who "discover" such places and adopt them as "a place of housing".

In some cases, this mobility of residents is oriented by laws of market with the original population taking advantage of their houses valuation, selling them spontaneously and looking for new districts to live in.

In other cases, more dramatic and almost never advertised, residents are prevented of continuing in their houses because of tax and cost of life increases in these restructured places which makes them necessarily or indirectly look for other housing options.

Even within slums this same process has taken place. Vidigal, Rocinha and Dona Marta hills certainly are the best example of this. In them it is possible to find properties occupied by residents from other districts and even foreign citizens who opted to live in the city and, more specifically, in these slums.

The scenario that the city offers nowadays as touristic space is very different from the one it used to offer 30 years ago, both from spatiality point of view and the type of experience the city has been offering to its visitors—national or foreigners—and also to its residents.

The city that in the past was formed by touristic products based on beaches, soccer and Carnival, today is presented as a complex, multifaceted and dynamic touristic destination that must be seen, lived, felt and absorbed by all.

It is not just a touristic destination of "sun and beach" anymore, but a place for one to live great experiences, in natural and urban spaces related to culture, residents way of life, possibilities of practicing a considerable range of sports activities and organizing professional and social events of numerous dimensions.

This new touristic space, still under construction, will only be finished in a few years. Maybe it will only be concluded in 2016, with the Olympic Games. Until then, many uncertainties will still be felt and perceived.

One thing is certain: the success (or not) of these changes will be determined by the capacity of articulation of all social agents involved in the city's construction, the level of attention given to fundamental problems, the responsible management of real state development and the right administration even of the gentrification processes.

Rio de Janeiro lives a very special moment. Góes (2011, p. 51) points out that "in a historical perspective, if well-succeed, the legacy plan of the large events of this decade will be able to be compared to the magnitude of impacts [...] of urban transformations of Pereira Passos in the early twentieth century".

The challenge of the construction of a better Rio de Janeiro, to be definitely inserted in the worldwide circuit of touristic destinations, although huge, can be met. It is enough that the interests of the city and its residents and visitors be placed effectively above businesses interests of groups and individuals.

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Chapter 4
Enotourism in Argentina: The Power of Wine to Promote a Region

Regina G. Schlüter and Juana Norrild

Abstract Wine provides Argentina with an important tool for attracting tourists and strengthening the country's image. The Argentine province of Mendoza is wine country *par excellence* and it is therefore no surprise that it has worked hardest to develop wine tourism in Argentina. To get a clearer picture of the subject of wine tourism in that province, the literature on the development of wine tourism and the creation of wine routes in Argentina was reviewed. In addition the region was explored and two wineries visited in order to get a better idea of the changes they underwent when the prevailing conditions in Mendoza's wine industry altered in the 1990s. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with those in charge of the wineries, and structured interviews with visitors. The collected material indicates that the Mendoza Wine Route is successful, but that there remain aspects requiring adjustment.

Keywords Wine tourism • Mendoza (Argentina) • Wineries • Wine routes

Introduction

Wine tourism is becoming more and more important and, along with culinary tourism, has been incorporated as a special interest under the larger umbrella of cultural tourism, and although viewed in a number of different ways by scholars (Días Armas, 2008; Hernández, 2010; Medina & Tresserras, 2008; Remus Fávero & Rotta Antunes, 2007; Tonini & Lavandoski, 2010; Zamora & Barril, 2007) it basically comprises visiting wine-producing regions both to learn about the

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cultivation process and related activities and to enjoy relaxing and spending time in the wineries.

Nevertheless visiting wineries is nothing new, and there are records of organized trips for that purpose during the time of the Grand Tour, and even in the era of Ancient Greece and Rome (Hall et al., 2004). The last-cited authors point out a combination of several factors. Firstly, the transport revolution created by the development of the railway, which greatly facilitated access. Secondly, the social revolution represented by the growth of a new middle class that sought out wine in imitation of the aristocracy. Lastly, the publication in 1855 of "Classification of the Wines of the Gironde" gave wine and wine regions an explicit and official identity as a tourist destination for the first time (Hall et al., 2004, p. 2).

Hall et al. (2004) also add that wine routes became part of German tourism from the 1920s onwards, and were gradually extended to other Central European countries and then to California in the USA, Ontario in Canada, New Zealand and Australia. In South America, people began to organize festivals with the aim of promoting wine production. In 1931 the Festival of the Grape was created in Caxias do Sul (Brazil) and continues to be held biannually. Its objectives include promoting wine growing and the rural environment in which it takes place (Tomazzoni, 2003).

Wine was also an important tourist attraction in the province of Mendoza (Argentina), a fact reflected in the slogan *land of sun and good wine* and in the Grape Harvest Festival, held every March since 1936, which by the 1950s was already established as a major event. Argentina has focused on wine tourism in order to develop their wine growing regions, in the same way as Australia and New Zealand (Duarte Alonso, 2005; Hall, 2005; Treloar, Hall, & Mitchell, 2004), Brazil (Remus Fávero & Rotta Antunes, 2007; Tonini & Lavandoski, 2010), Canada (Brown & Getz, 2005), Chile (Zamora & Barril, 2007), Spain (Díaz Armas, 2008; Duarte Alonso, Sheridan, & Scherrer, 2008; Hernández, 2010; López-Guzmán Guzmán, Millán Vázquez de la Torre, & Caridad y Ocerín, 2008; Marzo-Navarro & Pedraja-Iglesias, 2012; Millán Vázquez de la Torre & Melián Navarro, 2008; Rodríguez García, López-Guzmán, Cañizarez Ruiz, & Jiménez García, 2010), the United States, France and Italy (Presenza, Minguzzi, & Petrillo, 2010), Portugal, and South Africa (Bruwer, 2003).

The aim of this study is to analyze the success of the Ruta del Vino in Mendoza, Argentina (in English, the Mendoza Wine Route) through two case studies, the Familia Zuccardi Winery and the Séptima Winery. The relevant literature was researched, and both wineries assessed using participative observation. In addition semi-structured interviews of the people running the wineries, and structured interviews of visitors, were conducted.

The Development of Wine Production in Argentina

Wine growing in Argentina started in the sixteenth century with the arrival of the Jesuits, who needed it for religious purposes and found the Andes region to be ideally suited to wine growing. In the seventeenth century wine production in the Cuyo region, in which Mendoza is situated, began to impact on the national economy. The earliest grapes to be grown came from Spain. *As in the rest of the Americas, it was the Spanish settlers who planted the Vitis Vinifera here. Some argue that the vine came straight from Peru by way of the Puna de Atacama (the Atacama plateau). But written tradition considers Chile to be the source of the Argentine vineyards (*Wiesenthal, 2011, p. 70). In contrast the official Argentine version is that in 1556 the priest Juan Cedrón brought some vine cuttings in order to make altar wine. Later, Aimé Pouget set up an experimental vineyard in Mendoza and introduced some French varieties: Chardonnay and Malbec. The dry climate, meltwaters and considerable altitude helped to produce excellent crops. Around 1880 the first Argentine-style winery—El Trapiche—was established. Today this winery produces only top of the range wines. One of the most significant and well-adapted varieties is Malbec, known as the French grape, and it was converted into an emblem of the development of foreign trade by the Argentine wineries.

Until 1870 the main economic activity in the province of Mendoza was the farming of cereals, principally alfalfa, in irrigated areas, and the exportation of cattle overland to Chile. However political changes in Argentina and Chile, the arrival of the railway, and the mass immigration of people of Mediterranean stock, resulting in increased consumption of wine in all parts of the country, added to the destruction caused by grape phylloxera (Philloxera vastatrix) in the vineyards of France, resulted in wine growing becoming a rapidly increasing and hugely profitable activity which in turn created a series of related industries that benefited the regional economy (Richard-Jorba, Pérez Romagoli, Barrio, & Sanjurjo, 2006).

At first the wine was transported to Buenos Aires by train, where it was divided up for subsequent bottling before being "diluted" with water due to its high concentration. It was mainly destined for consumption in the internal market, and ice and soda were added by drinkers to improve its flavor. However further socioeconomic changes occurred in the 1990s, which had a considerable impact on the country's wine production. The industry began to produce high-end wines, and the boundaries of the wine-producing region along the foothills of the Andes were extended to as far south as Northern Patagonia (the 42nd parallel south) and all the way to the province of Salta in the far north of the country. The region was also extended to other provinces in the center of the country, but there was still little interest in the international market.

However the province of Mendoza now produces between 70 % and 75 % of all Argentine fine wine and competes very successfully in the global market, winning major prizes; it is considered to be South America's most important wine-growing center (Caviar-Bleu, 2008).

An important step in the growth of Mendoza's wine-growing and tourism industries was the inclusion of Mendoza in the Great Wine Capitals Global Network in 2005. However not all of Mendoza's wineries have taken forward the concept of wine tourism.

The Emergence of Enotourism

In parallel with the growth of wine growing during the 1990s as a result of much investment and the arrival of national and foreign capital, the wine producers were able to note that in various parts of the world wineries had ceased being mere production plants and were adding leisure facilities and informational services to increase awareness of the world of wine (Argentine Presidency, undated). Many wineries opened their doors to the public as a result, and it also led to the earliest development of the wine route, in which, of the eight participating provinces, the province of Mendoza took the initiative, creating agencies responsible for the development, staffing and promotion of wine tourism. Mendoza also has the highest number (65 %) of wineries open to the public.

Seasonal activities were designed with the aim of offering attractions all year round. These services and products include the following in particular (Fuller, 2005):

- *Traditional tours*: vineyards, winery, visitor center, wine tasting.
- *Exclusive tours*: vehicular tour of the vineyards, visit to the winery, tasting of a wine selected by an enologist and accompanied by cheeses and cooked meats.
- *Harvest program*: available during February, March and April, this involves a tour of the vineyards accompanied by an agronomist, followed by a wine tasting.
- *Pruning program*: this full-day activity in the company of an agronomist is available during August and September; a wine tasting is offered in addition to the tour of the vineyards.
- *Wine tasting courses*: vertical tasting techniques (different vintages of the same wine) under the instruction of an enologist.
- *Courses on cooking with wine*: how to cook dishes using the wines of the wineries in which the courses are held.
- *Wine blending course*: after visiting the winery the visitor has the knowledge to create his or her own wine.

To gain a better understanding of the consumer profile, and then convert that into targeted product development, Fontela and Pavón (2005) compiled a classification of visitors to Mendoza, which distinguished between the casual visitor, the novice wine taster and the wine connoisseur.

- *Casual visitor*: This is the tourist who does not claim to have any knowledge of wine and visits a winery as a recreational activity, in other words they go because Mendoza is synonymous with wine and they believe one shouldn't

leave without visiting one of its wineries. They have no interest in the winemaking process or the development of the wine industry; they simply wish to "look, take photos and buy some of the merchandising" to show that they went to a winery, without it mattering which.

- *Novice wine taster*: This is the person who is taking his first steps towards becoming a lover and connoisseur of wine. He keeps a low profile, he arrives, listens, asks a lot of basic questions. He is clearly a new wine taster, devours information and pays a lot of attention to his surroundings.
- *Wine connoisseur*: This person reads widely about wines, attends tasting courses and belongs to a wine club. He has tried a variety of brands, and arrives at the winery looking for more specific, more technical knowledge. He wants to deal with someone with knowledge of wines.

In view of the constant growth of wine tourism and the great opportunity offered by opening up wineries to tourists, Argentina Wineries, with the support of the Inter-American Development Bank, signed a cooperation agreement in 2007 with the country's Secretary of Tourism, the Federal Investment Council, the National Institute for Tourism Promotion and the governments of the country's wine growing provinces to establish the Argentine Wine Tourism Consolidation Plan (PCEA) with the aim of strengthening wine tourism activities. With a view to connecting the public and private sectors with the wine and tourism industries, the Wine Tourism Board was created as the governing body at the heart of the Argentine Wine Growers Association (COVIAR) within the context of the Argentine Winegrowers Strategic Plan 2020.

The province of Mendoza currently produces 70 % of Argentina's wine and with more than 100 wineries open to the public has the greatest wine tourism activity in the country. According to Malizia (2010), using a report by the Tourism Department of Wineries of Argentina as his source, 768,846 people travelled the Argentine Wine Routes in the first half of 2010, representing an increase of 57.7 % on the 2009 figure. Mendoza, with 34 %, San Juan, with 14 %, and Salta, with 11 %, were the Argentine provinces with the greatest proportion of wine tourists. According to the same report, 35 % of the wine tourists were foreign, coming from the United States, Brazil, Chile, the UK, France, Spain, Germany, Italy and Portugal. Another 64 % were Argentinean and came mostly from the city of province of Buenos Aires. In terms of visitor services, 79 % of the wineries have at least one member of staff with tourism responsibilities, and 42 % employ an enologist or have a tourist program.

The Wine Routes and Wineries of the Province of Mendoza

There is clearly some confusion in the nomenclature of wine routes, at least in Spanish. Rather than using a specific label, people opt indiscriminately for either "rutas" or "caminos" (both of which translate into English as "route", meaning no

lack of clarity arises in that language). The Argentine Ministry of Tourism, for example, uses the term "ruta" in main headings, but then in the same document refers to the same thing by the term "camino" (Ministry of Tourism, undated). The same thing happens in the private sector.

The Mendoza Wine Route has different regions, the number, name and demarcation of which vary from author to author. According to Rolland and Chrabolowsky (2003, p. 50) it has four regions: West Central, Valle de Uco (Uco Valley), East and South, while Caviar Bleu (2008, p. 55) refers to the North Mendoza Region, the Upper River Mendoza Zone, the East Mendoza Region and the Uco Valley, and the Ministry of Tourism uses the Upper River Mendoza Zone, the Uco Valley and the East and South Regions. In referring to them here, we will adopt the official classification of the Ministry of Tourism (undated).

The Upper River Mendoza Zone is considered the cradle of Malbec. It produces fine wines par excellence, and is home to the greatest number of wineries. In addition to Malbec, the growers of the region cultivate other varieties such as Cabernet Sauvignon, Syrah, Tempranillo, Bonarda, Pinot Noir, Merlot, Chardonnay, Sauvignon Blanc and Viognier.

It is also home to the oldest—and, for their high fruit density, most valued—vineyards in the province. The region includes the departments of Maipú, Luján de Cuyo, Godoy Cruz, Guaymallén and Las Heras, all of them very close to the city of Mendoza. The zone is also known for its olive production, and has two wine museums. These are La Rural Winery Museum, one of the most important in the Americas, which is visited by some 66,000 tourists every year (according to winery figures); and the museum of Giol Wineries. Furthermore it contains the town of Chacras de Coria, which is home to top quality restaurants, estates and lodges.

The East Zone is considered the main region due to the overall extent of its vineyards and its volume of production. It includes the departments of San Martín, Rivadavia, Junín, Santa Rosa and La Paz and has a sandy, arid landscape. In general the wineries of this zone are large, designed for the large-scale production of popular wines with a capacity of more than 10 million liters. Recently they have added the technology needed for fine wine production. Traditionally, the varieties grown here are Criolla grande, Moscatel and Cereza, although in the last 10 years fine varieties, including Malbec, Merlot, Bonarda, Sangiovese, Syrah, Tempranillo and Ugni Blanc, have begun to be planted.

The Uco Valley Zone comprises the departments of San Carlos, Tunuyán and Tupungato, and is both the youngest of the wine growing regions and the highest, being between 900 and 1,200 m above sea level. It is also in the midst of expansion, both in terms of wineries and as regards tourist accommodation for the growing number of visitors. This nascent zone, whose vineyards are no more than 10 years old, lies in the Andes, which gives it an additional scenic attraction, in addition to its characteristically well-maintained architecture, given that most of the wineries have been built within the last few years.

A collection of businesses backed by foreign capital, including from Chile, France, Spain and the Netherlands, have been established here. The red wine varieties grown in this zone are Malbec, Cabernet Sauvignon, Syrah, Tempranillo,

Merlot and Barbera. Semillón stands out among the white varieties, which account for 30 % of total production.

The South Zone is in the center of the province and includes the departments of San Rafael and General Alvear. This zone contains every type of winery, from the family-owned and the artisanal, through small boutique wineries and century-old classics, to large-scale must producers and finally to the most modern plants producing champagne-style sparkling wines. They principally grow Cabernet Sauvignon, Malbec, Bonarda, Syrah, Chardonnay, Chenin and Sauvignon Blanc grapes. Due to its geography, this zone combines wine tourism with water sports.

The success of the Wine Route rests on the success of the wine industry. *Argentina exported 843,000 hectoliters of wine in 2000, and 1,852,862 hectoliters in 2005. Around half were fine wines.* [...] *This represented almost 125 million dollars for the country in 2000, 231.4 million dollars in 2004 and 302.4 million dollars in 2005, revealing a remarkable growth trajectory* (Caviar-Bleu, 2008, p. 198). To this we should add the technological advances made in vine cultivation, such as organic agriculture, and attempts to restore respect for Nature. There are, for example, vineyards that take account of lunar cycles and the movement of the stars. Bisson, Waterhouse, Ebeler, Walker, and Tapsley (2002) were saying exactly that 10 years ago: *The challenge to wine producers in this new century is daunting—to understand the fundamental motivation behind consumer choice and to produce wines of enhanced attractiveness while simultaneously developing and implementing sustainable production practices for both grape growing and wine making.*

In addition to the foregoing we can add the current trend for young people to participate actively in wine culture; and in explaining the success of the wine route, we should also highlight the extensiveness of its target public.

Additionally, the route is closely linked to traditional and haute cuisine and olive growing, the latter enabling some wineries to make own-brand olive oil. This adds further points to their success, since the most successful wineries have a restaurant and even accommodation.

The restaurants each have a select, distinctive gourmet menu, but they all offer dishes that complement their wines. The restaurant in the Club Tapiz hotel, for example, offers dishes made using organic homegrown produce, while the restaurant at the Viñas del Golf estate offer dishes made in clay ovens and on flaming grills.

Being able to benefit from staying in a winery is indicative of a segment of the tourist market with considerable buying power. That is certainly true of the Salentein Winery, in the Uco Valley, or of the Club Tapiz hotel, in the department of Maipú. The Salentein Inn is surrounded by vineyards and allows the tourist to enjoy all of the activities offered by the winery, which include an art gallery and a sculpture patio. *It has eight rooms housed in two cottages, and offers regional cooking. Facing the winery there is a culinary and cultural complex called Kilka* (Schlüter, 2006, p. 168). Club Tapiz, meanwhile, offers fine delicacies amidst the grapes, olives and mountains. *It is a small luxury hotel belonging to NA Town &*

Country Hotels, which has seven rooms with views of the vineyards, a spa, and a restaurant. It also runs a cookery school (Schlüter, 2006, p. 169).

The city of Mendoza, on the other hand, in addition to its top of the range accommodation, also provides a wide range of accommodation options in terms of services and price. In general, the majority of tourists opt to stay in the city.

> *We would have loved to stay in a winery, but we couldn't afford to. That's for foreign tourists.* (I20)

Among the most important top hotels in Mendoza is the Park Hyatt Mendoza, which has a link to the vineyards in the form of the vinotherapy treatments in its grape-inspired spa. It also has a large display of the best Argentine wines.

Although the Mendoza Wine Route is a success, there are without doubt certain things that need to be adjusted in order to provide a more complete tourist product. We will go on to consider these aspects now.

For a start, it should be pointed out that getting to some of the wineries is not easy given the scarcity of brochures with maps and additional information, inadequate signage and the poor condition of some local roads.

Access to information on these zones, still in early form, is obtained through tourism websites, the Argentine Tourism Ministry, the under secretariat of Tourism of the city of Mendoza and other official organizations (with maps showing how to get there). In general, the maps have insufficient detail.

The main access roads are signposted, but a lot of details still need to be tightened up, since many wineries are located in places accessed only by small unpaved roads without proper signage. Above all, however, even though you can call in advance for directions, there are no clear, accurate printed materials. This is plain from the testimony of the tourists interviewed.

> *We travelled to Mendoza by car and tried to visit several wineries on our own, but we found it quite difficult to locate some of them, especially those situated on side roads off the highway, which are unpaved and are like a spiderweb* (I1).

> *It was difficult to get to some wineries because as they weren't clearly signposted on the highway, we stopped at a service station to ask for directions and they sent us the wrong way. Then we stopped at a restaurant and they hadn't even heard of the winery.* (I2).

There are various specialized, and other more diversified, tourist agencies that offer classic and personalized packages; but for travellers who attempt to get to the wineries on their own, the pitfalls are clear from the foregoing examples.

Another obstacle is the lack of coordination among wineries. Although there appears to be communication between them, there is neither a guide nor a map that would enable the tourist to plan an efficient independent tour of them.

> *We thought about visiting the Zuccardi and Salentein wineries on the same day, since there didn't seem to be much distance between them, but we were only able to visit one and had to cancel the other. If things had been better organized we could in fact have visited another closer winery.* (I1).

The Inter-American Development Bank, the Multilateral Investment Fund (FOMIN) and Argentine Wineries (undated:45) state that while Mendoza and

Salta exhibit an established demand for wine tourism, visiting a winery in the other regions is merely one activity in a package of complementary attractions. Nevertheless another obstacle that Mendoza wineries must sooner or later face up to is competition from other provinces that are developing their own wine tourism. This was confirmed by interviewees.

> *Although I have family in Mendoza, I went to explore the San Juan wine route after visiting them, and on our next trip we're planning to visit Salta's* (I17).

The subjects of the two case studies, which are both located in the Upper River Mendoza Zone, reflect a crucial event in the story of Argentine winemaking, namely the replacement, beginning in the 1990s, of many older immigrant winemakers with Argentine or foreign businessmen who invested in the industry and breathed new life into it. Thus Familia Zuccardi is typical of the older wineries that were modernized and not only survived but achieved great success; whereas Séptima represents the fledgling wineries created from new injections of foreign investment, in this case from Spain.

> *In many cases the newly arrived investors developed existing wineries; in other cases they remodeled them or took a chance on building new temples in which adherents could worship their wines. But in all cases the idea was the same, that wineries are not merely industrial establishments, but also attractive places where commercial, touristic and cultural features are combined for the benefit of the visiting consumer* (Caviar-Bleu, 2008, p. 143)

Familia Zuccardi Winery

The Familia Zuccardi Winery, situated in the department of Maipú, was founded by an Argentinean, and its strategy is based on its long history as a family business. In 1963 the founder planted a vineyard with the aim of demonstrating to local producers an irrigation system that he had created, and this would lead in 1968 to his great passion for winemaking. In 1976 his son joined him, and in 1980, anticipating the impending changes in the wine industry, they started restructuring the vineyards. Thus emerged the Santa Julia brand in honor of the founder's daughter. In 1999 they introduced their first premium wines.

The winery has a capacity of 16.5 million liters, and is the archetypal family business. The eldest son runs the Uco Valley winery, and the younger is in charge of Zuccardi olive oil production, while the daughter runs the winery restaurant, and their grandmother is curator of the art gallery. This image of a family business is explicit on the winery's webpage.

Familia Zuccardi's visitor program includes guided tours of the winery and the art gallery; wine tastings; tours of the vineyards by bicycle, antique car or hot air balloon; grape harvesting; cookery courses; and restaurant facilities, offering both an a la carte menu and the possibility of a deluxe picnic lunch. The picnic hamper includes place settings and cloth napkins, a selection of cheeses, cooked meats,

patés and vegetables, hot sandwiches, bottles of water and a selection of the winery's wines, as well as a selection of desserts and champagne. *We loved the picnic. Delicious, and really tastefully put together* (I6).

Every little detail of the picnic reflects the winery's hospitality and selfless service to the visitor. The Zuccardis seek to create an idyllic image of profound pleasure and enjoyment. No aspect of this image is random. The concept of the family is present in the first email contact, it lasts throughout the visit and it is still there when the visitors are finally bid farewell. The idea they project is that the visitor leaves the winery having had an unforgettable experience.

> *It's great that a Zuccardi welcomes you, Julia Zuccardi serves your food and another Zuccardi sells you your wine* (I9).

The Familia Zuccardi Winery's restaurant, Casa del Visitante, is set in a genuine Mendoza ranch house, surrounded by vines and olive gardens. It opened in 2004, and in 2006 won the Best Winery Restaurant category in the "The Great Wine Capitals" awards. The winery started to receive visitors in 2001 and has kept records of visitor numbers since 2004, when it registered 8,100 visitors. In 2005 the number rose to 14,700 (an increase of 81 % on the previous year), and it has been rising steadily ever since, currently (according to winery figures) showing around 45,000 visitors per year.

The winery has a comprehensive wine store that sells exclusive products such as wines in development and even vinotherapy products. These are aimed as much at the casual visitor as at the novice wine taster and the connoisseur.

There is no direct access to the winery from the highway. Visitors have to take an unpaved road when they leave the highway, and the signposting is liable to confuse the first-time visitor.

> *We went round in circles before we arrived. We took the wrong dirt road several times and ended up lost. The highway signs are confusing.* (I5).

> *We came as part of a tour, so we had no problems* (I6).

Séptima Winery

The Séptima Winery, located in the department of Luján de Cuyo, belongs to the Spanish group Codorniú and has built its image on the creation of a distinct identity for its Argentine production based on imported experience.

The winery was created in 2001 and is an imposing structure inspired by the extinct culture of the Huarpes, the area's historic owners. This ancient system of construction is called pirca and involves the superimposition of Andean stones. *A non-violent, tribal-based people who raised animals and used ceramics with a clear Peruvian influence, the Huarpes owed the quality and extensiveness of their system of irrigation channels to the Incas, the natives of Cuzco, in Peru* (Caviar-Bleu, 2008, p. 12).

The founders of Codorniú of Spain acquired 320 ha in Luján de Cuyo, investing U$S 2.5 million to establish a new winery (Rolland & Chrabolowsky, 2003, p. 109). The winery has more than 150 planted hectares and capacity for three million bottles.

In 2010 Séptima Winery received more than 8,000 visitors, and in 2011 that number grew to almost 11,000, thanks to a significant increase in the number of social events held at the winery. Based on information supplied by the winery, it would appear that 60 % of visitors were Argentinean (from Buenos Aires, Mendoza, Santa Fe and Córdoba) and the remaining 40 % foreign (from Brazil, the USA, Canada, Belgium and Chile).

In terms of production data, the winery's figures show that more than 3 million liters of wine and sparkling wine were produced in 2011, with organic growth of 20 % in wines and 25 % in sparkling wines since their respective launches in 2001 and 2003, and between 50 % and 60 % of production is destined for exportation.

Since 2003 Séptima has offered guided tours of its facilities, standard and special wine tastings, the harvest program during the grape picking season (which includes grape picking, a guided tour and lunch), a sunset sparkling wine tasting program during summer, and a restaurant with the winery's María range of wines. In the restaurant, visitors are offered endless reasons to enjoy the winery's wine, with snacks, music and an unequalled view. Social and corporate events can also be held on the restaurant's exceptional terrace within sight of the Andes.

The tour is enjoyable, clear and focused. In particular, effort is made to portray the winery as a laboratory, efficient and tidy. Indeed, the actual laboratory has a prominent place within the winery.

> *Although I have visited other wineries, this is where I get the high-end wines I like. And it all seems to run like in a laboratory* (I13).

A very important detail of the guided tours of the wineries is that each one has a different profile and adds something new, since each winery produces its wine differently. Even the visitors detect this.

> *I went to several wineries before visiting Séptima and I expected to be bored. I was surprised to get different information in each one, and they each taught me something new* (I11).

The winery shop is small but with a very specific range. It would appear to be aimed at the expert wine tourist, and even specifically to visitors faithful to the winery's brand.

As regards signposting and the state of Séptima Wineries' access roads, there are few problems, since the winery is accessed direct from Route 7, which leads to Chile. *Getting there was quick and straightforward. It's well signposted* (I18).

Final Comments

It can be said that the Mendoza Wine Route is a successful project that builds on the success of the wine industry itself, as well as being the result of the individual enterprises that have driven the development of tourism in the wineries.

The great strength of the Mendoza Wine Route is having the backing of a successful and burgeoning industry that recognized when and how to evolve and adapt to global changes. Growing interest in the enjoyment of wine culture over the last decade or more has also strengthened the Wine Route.

The obvious weakness of the Mendoza Wine Route, on the other hand, is the lack of an organization to coordinate the industry and provide tourists with a large amount of accurate information. If there was one, tourists could use their time more efficiently and avoid the disorientation that results from the web of badly signposted, and at times unpaved, access roads. There is still no official plan of communication to make finding the wineries by oneself faster and easier.

If the provincial and national road networks were improved, the Wine Route might have a chance of growing even further. What is really lacking is signposting, roads improvements and coordination among the wineries, as well as cheaper accommodation in the wineries. Improving these weaknesses would result in greater visitor satisfaction and make the industry appear better developed.

A less significant weakness is the lack of cultural activity in the city of Mendoza to complement the Route. The city has a lot of potential for cultural output, in terms of architecture, art, theater and so on, but there is an insufficiently wide offer.

Finally, there is a threat to the Route in the form of the marked growth of new wine routes in neighboring provinces, and in order to maintain the success of its tourism Mendoza perhaps needs to be creative again. One of those competing routes is that of Salta, which has developed considerably in recent years, supplementing its wine tourism with the heritage of its traditional crafts, its culinary traditions, the landscape of the foothills of the Andes, and themed accommodation. In addition the Wine and Vine Museum, a lively interactive venue with audiovisual stimuli, was opened in Cafayate in 2011. The wine route of San Juan is also showing considerable growth.

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Chapter 5
Good Practices in Private Parks. Valdivian Coastal Reservation

Héctor Caripan Sanzana, Alfredo Almonacid, and Edgardo Oyarzun Mendez

Abstract This research unveils the main *good practices* used by the Valdivian Coastal Reservation Park, which have led it to be one of the most interesting examples of conservation of Valdivian woodland ecosystems, promoted by private individuals in Chile. The outcomes of the investigation show a gradual change of social perception, on how to use the forest resources, that used to have the local communities adjacent to the park, who in the beginning (2003) had an extractive resources vision, stating today (2012) a more sustainable vision of how to use those resources, empirically demonstrating for the Chilean case, that a period no less of 10 years of support are needed for a community to achieve a collective internalization of the firsts concepts of good practices as a collective social benefit of economic, social and environmental implications.

Keywords Good practices • Private parks • Tourism development • Valdivia • Valdivian coastal reservation

Introduction

Good Practices in Private Parks

The wealth in literature and information on protected areas in general and on the Privates Areas management in particular is extremely broad as Arensberg (2011) indicates in the bibliographic part of his consulting work for the project "Creation

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of an integral national system of protected areas for Chile", where he mentions that organizations such as the International Convention on Biodiversity (http://www.cbd.org) and its various protocols; the Nature Conservancy (http://www.nature.org), the World Wildlife Fund (http://www.worldwildlife.org) and the Wildlife Conservation Society (http://www.wcs.org), the United Nations Program for the Environment (http://www.pnuma.org), are just some of the institutions that generate literature on protected areas management and manuals of good environmental and social practices in these areas.

Despite the fact that there are a variety of good practice manuals for natural parks, most of them are focused on the standards of conduct to be followed by park visitors, on the tourism entrepreneurs that make use of its facilities, etc., still there are few studies and researches that identify, systematize and evaluate *good practices,* implemented by the administrations of parks and/or nature reserves and their impact on local communities living in the buffer zones of these parks, mostly if these areas are located relatively close to urban centers and are used by nearby residents as a provider of resources (wood, grasses, fruits, wood, etc.).

This adds to that only in the last decade, some studies (Balvanera & Cotler, 2007; Costanza et al., 1997; Donoso & Otero, 2005; Mäller, 1992; Nahuelhual & Nuñez, 2010; Oyarzún, Nahuelhual, & Núñez, 2005) begin to give ecosystemic value to the conservation of natural ecosystems (forests, marshes, wetlands, fjords, etc.), being this one of the reasons for which there are no agreed international standards of management and development of private protected areas, and where each country develops its own methodologies, many of which are in an embryonic state in Latin American.

What Are Private Parks or Private Protected Areas?

While there is no agreed definition and universally accepted, several local organizations have begun implementing Private Protected Areas, mainly based on the definition agreed at the Park World Congress, developed in Durban, South Africa in 2003, stating that Private Protected Areas are: "A portion of land of any size that is managed with the primary purpose of conserving biodiversity, is protected with or without formal government recognition and is owned or guaranteed by individuals, communities, corporations or NGOs" (UICN, 2005).

> It is from this first approach, that some Latin American countries such as Argentina, which through their provincial governments have started introducing Private Protected Area definitions to its rules. "... Areas with natural elements similar to those of a Provincial Park, which, through special agreements, become part of the Provincial System of Protected Areas ..." (Province of Salta. LAW No. 7107. Art. 28).

In Chile, despite the Wilderness Protected Private Property were recognized on the Environment Base Law (1994), in its Article n° 35, did not enter in force because the regulations that defined and integrated into the National System was

Table 5.1 Table comparing public and private area

	Number of units	Protected area (ha)	Percentage ratio to the national territory
Public system[a]	99	14,549,020	19 %
Private system[b]	33	600,000	0.78 %
Total	132	15,149,020	19.78 %

[a]Includes natural monument, national park, nature reserve
[b]Is taken as reference data, the records provided by the guild Association "Asi Conserva Chile" without denying that the number of both, parks and hectares of private conservation is higher than those recorded by this organization. See Roman and Nahuelhual (2009)

not approved legislatively by legal loopholes. At present, the National System is in the process of transformation and adaptation to a new regulatory regime, with the recent creation of the Ministry of Environment.

In the last decade, Chile has experienced a boom of private protected areas in Chile, currently registering more than 33 private conservation parks, which are grouped by guilds in "Asi Conserva Chile. AG", an organization that brings together 36 partners and 3 regional networks and that protect more than 600,000 ha of private conservation initiatives, being the iconic initiatives: Karukinca (200,000 ha) in the island of Tierra del Fuego, Tantauco Park (118,000) on the island of Chiloe, Pumalin Park (295,000 ha) in the province of Palena and Valdivian Coastal Reserve Park (60,000 ha) in Ranco Province, being this last, the one which is located closer to an important population center , as is the city of Valdivia (163,148 inhabitants) (Table 5.1).

Good Practices in Private Parks

The conservation of biodiversity in places of great tourist attraction is a challenge faced by entrepreneurs in all regions of the world and especially in fragile ecosystems and areas of adjacency to protected natural areas.

The implementation of good practices environmental and social management enables protect the integrity of ecosystems and local cultures, increases the viability of tourism enterprises by providing financial stability, quality jobs and promote local development, likewise, local communities can enjoy healthy environments to conserve the ecosystems, natural and cultural resources for this and future generations (Rainforest Alliance, 2005).

Different studies and research carried out by environmental NGOs generally conclude that good practices can contribute to:

- Protect and improve the environment.
- Saving in consumption of resources and inputs.
- Establish good social relations, environmental and business within the community and with other communities.
- To value and rescue the cultural characteristics of a community.

- Getting that businesses of a destination, become more competitive due to its quality of service and responsibility.
- Improve the image of the destination and get public recognition at the local, national and international market.
- To capture a quality tourist market, with the same vision of sustainability of tourism operations.
- To improve the quality of life of company personnel and the local community (environmental, socio-cultural and economically).
- Improve the management of the company and its operating processes
- Raise awareness on clients, staff and suppliers about the importance of having a vision of sustainability.
- Living and working in a more healthy and pleasant environment for everyone.

Arensberg (2011) indicates that in the last decade in Latin America, has been occurring a strong increase in the promotion of private protected areas, mainly, due to four elements:

1. The importance of conserving biodiversity systems (species and ecosystems) in priority areas other than the government
2. Latin countries do not have sufficient public resources for proper conservation
3. The growing demand from local people to learn in situ examples of ecosystem conservation
4. Conservation of biological corridors

These elements allows that NGOs, such as The Nature Conservancy and its partners have been able to support the execution of more than 170 voluntary conservation projects in the region, as well as increasing land and protected ecosystem, being counted in one of the last American Congress on Private Land[1] Conservation, held in Rio de Janeiro in December 2008, more than 270 representatives from 19 countries, working in more than 4,600 stocks, totaling about 3.8 millions of hectares protected private (Table 5.2).

Chilean System of Protected Areas

- *The National System of Protected Wild Areas of the State (NSPWAS)*

[1] This conference has become one of the leading forums for the exchange of information and experience of the Latin American Alliance of Networks Private Conservation Areas, entity that brings together 17 national associations as many Latin countries plus a regional association, was formed in 2004, and the central purpose of this network is to facilitate voluntary cooperation, coordination, analysis and exchange of knowledge, experiences and processes of nature conservation through developing private conservation initiatives in Latin America. The Alliance has five strategic lines from which concentrate its efforts. These are: Organizational strengthening, Communication, Financing, Positioning the issue of private conservation, and Coordination and Integration.

Table 5.2 Good practice recommendations for the conservation of private protected areas

• Private Land Conservation (PLC) should be focused on the implementation at sites identified as priority conservation to achieve this; it is advisable to prioritize conservation sites within the working ecoregion.
• The PLC requires a clear understanding, based on the site, the possession of land, and legal contexts, socioeconomic, cultural and political as well as a substantial presence on the site and knowledge of the entire key players.
• The PLC must be implemented according to a detailed strategy.
• The PLC must emerge not only from a larger-scale planning that identifies priority conservation sites, but from a comprehensive analysis of the site.
• The PLC must be based on a documented analysis of allied organizations working on this, seeking to establish partnerships that specify their roles and responsibilities.
• The TPC should seek conservation based on appropriate policies and procedures in accordance with local legal practices and including enforcement mechanisms to ensure that the lands are used for the purpose of conserving defined by the parties.
• Activities for the TPC should be performed when there is capacity for management and monitoring of long term compliance in each property involved.
• The TPC must consider its impact (social, cultural and economic) on indigenous and local communities living in the property to be preserved or surroundings.

Source: Arensberg (2011)

The National System of Protected Wildlife Areas (NSPWAS), is a nationwide program, executed and managed by the National Forestry Corporation (CONAF)

Law No. 18,362 of 1984, regulating the tasks and objectives of CONAF, however, this body of law has not gone into effect as indicates Simonetti, Villarroel, Sepúlveda, and Tacón (2006) whom cited by Sierralta, Serrano, Rovira, and Cortés (2011, p. 09) mainly because it is conditional on the existence of forest institutions, proposed that year 1984 through Law 18,348, which is still pending approval by the legislative chamber of the country.

In Chile, terrestrial protected areas are legally sustained in the Forest Law, 1931, in the Washington Convention of 1967 (Supreme Decree No. 531 of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs) and Decree Law No. 1,939 1977 on acquisition, management and disposition of government property.

NSPWAS is responsible for wild lands in natural environments which have the legal protection of the State of Chile. At present, the system has 99 units spread over 34 National Parks, 49 National Reserves and 16 Natural Monuments, equivalent to 14,125,271 ha which corresponds to 19 % of the national territory, as can be seen in Table 5.3.

In 2007, the Directing Council of the National Environment Commission approved the National Policy on Protected Areas (PNAP), this instrument aims at the creation and implementation of a National System of Protected Areas, integrating the public and private scopes, terrestrial and aquatic currently scattered in various standards and sectorial policies. Currently are processed in Congress two draft laws, the first is related to creation of the National Forest Service to replace the CONAF as decentralized public service by the promotion of forestry and care of forest resources. The second draft law regulates the

Table 5.3 Public protected areas system

Management category	Number of units	Protected área (ha)	Percentage ratio to the national territory
Natural monument	16	26,525	
National park	34	9,305,867	
Nature reserve	49	5,216,628	
Total surface protected through the national protected areas system	99	14,549,020	19 %

creation of the Service of Biodiversity and Protected Areas (SBPA) and the National System of Protected Wild Areas, whose goal will be to integrate as well as the protected wildlife areas of the state, administered by the SBAP, as the protected areas privately owned that adhere to the system and thus being subject to its supervision.

Another institution related to good environmental practices in Chile, is the recently created Ministry of Environment (2010) having Biodiversity as one of its development axis.

- *Private Protected Areas*

  Chile does not yet have an organic, systematic and modern legal regime on Protected Wildlife Areas (PWA), nor has regulations in force on Private Protected Areas (PPA). Existing legislation in this area is scattered and fragmented, and integrates a cluster of legal bodies and isolated provisions (Soto, 2009). One of the first systematic studies of private conservation initiatives was conducted by the Center for Research and Environmental Planning (CREP) in 1998, recording 99 considered private initiatives aimed at protecting, restore, manage and conserve species or native ecosystems, 15 of which corresponded to the creation initiatives Parks and Private Reserves, a year earlier, the Defense Pro Fauna and Flora National Committee—CODEFF had prompted the formation of a Network of Private Protected Areas (NPPA), being one of the first associations of its kind that existed in the country (CODEFF, 1998).

  According to estimates of Parks for Chile, quoted by Roman and Nahuelhual (2009) it is estimated that there are over 500 private protection initiatives in Chile, which together have a total area of approximately 1,400,000 ha equivalent, approximately, to the 11 % of the areas included in the National System of Protected Areas of the State.

Methodology

For the present study a qualitative descriptive methodology was used, based on secondary source, from a question.

What Good Practices is applying the Valdivian Coastal Reserve to be considered a national icon in conservation of private protected areas?

A sequential research plan was established, where through the compilation of bibliographic (readings of consultancy reports, workshops, projects, videos, strategic plans, and visitor statistics), conversations with the park manager, technical assistants, some visits to the park, it was possible:

1. Collect the history of the sector
2. Knowing the chronological evolution of the land comprising the park
3. Understanding the structure of park management
4. Identify actions developed to minimize the negative anthropogenic pressure of the inhabitants of the communities neighboring the park
5. Prepare a final report

Case: Coastal Park Reserve Valdivian

The Valdivian Coastal Reserve Park is a Private Protected Area; located 40 km south west of the city of Valdivia, has an area of 60,000 ha of temperate rainforest better known as Valdivian forests (*Valdivian Temperate Rainforest*), its natural boundaries are: on the north and northeast the Chahuin river, to the south the Rio Bueno, and on the west the Pacific Ocean.

During the last period of glaciation, the coastal mountain range in which is embedded the park served as a refuge from the ice for multiple species not found anywhere else on Earth (Smith, 2004).

Among these unique species are two of the most long-living trees on the planet: the Olivillo (*Aextoxicon punctatum),* which live 400 years and is found in large groups on the western slopes of the Andes, and larch, like the huge redwoods North America, which can live up to 4,000 years.

These forests also host valuable fauna, among others, the largest woodpeckers in the world (*Campephilus magellanicus*), the smallest deer in the world (*Pudu pudu*), a small marsupial that lives in trees (*Dromiciops gliroides*) and is considered by scientists a "living fossil", amphibians as Darwin's frog (*Rhinoderma darwini*), the arboreal frog (*Hylorina sylvatica*), and various uncommon carnivores, as huillín (*Lontra provocax*), or river otter (*Lontra felina*), or güiña *(Oncifelis guigna*).

The conservation of these unique forests is important not only for the plants and animals that inhabit the area, but also for the communities surrounding the reserve and for the world, mainly influenced by climate change, since they are able to absorb and store large quantities of carbon dioxide for long periods of time.

The FAO (2006) estimated that the total capacity of carbon in the biomass of forests in South America, stores more than 90 gigatonnes of carbon of the 282 gigatonnes existing in the world, this is how various global organizations have considered the Valdivian forests as one of the most important sites for biodiversity conservation worldwide.

It is one of the 238 ecoregions incorporated in the Global 200 World Wildlife Fund (WWF). Meanwhile, Birdlife International (EBA) classified it as a place of great importance by the number of endemic birds that houses, while World Resources Institute (WRI) drew the Valdivian forests as one of the largest forest remnants, and ecologically intact. On the other hand, Conservation International (CI) also identified this region as part of the 25 sites of highest value for biodiversity conservation worldwide (WWF et al., 1999).

As pointed out by Donoso and Otero (2005), Chile had major contradictions in the forestry sector in the 1970s–1980s, because while forestry exports were markedly increased from pine and eucalyptus plantations, the populations surrounding these plantations did not improve their living standards and suffered problems of migration, explosive growth of well-established towns and unemployment by the replacement of native forests by pine and eucalyptus plantations, a fact that has not presented major changes in the last decade according to Altamirano and Lara (2010).

In 2003, the International NGO "*The Nature Conservation*" (TNC), with support from the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) and the World Conservation Fund Conservation International, acquired 60,000 ha of temperate rain forests rich in biodiversity Valdivian Coastal Cordillera from a forestry company in bankruptcy, which was replacing native forests with eucalyptus plantations for later exploitation.

Today, TNC and WWF administer the site of the Valdivian Coastal Reserve and work closely with indigenous communities and surrounding fishing villages (Cadillal Alto, Cadillal Bajo, Chaihuín, Chaihuín Sur, Pan de Azúcar, Vuelta La Zorra and Caleta Chaihuín) in order to maintain traditional land uses and stimulate local economic development as part of the strategy of global conservation of the reserve (Fig. 5.1).

Analysis

Different technical reports[2] (Codeff, 1998; DGA, 2010; WWF Chile, 2003) indicate that substitution of native Valdivian forest with Eucalyptus plantations on the grounds of the estates Chaihuín Venecia (former grounds of the current park), constitutes an emblematic case in the process of destruction and removal that have been subjected the native forests in Chile.

Deforestation occurred in the farm Chaihuin Venezia affected the local economy of surrounding communities due primarily to erosion processes that were generated in the tributary to the Chaihuín river hillsides, fact that produce alteration of the

[2] CODEFF (1998) Replacement of native forest in Chile. Santiago de Chile.

WWF Chile (2003) "Preliminary characterization of Chaihuín-Venecia land, coast mountain range of the Tenth Region"

General Directorate of Water (2010) Technical Report No. 1: Reserve Chaihuín River for Environmental Conservation and Local Development Basin, Ministry of Public Works. Government of Chile.

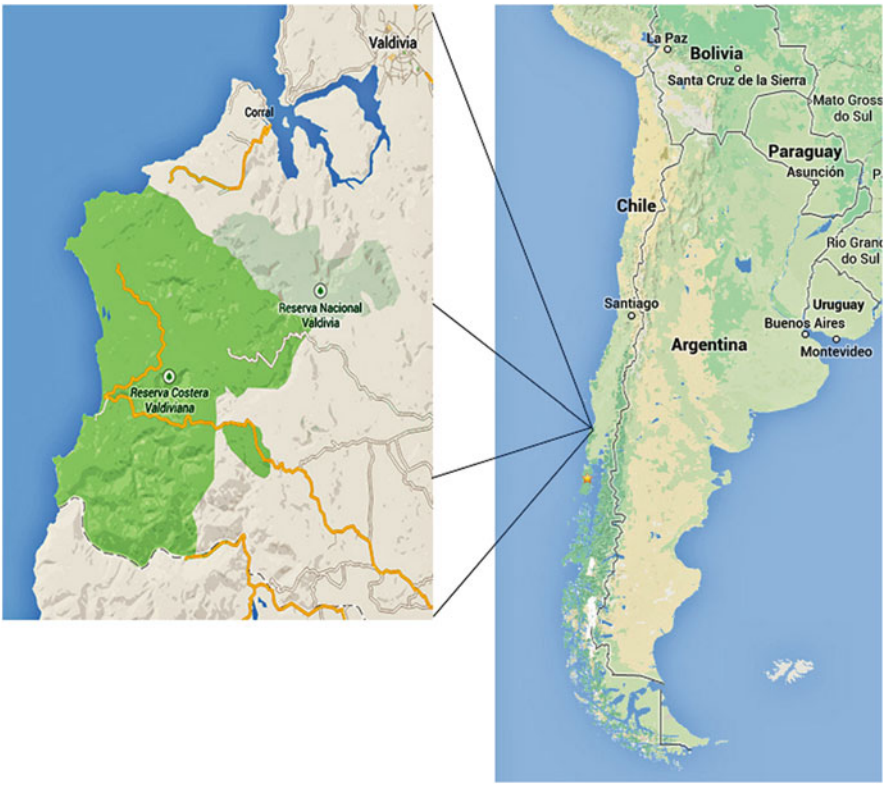

Fig. 5.1 Location map of the Valdivian coastal reserve. Source map: Valdivian coastal reserve

flow of the river, triggering a significant reduction in extraction rates and crops mytilids, main economic activity of the local community, which contributed to increased anthropic pressure on the forest.

Areas of Uses of Park Valdivian Coastal Reserve

The objective of any zoning, understood as a dynamic process, adaptive and interactive, which order the development of a territory depending on the use it want to give to this, therefore the zoning is a key tool in the management of areas for biodiversity conservation because it allows a rational use of resources and ensuring the maintenance of ecological services.

The zoning of the Valdivian Coastal Reserve is based on biological, ecological, human and administrative criteria, using for this the variables of singular natural systems (coastal lagoons, forest olivillo, larch forest, dunes, beaches, rocky coast), major water systems (with a buffer zone of 50 m from the edge), current land use,

forests cores, degree of slope, level of fragmentation generated by paths, areas of cultural and archaeological interest, areas under plantations of introduced species and endangered species found in the reserve (*Lontra felina* y *Lontra provocax*).

This way the park has a zoning system consists of six zones and three subzones, corresponding to:

1. *Intangible Zone:* Corresponding to areas with little or no degree of alteration that include fragile, unique or representative environments of regional biodiversity. The objective of this area is to maintain the pristine natural environment without public use, where the evolution of biological and physical processes is maintained without human disturbance.
2. *Primitive zone:* It is an area of low human disturbance and is characterized by natural elements contain representative of the area that have a relative resistance, allowing a moderate public use, excluding building roads, use of motor vehicles and/or horses.
3. *Extensive Use Zone:* This area allows visitors access controlled. Corresponding to sectors with representative ecosystems of the area that have been subject to interventions, but maintaining a high educational value and for scientific research, all activities of environmental education, research and monitoring are organized so that it cause minimal environmental impact. In these areas, public use is broader and is used to concentrate visitors who practice conventional and more massive tourism.
4. *Intensive Use Zone:* It is a zone intended for concentrate the public use within the area. Lands are generally used with some degree of alteration that still continue to have attractive resources for visitors, and can be used for environmental education. This area is resistant to public use, allowing making constructions such as housing, environmental education centers and health facilities.
5. *Archaeological and Cultural Protection Zone:* Corresponding to an area of high cultural and archaeological importance, represents a high relevance in the regional archaeological context and is a privileged place for understanding human adaptation to the southern coastal environments, evolution and relationship with other populations in different biogeographic zones. Maintains a high density of archaeological sites and findings (Adan et al., 2007). It is an area intended for preserve local archaeological heritage.
6. *Restoration Zone:* It is a transitional area, used in those areas where the flora and/or fauna of the area have been altered, either by natural events or anthropogenic negative impacts. This area is composed of three sub-zones, which are differentiated by the type of land use. In this area the public use is allowed only for research, environmental education and ecotourism. The intensity of use will depend on the sub-area.

    6.1. *Sub-zone of Natural Restoration:* Corresponding to sectors which have undergone ancient interventions that are currently in the process of natural regeneration, and do not require a high degree of artificial support. Are sectors that were cut, and not planted with introduced species (pine and eucalyptus).

6.2. *Sub-zone Assisted Restoration*: Corresponding to highly degraded areas by enabling old forest roads and building roads that have directly impacted vegetation cover. This area presents sectors of total elimination of native forest and high levels of soil compaction, which makes it very difficult natural regeneration. These are sectors with large gullies, soil landslides and sites deeply eroded by the high density of forest roads. Also in the zone are presented sites that have been subjected to overgrazing and currently are under intense grazing of cattle

6.3. *Sub-zone of Plantation Management*: Corresponding to areas that were planted with eucalyptus. This area maintains plantations in various stages of growth and will be harvested according to a set plan extraction. This area gradually becomes assisted recovery zone.

Conservation Plan for Valdivian Coastal Reserve

To achieve the goal of preserving the Valdivian forests located within the park boundaries and buffer zones protection, it developed a Conservation Plan Area (CPA) under the guideline of methodology created and developed by The Nature Conservation and its partners, to identify conservation priorities in areas of importance for biodiversity. Once defined the zones, it proceeded to execute different programs on good social and environmental practices in conjunction with the surrounding communities.

Actions can be classified into three types:

1. *Internal Actions*: actions to internalize environmental best practices within the organization.
2. *Outward Actions towards Surrounding communities*: actions tending to internalize in neighboring communities
3. *Outward Actions to potential and current visitors*: actions tending to raise awareness on the tourists and trekkers who visit or will visit both the park and the surrounding communities, the benefits of good environmental and social practices and their impact on the destination community development.

This planning and zoning allowed to the park management to implement a series of actions of Good Environmental Practices and Social focused on the communities living around the park, so it goes reconverting productive approach that the forest has (Table 5.4).

These various actions have allowed various activities to be carried: training, investment, awareness, both at different locations as inside the park.

Activities which have allowed, first meet the objective of forest conservation that has been suggested Valdivian Coastal Reserve and, on the other hand, succeed in establishing a social process in the communities surrounding the sustainable use of the forest and its resources.

Table 5.4 Good practices performed and/or driven by the Valdivian coastal reserve in the localities of its radius of influence

Locality	Organization	Action or type of support	Year
Los Liles	Cooperative Peasants Los Liles	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC.	2006–2008
Huape	Neighborhood Council	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC.	2006–2008
		Technical and logistical support for the project "Management of household waste" funded by the Environmental Protection Fund (EPF) of the National Environment Commission (CONAMA).	2009
	Peasants Association AGRUCAMP	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC; where the Association Peasants was an organism associated with the Neighborhood Board of Huape who was the executing agency body.	2006–2008
	Parent and tutors Center	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC; where the Association Peasants was an organism associated with the Neighborhood Board of Huape who was the executing agency body.	2006–2008
		Execution of Environmental Workshops education for children of the School	2009–2010
		Supply of firewood for heating classrooms	2008–2010
	Association Lafken Mapu	Bonding with Chilemprende Program and technical support in the elaboration of the proposal for resource request for construction and implementation of its proposed restaurant "Pesca Sur"	2007–2008

Chaihuín	Neighborhood Council	Technical support in the development, presentation and implementation of project management of household waste to the FPA-CONAMA. Project was implemented in three locations Huape, Chaihuín y Huiro.	2009
		Contribution award for fundraising events	2005–2010
		Delivery of free grant Picnic area located in sector Playa Chaihuín owned by Valdivian Coastal Reserve.	2006–2007
	Fishermen's Union	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC.	2006–2008
		Bonding with Chilemprende Program and technical support in the elaboration of the proposed application of resources for building and implementing health services for their camping area.	2007–2008
		Contribution of wood to its arrangements of its slipway	2008–2009
		Financial support for the regularization of Caleta de Chaihuín.	In progress since 2010
		Cooperation Agreement between Fishermen's Union Chaihuín Ong. Marine Conservation and RCV in order to implement an experience of protection and sustainable use of coastal marine resources in the Management Area Benthic Resources Chaihuín Sector C.	In progress since 2011
	Parent and tutors Center	Execution of Environmental Workshops education for children of the School	2009–2010
		Supply of firewood for heating classrooms	2008–2010
		Contribution award for fundraising events	2005–2011
	Tourist and Productive Association "Fondo Marino"	Request cocktail and culinary services for events and activities of importance of The Nature Conservation in the Valdivian Coastal Reserve	2005–2011
	Association of Women Vegetables Producers	Contribution award for fundraising events	2005–2011
	Indigenous Community "We Llanca Milla"	Contribution award for fundraising events	2010–2011
		Contribution of wood, to arrange and building store for commercialization of its typical food.	2009–2010

(continued)

Table 5.4 (continued)

Locality	Organization	Action or type of support	Year
		Delivery of free grant Picnic area located in Playa Chaihuín property sector of RCV	2012
	Rural Committee of Drinking Water of Chaihuín	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC.	2009–2011
		Agreement donation of water rights and land needed to supply drinking water to the Town of Chaihuín.	In progress since 2009
	Senior Association	Contribution award for fundraising events	2006–2010
	Productive Association PRODESAL	Wooden contribution for arrangements and greenhouse construction partners	2008–2010
		Agreement for the construction of store selling horticultural products produced by partners in Chaihuín Beach Picnic zone..	2010
		Delivery of free grant Picnic area located in Playa Chaihuín property sector of RCV	2010–2011
	Committee for the Defense of the River Chaihuín	Contribution of wood for the construction of the defense of the river.	
	Association Larch Coastal Artisans	Technical support for the legal constitution of the group	2009
		Incorporation of partners in the project developed and implemented by the Community Development Program of the Valdivian Coastal Reserve, and funded by the Development Fund for the Arts (FONDART), which is to conduct a survey of the artisans of the area of influence of Valdivian Coastal Reserve.	2009–2010
		Delivery of free grant Picnic area located in sector Playa Chaihuín, property of the Valdivian Coastal Reserve.	2008–2009
	Association Community Guide	Collaboration agreement involving support in protecting and monitoring the assets of the Valdivian Coastal Reserve by facilitating Guides and office equipment (computers, radio), direct and indirect training, resource management and exclusive guide to path “the Larches” by the Valdivian Coastal Reserve.	2009 and thereafter
		Technical support for the legal constitution of the group	2010

Cadillal	Cadillal Bajo Advancement Committee	Management support to summon authorities and apply for regularization of land of the living in this sector, particularly families with new Larch adjoin Coastal National Park (In conjunction with Marine Conservation NGO)	2009–2011
	Advancement Committee o Cadillal Alto	Radio communication Agreement to supply the isolation of this Community	Since 2008
		Management support to summon authorities and request buffer area between the Community and the new Alto Cadillal Larch Coastal National Park. (In conjunction with Marine Conservation NGO)	2009–2011
	Committee on Rural Tourism CADITUR	Support for dissemination and coordination of visitors	Since 2008
Huiro	Neighborhood Council	Technical and logistical support in the development of project "residential waste management" funded by the FPA CONAMA. The role of this Neighborhood Board is as an associated organism to Chaihuín Neighborhood Board , who is the executing agency Organization	2009
		Contribution of gravel to repair roads	2005–2011
		Contribution award for fundraising events	2005–2010
	Fishermen's Union	Financial support for the regularization of Caleta de Huiro, which would be administered in conjunction with the Association of Indigenous fishermen Huiro.	In process since 2010
	Indigenous Fishermen Association	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC, implemented in Sector Colún.	2009–2011
		Collaboration agreement to develop sustainably Sector Colún	In process since 2009
		Financial support for the regularization of Caleta de Huiro, which would be administered in conjunction with the Fishermen's Union Huiro.	In process since 2010
	Indigenous Community Antillanca	Donation of two lots of land for the benefit of the Community, one with a view to implementing a cemetery in the town and the other to solve the habitability Family Nauco Atero.	In process since 2004

(continued)

Table 5.4 (continued)

Locality	Organization	Action or type of support	Year
	Parent Center, School and Tutors	Execution of Workshops of Environmental education for children of the School	2006–2011
		Supply of firewood for heating classrooms	2007–2011
		Contribution award for fundraising events	2006–2010
	Artisan Association Kutralhue	Monitoring and support of project funds joint contest between PNUD-PPS, WWF y TNC.	2006–2008
		Bonding with Chilemprende Program and technical support in the elaboration of the proposal for resource request for construction and implementation of the project on local cuisine.	2007–2008
Other organizations	Caleta el Piojo de Niebla Fishermen's Union	Financial support for the regularization of Caleta de Lamehuape, which would be administered in conjunction with the Fishermen's Cooperative Osorno.	In process since 2010
	Fishermen's Cooperative Osorno COOPEMAR	Financial support for the regularization of Caleta de Lamehuape, which would be administered in conjunction with the Union of Fishermen of Caleta "el Piojo" of Niebla.	In process since 2010

Own elaboration based on information provided by the park Valdivian coastal reserve

Tourism and Valdivian Coastal Reserve

Feasible to Conduct Tourism Activities in the Park and Surrounding

Currently several organizations from different localities have begun to develop tourism activities, both within the park, prior agreement with the Valdivian Coastal Reserve, as around this.

Example of activities offered at various locations:

- Trekking to the relict larch
- Horseback riding on trails enabled
- Boating on the river mouth Chaihuin
- Visit the sea lion colonies of Huiro
- Visit indigenous of the sector
- Purchase of local handicrafts
- Consumption of local cuisine based on fish and seafood in restaurant associative

It should be noted as an unprecedented event that all charges associated with the recruitment of tourist services developed within the park are made by community organizations neighboring to the conservation area and are the exclusive benefit of their own local organizations.

Conclusions

To date, the park, has earned numerous achievements in the empowerment, care and maintenance of the 60,000 ha reserve whose native forest was about to be destroyed and replaced by eucalyptus plantations. And as mentioned on their website (http://www.reservacosteravaldiviana.cl) today the park has become:

- ***A conservation area of native forest and unique species***. In addition to completely rule out the replacement of native forests by eucalyptus plantations throughout the area, TNC increased significantly the protected coastal temperate forest area, forest type whose distribution is highly reduced, and suffering from very low protection within the national system protected areas in Chile (NSPWAS).
- ***A scientific research center site***, open to the scientific community and research concerned about the Valdivian forest conservation and community development.
- The conservation of our forests is a task that we must all contribute our grain of sand, where the involvement of the community living in the buffer zone of the park is an important strategic move, as are demonstrating involvement activities of the communities surrounding the park Valdivian Coastal Reserve.
- The park zoning has allowed the optimization of both financial and human resources as well as the compatibility of different uses be they these conservationists, for tourist use, extraction of non-timber products, mixed, etc.

- The park during these years has been a great social and environmental laboratory, which helped strengthen empirically that conservation of forests in the country is implicitly linked to community development of the people who are in their radius of influence, a trend that ought to be emulated by other institutions and conservation organizations either public or private nationwide.
- The experience developed by the Valdivian Coastal Reserve, like other experiences developed in other private initiatives is allowing the generation of private networks, who have seen an alternative unionism of partnership, cooperation and exchange of experience by allowing the realization of regular meetings, events and conferences to share experiences that contribute to enrich the total body of good practice for both conservation and compatibility between different production areas emerging from the forest.
- Another item to note is that every generation capacity you want to teach the communities surrounding parks and reserves should be supplemented with tools and opportunities to implement this theory, considering the local social dynamics and not be mere training, contributing only sectorial statistics.
- Important will be in time, the systematization that will be making this experience as a learning process that ought to be disseminated to both the scientific community and the estates responsible for generating public policies for better targeting and optimization of resources devoted to forest conservation and community development, tourism being one of the catalytic activities of this type of development
- To the extent that national governments allow private investment in the areas of parks, they may go reconverting its budget deficit as long as such investments have with well-defined rules and regulatory frameworks.
- It will be interesting in the near future to develop new implementations of research on Good Practices in Private Park to see how the issue evolves and variables to cross between different types of parks, user segments, ownership of the park, etc.

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Chapter 6
Cultural Tourism in Villavicencio Colombia

María Cristina Otero Gómez and Wilson Giraldo Pérez

Abstract This chapter describes among other things, how the *Llanero* cultural identity has been forged, since the Jesuits evangelization process. Throughout this paper, it is important to remember the multidimensionality of cultural tourism, in its economic, social and geographical aspects. Similarly, it exposes the way in which culture becomes a unifying element that reduces spatial barriers allowing the rapprochement between the people of the region. Finally, it reflects the link between this modality of tourism to the local development; analyzing the importance of the residents' participation in heritage preservation at all times.

Keywords Orinoquia • Joropo • *Llanero* culture • Inclusion

Introduction

Colombia is aligned with economic international dynamics, at least in terms of tourism, traveling and oil industries. The Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism of Colombia said in 2012 ". . .between goods and services, today tourism is the third sector that generates foreign exchange for Colombia, after petroleum

This chapter will address tourism from an inclusive vision and from an intrinsic estimation of cultural tourism. In order to do that, one must highlight some of the traditional manifestations that allow the preservation of the identity of a culture.

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and coal, even above traditional products such as coffee, flowers and bananas. . .” (Mincomercio, 2012a).

Concerning tourism, Colombia, has as its main destinations Bogota, Cartagena, Medellin, Cali and San Andres Island, which have achieved a high degree of tribute both from domestic and foreign tourists. Sixty five percent of foreign visitors are motivated by holiday, recreation and leisure trips; the remaining percentage is distributed among business, labor, education, and health travel (Mincomercio, 2012b).

As for oil, this natural resource is now the main product of the country’s trade balance with a growth rate of 43 % per annum, an unprecedented record of US $56,954 million reached during the year 2011 (DANE, 2012). In terms of with the greatest growth exporting goods, Colombia was the third highest placed country internationally in 2011. As a result, the country placed third in economic growth through hydrocarbons exports (Mincomercio, 2012c).

Although the region referred to throughout this chapter is not related to the destinations of international renown, it contributes in large proportion to Colombia’s oil exports. However and at the same level with the wealth of its soil, this region has precious elements which express themselves in various ways. Such as the *Llanero* folklore, considered an integral part of the cultural heritage of Colombia and Venezuela, which has been attributed with the merit of eliminating the territorial boundaries, mainly in terms of its music, dance and instruments.

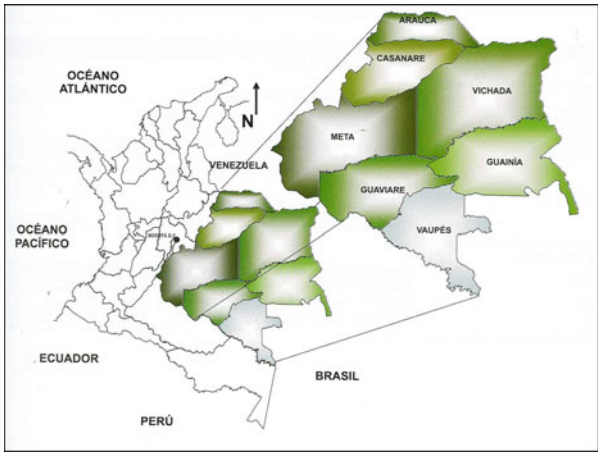
The above enables the mobility of the inhabitants, favoring the development of cultural tourism. For the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), this modality is defined as the “. . .movements of people essentially due to cultural reasons such as study tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, sites and monuments visits, nature exploration, art or folklore, and pilgrimages. . .” (Pedersen, 2005).

In the immensity of the Colombo-Venezuelan savannah, *Llanero* music is heard shared, and valued equally. There is a clear evidence of that it aids in strengthening bonds between country brothers. These ties, overcomes political, social and economic differences among the inhabitants of these two countries, especially in those regions where the Orinoco River exerts a great influence.

In this scenario, history and geography grows in significance. Colombia is administratively divided into 32 departments, and according to data from the World Bank, in 2012 the population grew to 46.9 million inhabitants. However, analyzing the cultural structure of the country and despite sharing the same nationality, there is a shortage of related elements between the *llanero* or plainsman with other inhabitants of Colombia. On occasions there is greater cultural afinity between the inhabitants on either side of the frontier between Venezuela and Orinoquia in Colombia.

Regional Presentation

The term Orinoquia in Colombia has two meanings. On one hand, it refers to the large hydrographic pot, which includes all the effluents of the Orinoco River. On the other hand, it is taken as a natural region that involves the flat land, commonly called *Llanos Orientales* (The Oriental Plains) and which covers the departments of Meta, Arauca, Casanare, Guainia, Guaviare, Vaupes and Vichada (Corpes Orinoquia, 2004).



The Colombian Orinoco Basin. *Source*: http://www.asorinoquia.org/publicacionesN7.html

There are three sorts of people in the Colombian Orinoquia: the indigenous, the *llanero* and the settler. The first is native of the region and at the time of the Spanish conquest, there were many groups belonging to the Arawak culture who adapted to the tropical rainforest climate. The second, the *llanero* or plainsman, is the mestizo man also called creole, people who share mixed European, black and indigenous blood. In third place, the settler or mestizo is usually from the other Andean regions.

From a geographical vision, the Colombian Orinoco basin is an extensive area located to the east of Colombia, which extends between the foothills of the Eastern Andes and the border with Venezuela. In this region coexists six ecosystems: the Piedmont, the floodable Orinoquia, the not-floodable Orinoquia, the Orinoco border, the Serranía de la Macarena and the Jungle of Transition in Guaviare, Vaupés and Guainia.

In Colombia the Andean region, divides into three distinct ranges called *Cordilleras*: The Western Cordillera, Central Cordillera and Eastern Cordillera. The piedmont region sits prior to the elevation of the Eastern Cordillera; a strip of ground slope whose height above sea level ranges between 200 and 1,000 m. The product of recent deposits, the piedmont is comprised of the best soils because of its low susceptibility to floods and favored by the winds of the Cordillera. Historically, it served as home to numerous tribes, also for the first people of Hispanic origin;

today it is the most inhabited and exploited sector. The best examples of a rapid urbanization are Villavicencio, Yopal, Tame, Saravena, Villanueva, Aguazul and Granada. Even, at the piedmont, some of the largest oil deposits in Colombia have been fownded (Corpes, 2004).

Location of Villavicencio Colombia. *Source*: http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Colombia-Meta-Villavicencio.svg

As an example of cultural tourism, object of study, Villavicencio is the geographical section that will be under investigation. However, the whole region is framed and characterized by this deep-rooted *llanero* culture. Villavicencio is the capital of the department of Meta, known as "The Door of the Plains", located approximately 90 km from Bogotá. The highway that connects these two cities is the entry point for the Orinoquia region and part of the Colombian Amazon, affording access for vehicles, goods and people from the departments of Meta, Casanare, Vichada and Guaviare, as well as by the Cundinamarca municipalities of Medina and Paratebueno (Cámara de Comercio de Villavicencio, 2008).

The Eastern Plains cover an area approximately 150,000 km^2 within Colombia, stretching over into Venezuela, on either side of the Orinoco River. The Meta River runs across the Colombian Eastern Plains, crossing the department from the Eastern cordillera to where it flows into the Orinoco River, near the border with Venezuela. This is why Meta's capital is so important as it affords access between the two countries.

The Priority of the Economy

For decades, the economic development of the department of Meta focused on agriculture and cattle farming. Recently the department has seen significant changes in the structure of GDP as a result of an oil boom and growth in the

number of oil palm plantations. The figures for 2011 show that Meta's GDP was structured along the following lines: Mining and quarrying 59.1 %; other 10.5 %; social services activities 6.9 %; agriculture, cattle, hunting, silviculture and fisheries 6.9 %; construction 5.1 %; financial institutions, insurance and others 4.6 %, manufacturing industries 2.6 %; hotels, restaurants, bars and similar 1.2 % and trade 3.1 %. In the Department of Meta, the GDP per capita in the same year was US $20,323 toward the national GDP $7,240 (Mincomercio, 2012d).

The Department of Meta is now the Colombia's largest oil producer, and it looks to remain so for some time to come. In 2007, the number of barrels daily was 119,414 but by 2011, this had risen sharply to 432,818 barrels. This means Villavicencio, has become the place for multinational and national companies to coordinate and direct their operations associated with the exploration and exploitation of hydrocarbons. This is because Meta Department is the number one oil producer in the country, and Casanare the second, but both belong to Orinoquia.

History

Over time a diverse number of inhabitants has settled the Orinoco region. In the Pre-Hispanic period, the *Guayupe* culture was predominant. In 1531, almost 40 years after the arrival of Colombus in the Americas, a number of European expeditions were carried out. These expeditions were motivated by anger at not finding the mythical treasure of El Dorado. Many ended in failure, for example the one led by Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada in 1569 (Pabón, 2001).

Some years later, during the colonization, the region's economy and society were heavily influenced by the Catholic faith. The Dominican and Franciscan orders arrived in the late 1600s to bring the Church to the plains, and subsequently the Jesuits influenced the local economy because they gave such high importance to cattle farming. The Jesuits were located strategically at the *Hacienda Apiay*, a crossing-point carved out to short the distance between the east of the New Kingdom and its capital. Their situation granted the order, regionally at least, a monopoly on the overland trade in meat, skins and baits and it remained so until the explusion the religious orders from the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in America in 1767.

During first quarter of the nineteenth century, as independence movements spread across New Grenada, which was dominated by the Spaniards, there were many clashes. The spirit of the brave *Llanero* warrior is worthy of mention. The majority of soldiers, who accompanied Simon Bolivar in the so-called Paso de los Andes, were people from the plains of Colombia and Venezuela. This historical chapter was the result of good military strategy on the part of Bolivar and his generals during the Campaign of Liberation, which in turn led to the end of the Spanish rule in 1819. The post-war period presented a lack of regional economic progress accompanied by large social order problems.

Despite the decline of the cattle trade between the Eastern plains and Santa Fe de Bogota, through the foothills of the Eastern Cordillera and along the route to the capital of the country a new settlement arose (Pabón, 2001). Named *Gramalote*, by 1836 it almost certainly had an active political scene and was thriving (Baquero, 1987).

With good fertile land on all sides, the settlement generated a wave of immigration to the eastern sector of the Department of Cundinamarca. As a result, by 1846 there were about 30 families settled in the village (Dieres, 1942). On October 21, 1850, it was renamed Villavicencio after a motion passed by the Provincial House of Bogota. It was named so in honor of Antonio Villavicencio y Verástegui, a dignitary of the Independence of Colombia (Alcaldía de Villavicencio, 2012).

Thus, traders and farmers carrying their goods on the road connecting the Andean populations of Cundinamarca and Boyaca with living on the Plains to the east had no choice but to pass through Villavicencio. It remains so to this day.

In 1904, Father Maurice Dières Monplaisir established the Montfortian community, which was responsible for guiding the social, cultural and economic development of the thriving town. Because of these efforts, in 1909 Villavicencio became the capital of the Independence of Meta.

The Overview of Tourism in the Geographic Region

The department of Meta has diverse tourist attractions, among them outstanding natural beauty and landscapes adorned with species of flora and fauna unique in Colombia. The summertime sunrise over los llanos is spectacular as the topography of the region, characterized by extensive plains, allows the observer to see the first rays of the sun from any spot. The songs and chatter of birds always escort the dawn, making it a place of pilgrimage for ornithologists.

However, the main expressions of tourism in the region are the dance of the *Joropo*, *Llanero* music, and *Llanero* meat or *Mamona*, a traditional regional dish. As a tourist destination, *los llanos* attract visitors of multitude of tastes. There is a range of options available to them, along three different tourist routes they can follow.

The first route is the Route of the Dawn of the Palins, ideal for those who enjoy nature. The second is the route of the *Piedemonte Llanero*, where the Biopark Los Ocarros is located: a park that is a good representation of the ecosystem of Orinoquía. Similarly, on this route there are a number of different towns of religious significance affording visitors to get a flavour of the impact of the Catholic church on local culture. Also important in terms of the natural environment and rural-based tourism, are the hot natural mineral baths of *Aguas Calientes* and the farm *La Cosmopolitana* amongst other activities. Finally, there is the path of the *Llanero* Spell. On it, there are natural spas, swimming pools and the Humadea River. On this tour, it is common to observe *Moriche* palms, *Garcero* birds, the African palm

plantations and the beautiful landscapes of towns like Acacias and San Martín de los Llanos.

This last location, San Martín de los Llanos, has important historical significance, since it is the oldest city in the region, founded in 1555. Then, in the year 1735 the Father Gabino Gamboa established the equestrian tournament called *Las Cuadrillas de San Martín* there which reenact the battles between Spaniards and Moors as well as the conquest of the indigenous people of the Americas and the enslavement of Africans in America. This event takes place in the month of November and is a point of pride for the people of Meta so much so that in 2002, *Las Cuadrillas de San Martín* was declared a part of National Cultural Heritage through Act 760, July 25 of the same year (Alcaldía de San Martín, 2012). The three routes are packed with natural and cultural components that enrich Meta as a tourist destination. Each one of them departs from Villavicencio crossing the entire department, thus assuring the visitor of contact with *Llanero* folklore.

The International Tournament of Joropo

Presentation

Traditionally, an event is held which welcomes to hundreds of national and international tourists every year: The International Tournament of Joropo is considered in Colombia to be the largest cultural festival of the Eastern Plains. Held at the end of June, there is no requirement for participation other than a love of traditional folkloric celebrations. In this tournament, people of all backgrounds interact freely regardless of social class or origin. The show is open to the public and, key to its longevity, is the participation of people from all over the region

In addition to the economic benefit, the tournament helps raise levels of awareness and appreciation of regional culture, as expressed by Boucher (n.d.). In addition to the boost in income, it also allows *llaneros* to be co-authors in both the image of their region and to have a say what they wish to see for the region's future (Pictures 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5, and 6.6).

History

Although the Jesuits were expelled from these lands, they left a legacy that would later have significant impact in shaping *llanero* cultural identity. According to Pabón (2007), along with the beef and equine cattle, the Andalusian clerics also brought the harp and with it religious songs with shades of the vocal style *Cante Jondo* and its unique verse form, which comes from the Hispanic region.

Picture 6.1 Participants in the "disabled" category. International Tournament of Joropo. *Photo*: Gobernación del Meta

Picture 6.2 Participants in the "disabled" category. International Tournament of Joropo. *Photo*: Gobernación del Meta

Picture 6.3 Dancers in the category "Older Adults" with traditional costumes. *Source*: http://www.turismometa.gov.co. 2012

Within this heritage, Joropo is exalted because it is the finest representation during the holidays of the plains. It includes three elements: music, singing and dancing. According to Martin (1979), etymologically, the word *Joropo* has it roots

Picture 6.4 *Joroperitos* category participants with the *Joropo* outfit. *Source*: http://www.turismometa.gov.co. 2012

Picture 6.5 *El Coleo*, *llaneros'* sport. *Source*: http://www.villavicencio.gov.co. 2012

Picture 6.6 *Llanero* music musicians playing *maracas* or *capachos*, harp, mandolin, *cuatro* and electric bass. *Source*: http://www.elespectador.com

in the Arabic word *Xarop*, which means syrup, with the word *Soropo*, a name for the style of housing of the marginal *llanero*. *Joropo* has its origins in Spain, where for eight centuries the Moors had a presence. Hence, the manifestation of Arabic

and North African influences in some of the modalities of the *Llanero* carols and the occurence in some verses of regional folklore of the Sephardi language. The *Valseado* dance reveals the influence of the Old World; steps that are derived from the European waltz, as well as the hythmic stamping of the feet of men; a characteristic of the Spanish flamenco (Pabón, 2007).

The *mestizo llanero* learned this music from the Jesuit priests, but following their expulsion, *Llanero*s took on this legacy from the Old World and transformed it into something different and unique in the New. Nowadays, the traditional instruments used to play *Joropo* music are the harp, the *cuatro*, the mandolin and the *maracas*, or the *capachos*. The International Tournament of Joropo is considered by the Ministry of Culture as one of the most important festivals of the country. It was first held in 1965 (Gobernación del Meta, 2008) and has continued every year since.

Since then, most of the most prominent composers and performers from the plains of Colombia and Venezuela have attended, allowing the celebration and sharing of regional folklore emerging from the *llanero* culture. In the same way, it helps strengthen the bond between *llaneros*, and maintaining the legacy that the Venezuelan harpist, Arturo Lamuno left in Colombia in 1925. Arturo devoted his life to teaching the harp and to keeping it alive. And it remains to this day.

Although, there is a cultural bead that unites the Colombo-Venezuelan plains, the interpreter Dario Robayo in his essay "The harp in history" says, "...the harp was used throughout the Hispano-American territory, mainly in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, as a solo and harmonious instrument, as much in the religious music as in the profane..." An instrument from the Old World is itself the link that bonds exponents from other Latin American countries together with their llanero brothers and is the reason why International Tournament of Joropo attracts musicians from all over latinoamerica. They can participate in any of the competitions listed in Table 6.1.

Among the activities carried out during the tournament is the competition *Toros Coleados*; which consists of bring down a bull in full flight by grabbing him by the tail, and other activities like the gastronomy festival, the *llano* work, artisan expositions and photo galleries shown on the streets of the town. The most recent contribution this celebration has made to the traditional dance from the Plains is the open-air event named *Joropodromo*.

Created in 2001, this was an initiative of the municipal and departmental authorities to popularize the traditional *Llanero* dance by doing it en masse. Without a doubt, it draws most attention with a huge and stunning parade, in which dance groups joyfully dance to the beat of the *Joropo* dressed in colorful costumes.

Since then the celebration is played out as an outdoor parade that evokes the world known Rio de Janeiro Sambodromo and hence the name *Joropodromo*. It is understood by the Meta Departmental Institute of Culture as "*el baile del llanero ejecutado masivamente en un parrando por la calle, mostrando la fuerza, agilidad, destreza, armonía y elegancia en su ejecución*" which means that the *Llanero* dance is a beautiful party on the city streets that shows the strength, agility, skill, harmony and elegance..." (Instituto Departamental de Cultura del Meta, 2010).

Table 6.1 Llanera music contest

Name	Modality
Best instrumentalists	Mandolin, harp, *cuatro*, *maracas* and *llanero* double bass
Llanero music interpretation	Musical group, *copleros*, couple dance, male voice and female voice
Llanero music composition	New composition formats, *llanero* harp soloist, *llanero* mandolin soloist, unpublished *golpe*, unpublished *pasaje* and unpublished poem

Source: Instituto Departamental de Cultura (2010)

Describing the dance, Miguel Angel Martin, interpreter of *Llanero* folklore says; "...the dance in the plains is of self-determining couples that do not separate, but only when dancing the "cow" or the *Torito*, and when dancing the *Araguato*. In the "cow" dance, the woman charges her partner imitating a bullfight. In the Araguato dance, the dancers scratch their ribs imitating a South American monkey; the ursine howler..." (Martin, 1979). The powerful man marks the beat with his *cotizas*, while the woman accompanies him with harmony. The *cotizas* are the traditional footwear made from the skin of cattle.

Following the description of the dance, comes the parade, bringing together the dancing couples who participate in multiple choreographies in order to show the different modalities or categories, which are listed in Table 6.2. As seen, this is a celebration framed by inclusion, where no barriers exist. Furthermore, academies, universities, business sector and private and governmental institutions participate all together.

A parade that modestly began in 2001, with 20 couples from the city of Villavicencio and with its awards totaling in value a humble US$1,100, has gone from strength to strength as a symbol and celebration of *Llanero* culture. By 2006, the event had a very significant impact where two happenings revealed how it had developed.

The first was the creation of the special award for the group with the largest number of participants. This incentive has resulted in the highest numbers of dancers taking part in the history of the event, some 2,356 couples comprising of 5,363 participants in total. The second fact is of even higher social significance. This was the inclusion of the category for the disabled. In this part of the *Joropodromo*, 22 dance couples participated in a new category for people with a disability. Some had visual impairments, others hearing and cognitive disablities. This category continues and remains popular with audiences, always winning a rousing applause. These dancers live and enjoy the event. They are part of it, reinforcing their own sense of ownership in their home territory, and also demonstrating the development of social participation.

The rise in participants brings with it a rise in the monetary value of the prizes. By 2010 there was up to US$54,000 distributed among each category.

As was explained at the beginning of this paper, *Joropo* culture includes music, singing and dancing; but in Colombia, it is common for festivals to also include a beauty contest. In 1962 at the inauguration of the Colombian Song Festival, the predecessor celebration of the International Tournament of *Joropo*, it was so—there

Table 6.2 Joropodromo, modalities and categories, 2012

Category	Modality
Traditional	*Joroperitos*: children between 8 and 13 years
	Joroperos: above 14 years old
	Priority groups: older adults, disabled people, displaced people, Afro communities and indigenous
Corporate	For workers or corporate partners
Spectacle	*Joropo* show

Source: Instituto Departamental de Cultura (2010)

was to be, of course, a Queen of the Festival. This was on a national scale until 1993. However, since 1994, the festival has entered into the international arena, the most important criteria for selection is the *Joropo* dance skills. Since then, winners have come from as afar as Germany (5 %). Venezuela (21 %) also has taken its share of crowns but the host country Colombia (74 %) remains in the driving seat.

These indicators reveal the manner in which cultural tourism becomes an integrator that unites people from different nations. Thus, a single event has transcended borders—not only departmental, but also regional and national. Proof of this is that, since its inception, delegations from countries such as Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Albania, Peru and Uruguay, among others have all attended. It is also worth mentioning, that there are other similar elements that facilitate communication and understanding: For example, dances such as the Argentinian *Malambo* and the Mexican *Jarabe Tapatio*, to mention a few.

Another representative part of llanero culture is the gastronomy, with its greatest exponent the *Mamona* (veal), also known as *Carne a la Llanera*. This had its origins in cattle trains when the the first *llaneros* were moving the cattle across the vast plains. Then, in order to satisfy their appetite, they would cook the smaller animals that had little chance of survival as they were still suckling. Hence the name of *Mamona*. For this, they roasted pieces of veal cutting trunks of the *Yopo* tree.

Additionally, and associated with livestock, there is the *llanero* sport named *Coleo*, which came about during cattle marking. Involving a pair of men, one takes the tail of the animal and the other knocks it down, hence, the verb *colear* (Martin, 1979). The rider, the horse and the bull are inseparable during the execution of this sport.

This work, initially done by the *llaneros*, spread across the plains of Colombia and Venezuela. Then, as an entertainment, it became a part of streetlife in towns during holidays (Martin, 1979).

The *Coleo* remains a part of cultural activities carried out in traditional celebrations in different towns of the Colombian Orinoquia and along with the *Llanero* work, has a special place in the International Tournament of Joropo. This is an activity of great significance for the region. On the one hand, it energises the economy through the promotion of tourism, and on the other preserves the cultural heritage of the *llaneros*.

Within this context, the departmental and municipal governments, as well as the private sector, have made efforts to promote it for tourism. This is reflected by the construction of the *Manga de Coleo Benedicto Cely* racetrack, in *Las Malocas* park in 2003. The racetrack serves as a gathering point for *Coleo* practioners who come from as far afield as Mexico, the United States, Argentina, Costa Rica, Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, to name a few.

The *Coleo* rose in popularity in such a way that whilst paradoxically it was at inception a work activity of the plains, now it is an official sport amongst *llaneros*. For this reason, the Colombian Institute of Sports renewed this sport's recognition through Resolution No. 001306 December 28, 2010 (FEDECOLEO, 2012). This was the result of the the birth of approximately 200 clubs and *Coleo* leagues. Here men and women, youth and adults are involved, each one competing in different categories.

It is important to clarify that the International Tournament of Joropo is an event organized by the departmental government through different institutions, ever since its beginnings. Although there are examples of *Coleo* at the tournament, it is played for the most part during the month of October and is organized by a private entrepreneur. Also with the aim of promoting the city through the *Llanero* culture, Villavicencio's City Hall has organized the *Festival Llanero* since 2012, which invites the presence of four other national representatives, for example the United States, Costa Rica, Venezuela and Brazil.

As seen, a great deal of *Llanero* traditions have a strong relation with livestock and farming. However, *Llanero* folklore manifests itself in other ways, for example myths, legends, folk medicine of the plains, the verses and the architecture, among others.

The Relationship of Tourism with the Locality

Cultural tourism in Villavicencio is a result of the enormous efforts, investment and total commitment of local government in promoting regional culture for many years. The city has grown into an emerging tourist destination, with a growing number of visitors arriving over the past 3 years. Proof of this is that tourists continue visiting Villavicencio. There have been other helpful factors. One among them is the construction of a new two-lane highway that connects Bogota with the Eastern Plains.

According to figures from the Inland Transportation Terminal of Villavicencio, in the first half of 2012 passengers' departures decreased by 2.6 % per year to the departments of Meta, Cundinamarca, Casanare, Guaviare, and Vichada compared with a similar period of the previous year.

A report by the Banco de la República report said such behavior, reversing a 3-year trend, was caused largely by a declining number of people travelling to Bogota, due to the delays caused by works on the route to the Capital to improve the condition of the road. In spite of problems along the route, tourists have continued

to show great interest in *los llanos* and have continued to come; attracted by the fine climate, which itself has had little effect on the movement on the road (BANREP, 2012).

It is important to remember that Villavicencio is 90 km from Bogota. One has to cross the Eastern Cordillera and descend from 2,600 to 478 m. Before the construction of the extension of the two-lane highway, the average travel time was around 2 h. However, currently the same route requires approximately 4 h.

By 2017, according to officials, the highway will be completed with 19 tunnels and 19 bridges along the route, 10.7 km of new road and the improvement of 15 viaducts. This would mean the travelling time between Villavicencio and the capital would be about 75 min (El Espectador, 2012). This new infrastructure will reinforce local tourism, if only because the trip will be a more pleasant experience.

Tourism as a Generator of Employment

The above-mentioned enables the development of the tourism activity. This contributes to the improvement of economic and social indicators. Among the effects that tourism can generate, there is the steady rise in employment as a result of those hired because of increased business, restaurants and hotels. Figures show that that has risen in the last 5 years from 62,000 to 71,000 people. This, in percentage terms, means a growth of 14.5 % during the last 5 years, as shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 highlights the fact that trade, restaurants and hotels' businesses activity transformed employed opportunities in 2011, absorbing the largest proportion of the workforce (37.4 %). The importance of tourism and its commerce can be seen, in context, when comparing the population absorbed by the manufacturing industry, which reached only 10 % in the same year.

Reasons for Tourists to Travel to Villavicencio

In Colombia, according to the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism's data, domestic tourists' travel is predominantly motivated by leisure. The data available from 2009 to 2011 shows that leisure increased 45.38 % to 46.57 % respectively. It has become the main motivation for travel, followed by business travel, which itself rose from 42.26 % to 42.37 % during the same period. The input of the business sector is because not all regions in Colombia have the same level of development; therefore, it is necessary to travel to meet the needs of trade, while leisure has many different interpretations.

Within a vision of sustainability, it is understood that community resources for leisure are the community services and facilities available to people with an interest in cultural leisure, sporting or recreational in a broad sense (Toselli, 2003). Under this understanding, Villavicencio has a dynamic of its own. Where most tourists

Table 6.3 Villavicencio—occupation according to activity sector (2007–2011)

	Thousands of people				
Activity branch	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	165	172	178	183	190
Manufacturing industries	15	16	18	18	19
Construction	11	13	15	17	17
Commerce, restaurants and hotels	62	63	65	67	71
Transportation, storage and communications	19	20	21	20	22
Financial intermediation	2	2	2	2	2
Real estate, business and rental services	11	12	13	14	14
Communal, social and personal services	40	39	39	39	40
Other branches[a]	6	6	6	5	5

Source: DANE (2012)

[a]Agriculture, fishing, hunting and silviculture; mining, quarrying, electricity, gas and water

travel motivated by leisure, so by the year 2010, leisure represented the 59 % of the all travel to Villavicencio (see Table 6.4).

A comparison between national data and what is happening in the city of Villavicencio reveals that, during 2010, leisure tourism's national percentage was a 47.7 %. However, in Villavicencio the figure rose to 59 %.

Analyzing the case of leisure in Villavicencio, the Universidad Santo Tomás in Villavicencio, led a study to identify what cultural tourism activities could be emphasized to enhance the development in the city. This study was conducted in October 2012 during the Encuentro Mundial de Coleo. This study is based on information collected in 385 random surveys, with a Cronbach's coefficient of 0.76. Therefore, it was summarized that 40 % of the people interviewed were attracted by all the cultural events; this means that all activities are attractive. On the other hand, music and dance activities are the most pursued (13 %), after activities such as gastronomy (12 %) and indigenous sports (7 %), see Table 6.5.

According to the study, 73 % of respondents were willing to spend a maximum of US$547 (see Table 6.6) at the destination over a 3 day period. This means the tourist is projected to spend approximately US$182 per day, which is intended for paying accommodation, food and leisure activities. Twenty four percent of those interviewed were prepared to spend between US$548 and US$1,640. The remaining 3 % were prepared to invest invest more than US$1,640.

Thus overall, the average tourist, according to this study, is willing to invest approximately US$500 per day, illustrating the importance of the tourism as a boost to the local economy.

Additionally the tourist must choose whether to travel alone or with company. When questioned, 41 % preferred to travel with family and 31 % with friends. This means that 72 % of the tourists considered traveling to Villavicencio with family and friends, in groups averaging 3–5 members.

Regarding accommodation, the study found that 30 % of tourists make use of the hotel infrastructure, some by staying at an urban hotel (21 %) and others in a rural hotel (9 %). On the other hand, 42 % some does not make use of the hotel

Table 6.4 Evolution of travelling reasons for going to Villavicencio (2004–2010)

Travelling reasons	2004	2006	2008	2010
Businessman (%)	46	44	21	22
Sportsman (%)	14	7	5	3
Leisure (%)	34	43	58	59
Other activities (%)	6	6	16	16

Source: Otero Cristina, Giraldo Wilson. Dinámicas de Consumo. Análisis de Villavicencio como destino turístico. Unillanos. 2011

Table 6.5 Preferred leisure activities to do in Villavicencio

Activity	Frequency	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Culture	151	39.2	39.2
Music and dance	72	18.7	57.9
Gastronomy	46	11.9	69.9
Coleo	27	7.0	76.9
City tour	27	7.0	83.9
Crafts	20	5.2	89.1
Shopping	16	4.2	93.2
Typical costume	13	3.4	96.6
Nature	8	2.1	98.7
Religious tour	5	1.3	100.0
Total	385	100.0	

Source: Grupo de Investigación HOLOS. Universidad Santo Tomás. 2012

Table 6.6 Spending during the visit at Villavicencio

North America dollar amount	Frequency	Valid percent
To US$ 164	88	23
From 165 to 328	57	15
From 329 to 547	133	35
From 548 to 1,093	51	13
From 1,094 to 1,640	44	11
Above 1,640	12	3
Total	385	100.00

Source: Grupo de Investigación HOLOS. Universidad Santo Tomás. 2012

infrastructure due to the fact that most of the tourists (33 %) stay with relatives or (9 %) own a home.

The reason for owning a place to stay is because of the proximity of Villavicencio to Bogota, so people are prepared to invest. The warmer climate of the piedmont is around 29 °C, compared with Bogota whose temperature ranges around 14ºC, this is a reason to project Villavicencio as a summer destination. Finally, the remaining 19 % of tourists stay overnight with friends or rent a house during the weekend.

A large segment of those questioned did not use travel agencies. For example, when asked about choosing the destination, only 2 % did so through the agencies: 75 % based their decision on their own knowledge or through family members'

recommendations or they had family living in Villavicencio. The remaining percentage attributed the choice to word-of-mouth information, television, newspapers, webpages, among others.

Finally, withing the context of tourism, the evaluation is the process of postbuy where the consumer makes the decision to buy back or abandon a brand or a product, Gunn (1972), states that the consumer tourist creates an overall image of a destination as an outcome of the evaluation of expectations he/she had a priori and then the tourists' feelings after visiting the destination. Assessing whether visitors were satisfied, it was found that those tourists that studied cultural elements—one out of every two tourist here—achieved the highest levels of satisfaction.

To clarify, if one focuses solely on those tourists whose response was Excellent when asked about their experience of different tourism products: Within that bracket, 55 % of respondents graded *Llanera* music and *Coleo* as excellent. This was followed by *Mamona* where 47 % of tourists said the same. The results of the assessment reveal that tourists were satisfied with the destination. This could have a positive effect on Meta's tourism as previous visitors recommend it to friends and family.

Therefore, it can be assumed that it is possible to sustain the consumer affluence, considering relevant factors such the improvement of road infrastructure, the destination's tourism category may rise. Thus, it would move from an emerging target to a consolidated target. This move brings with it new opportunities and, with them, new challenges.

Reflections on Cultural Tourism and Its Contribution to Local Development

Panosso Netto (2011) talks of faults in perception throughout history in terms of the analysis of tourism. One of them relates to the duality that existed in theoretical currents at the end of the nineteenth century and early twentieth century, when the surveys were carried out based on Economy or Sociology. Now, the economic sphere is not sole basis in which Tourism is regarded: It is also environment, society, culture, technology, health, meaning, other facets of the human activity (Panosso Netto, 2011).

Based on these statements and in a general context, local communities according to their social, political, cultural, geographical and institutional particularities possess a variety of tourism resources that require a trans-disciplinary study. Within this lies the right attention to both producers and consumers of this service.

As a result, one must make both a quantitative and qualitative analysis in order to avoid subjectivity in the study of tourism. With this, is created a greater sensitization and awareness of tourism development, especially in the cultural category that is the modality under review in this study.

From that framework, cultural tourism is seen as an activity that not only contributes to the strengthening of its use value, but reduces spatial boundaries facilitating understanding between people. The International Tournament of Joropo is evidence of this, where one of its objectives is to "strengthening of cultural integration among towns".

From a cultural dimension, Toselli (2007) makes a number of relevant arguments that could contribute to the local development processes. In the case of Villavicencio, the following ones are useful: To promote the interest of the inhabitants and their culture as expressed through their customs, handicrafts, folklore, festivals, gastronomy and traditions. Secondly, to encourage tourists to be sensitive about the care of the cultural and material heritage and to respect the cultures of the places visited.

In Villavicencio, since 2008 and under Agreement No. 015 of the Municipal Council of Villavicencio, the *Día de la Llaneridad* was made official as a 1-day celebration held to ensure the participation of the community. It declared that the last Friday of each month, Villavicencio would pay tribute to the *Llanero* culture; in this way, government officials of the municipality must go to work wearing a garment traditionally related to *Llanero* identity.

Likewise, in schools and colleges, a new subject was implemented to teach *Llanera* culture, or students were allowed to a day of playful activities based on cultural activities such as music, declamation, singing, among others, in order to perpetuate cultural roots. Although this arrangement is for the public sector, the private one is also helping the preservation of heritage, in such a way that is common to see children in preschool dancing *Joropo*.

Conclusions

Although the concepts of local development are different, there are some common characteristics, such as complexity, comprehensiveness and human scale. The complexity, as already mentioned, refers to the multiple dimensions; comprehensiveness in relation to the interdependence of the same ones; and human scale in relation to the objective of improving the quality of life of the people, as central subjects of development (Varisco, 2008).

Thereon, the promotion of agritourism would be a good investment in the future. This is achieved by taking advantage of the agricultural and livestock production in the region, where visitors may observe and participate in the work associated with the *Llano*. This situation would enrich the experience for both the tourist and the local people. The local should be steeped in their own culture before any exhibition or description of tradition, seeking to ensure a deep knowledge of their roots.

Moreover, new forms of work can be created, recovering craft traditions. Although this activity has been left behind in Villavicencio, there is a very valuable legacy in leather crafts. In the city there is a road called *Calle de las Talabarterías* (Saddleries Street) honoring the artisans who practiced this labor. There are also

small enterprises that produce distinctive textiles from the *Llanero* culture, but that have use in other locations. These are valuable practices that can be improve by encouraging innovation, whilst always maintaining cultural value.

Finally, the proper use of cultural tourism leads to the eventual satisfaction of the tourist who, in the end, becomes a promoter of the destination. This in turn represents the entry of more consumers demanding products, and who would contribute to the economic and social development of local communities.

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Chapter 7
Protected Wild Areas and Eco-tourism in Costa Rica

Aurora Hernández and Juan Carlos Picón

Abstract This paper considers the difference between the theory and the practice of eco-tourism applied to the Protected Wild Areas in Costa Rica; taking into account how important it is to conserve ecosystems and how ecotourism management can become a source of income. Conservations laws were established early in the twentieth century, and later the Protected Wild Areas became the main touristic attractions of the country. Thus, Costa Rica started being popular as an eco-touristic destination around the world. Nowadays, the practice of Eco-Tourism not always involves conservation in the financial criteria on the use of natural resources as touristic products.

Keywords Protected wild areas • Eco-tourism • Costa Rica • Conservation

Introduction

Early in the twentieth century, Costa Rican policies regarding natural resources were influenced by international conservation policies; and consequently in 1945 Protected Wild Areas (PWAs) were established. Later in 1955, with the creation of the Costa Rican Institute of Tourism (ICT, Spanish acronym) Irazu and Poas National Parks were also created. In 1969, management and protection institutions for them were set up (SINAC, 2012).

Nowadays, the majority of the natural resources of Costa Rica is protected by the System of Protected Wild Areas, which was founded in 1969 (Vargas, 2000). The results of the natural conservation policies implemented in the 1940s became, four decades later, the foundation for the main touristic attractions of the country. According to the ICT, in 2011, 2,180,000 tourists came to the country

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Fig. 7.1 Migrant birds passing through Palo Verde National Park, located in the North Pacific

(ICT, 2012), mostly convinced of "discovering, gazing at and enjoying the tropical paradise, through Eco-Tourism or Ecological Tourism" (Vargas, 2000, p. 18) (see Fig. 7.1).

Eco-Tourism in protected areas is seen as an encouraging financial activity that contributes to their management, producing also a low negative impact on the environment and interfering as less as possible with the life of the visited place (Xu, Lu, Chen, & Liu, 2009). Eco-Tourism in Costa Rican Protected Wild Areas (PWAs) plays an important role, not only as an income generating component, but also as a developer of productivity in the surrounding areas. This is important due to the quantity of communities following patterns of unsustainable exploitation of natural resources, opposite to the conservation philosophy. In the same way, some of these communities were using economical activities as animal husbandry in Guanacaste and sport fishing in the Gulf of Nicoya which did not provide enough income (Arias, 2008). Thus, a lot of the surrounding communities have created associations, communal societies or companies to design their own tourism services in and outside the protected area, for example, Tourist Guides Association of National Parks or small handicraft companies.

Nowadays, communities have already accepted the thought of preserving natural resources through tourism as a way of earning some income. Consequently, there are communities surrounding the protected wild areas which directly or indirectly work in tourism offering touristic services. San Gerardo, in Perez Zeledon in the south part of Costa Rica, is an example. Here they believe "touristic development is one of the most important benefits of the creation and preservation of the Chirripo National Park" (Fürst, 2007).

Eco-Tourism has started to change the difficult relationships of the communities with the PWAs and their administration, because now they understand that there is a growing and beneficial relationship between the local community, tourism and preservation. For instance, Ostional Wildlife Refuge "was created by the National Ministry of Environment and Energy in 1983 to protect the nesting sites of the Olive

Ridley Sea Turtles (*Lepidochelys olivácea*)" (Orrego, 2008). As a result, this controlled the turtle eggs poachers. At the beginning there was a resistance and some conflict between the locals and the government administration, but later on sustainable use and Eco-Tourism became a great income source for the community (Orrego, 2008). However, the opposite actions also happen, where the touristic development near the protected rich natural areas puts pressure on the preservation and it even threatens the protected areas. Las Baulas National Marine Park is a great example to represent this problem. Here, the real estate development (residential and commercial) is negatively impacting the nesting of the leatherback sea turtles (*Dermochelys coriácea*), which is sensible to artificial lights, to the noise and to people's and domestic animal's movement in the beach (Álvarez, Urbina, & Ureña, 2008).

This paper will discuss the difference between Eco-Tourism theory and practice in the PWAs of Costa Rica and their surrounding areas; taking into account not only that these protected areas are naturally complex and part of the natural national wealth, but also the use of Eco-Tourism as a source of income to manage the protected area as it is and the community interested in these activities. An interesting fact is that these communities have not always been the Eco-Tourism agents in the nearby PWAs, but they have gotten involved by offering their services with the tourism companies which take advantage of the PWAs as a touristic destination. This outsiders' vision does not always agree with the Eco-Tourism objectives, and it is seen as one more product in the traditional touristic market.

Eco-tourism: A Conceptual Approach

Eco-tourism is a social practice that implies a level of contact of people with the natural world, closer to a biocentric vision, in which relationships are produced in a frame of values related to nature, which implies acceptance and involvement of the tourist with the natural environment and its characteristics. From this practice, the visitor is holistically permeated by the natural and socio cultural elements, at the same time, provides benefits to conservation through research, awareness, interpretation, and the income generated in the local setting.

Eco-Tourism "is the commercial word that has been more successful in the development and marketing of a new touristic (unconventional) activity related to the use of natural and cultural resources of a region" (Baéz & Acuña, 2003, p. 10). Eco-Tourism in its purest sense has been called natural, sustainable, responsible, alternative, green, ecological and soft tourism (Zal & Breda, 2010). Therefore, its definition depends on the conceptual approach made by the authors. However, other authors hold that there is a significant conceptual difference between these definitions given by characteristics of practical touristic activities.

Eco-Tourism is defined by the International Eco-Tourism Society as "responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people." (International Eco-Tourism Society, 2012). Some

definitions proposed in Costa Rica label it as an educational activity directly related to nature and to get local groups involved in the development of activities (Morera, 2005). Mendoza states that Eco-Tourism is a nature-based tourism that involves education, recreation and interpretation of the natural environment (1997, p. 67). It is promoted in countries like Costa Rica because, in theory, it is capable of producing suitable human use of natural resources (Vargas, 2000).

According to Vargas (p. 21), Eco-Tourism is an activity based on a close relationship between the tourist and nature, where both reach a symbiotic state to assure enjoying and preserving the environment. In other words, they benefit from each other. However, he specifies that Eco-Touristic activities have not reached this symbiotic state, but they have produced a concurrency of both activities (nature tourism and its preservation) with no plans in common.

Eco-Tourism can be classified in three categories according to the intensity of the activities, tourists required services and the incorporation or lack of a learning experience about nature.

- Hard-core Eco-Tourism: the reason for tourists to travel will be their interest to learn something about nature. They will endure difficult conditions regarding their agenda, food and no fancy accommodations. They will participate in tough observations and research.
- Dedicated Eco-Tourism: Tourists are interested in nature but nothing in specific. Their desire to travel is to watch wildlife, flora and culture. They are provided with good accommodations and service. They can participate in not-so-difficult learning activities.
- Adventure Tourism: tourists are interested in outdoor leisure sport activities. They can or cannot be demanding with their accommodations and they are not interested in learning about nature.

Eco-Tourism in protected areas is characterized by impacting the environment within the load capacity, hardly changing the society of the local community, promoting ecological education to the tourists in the natural site and encouraging local economical benefits (Zal & Breda, 2010). In addition, it is possible to outline some characteristics of people interested in Eco-Tourism (Baéz & Acuña, 2003):

- They are interested in having direct contact with nature.
- They are interested in knowing different ways of living and experiencing life (intercultural exchange).
- They are willing to learn, being always energetic.
- Generally, they will be schooled, with some previous knowledge of their destiny, resources and activities to do.
- Good physical and emotional condition.
- They will prefer to have direct contact with people and would like to establish friendships.
- They will prefer personal and high quality service.
- They will be willing to proactively help to manage waste, reduce water and energy consumption.

One of the main reasons to promote Eco-Tourism in wild protected areas is the economical benefits to which locals can directly or indirectly access. Nature preservation will be positively impacted by these benefits because locals will probably start believing that it gives them a better direct economic resource and consequently they will stop using the environment negatively (Xu et al., 2009).

Wild Protected Areas in Costa Rica

Costa Rica has an extension of 19,344 square miles which represents 0.03 % of the world's surface, with more than 90,000 known species which represent 4.5 % of the world's biodiversity (Obando, 2007). These natural conditions are the main motivation for most people to come visit to know the forests and admire the biodiversity.

In the 1970s the National Park Services were created and consequently the majority of today's wild areas started to be protected. In the following decades the protection system was solidified; thus finishing the concept of wild protected areas in the administrative territorial section called National System of Preserved Areas (SINAC, Spanish acronym). PWAs are defined as delimited spaces of lands, wetlands and sea, declared as ecosystems with threatened flora and fauna and of great historical and cultural significance (SINAC, 2012). Resources and site use by communities and expropriators were affected with the establishment of PWAs, mainly with the ones with restrictive categories as the National Parks. Generally, there might be conflicts between the community and the preserved site when PWAs are declared.

PWAs are classified in eight management categories: national parks, natural monument, biological reserve, national monument, protected zone, forest reserve, wildlife national refuge and wetlands (Fig. 7.2). PWAs cover almost a quarter of the country (25.5 %), with 167 protected areas, 19 of those are marine areas (Obando, 2007, p. 21). Even though PWAs are distributed around the country (Fig. 7.3), they are mainly located high in the mountain range; some examples are Chirripo, Irazu, Poas and Turrialba Volcano National Parks. Caño Negro Wildlife Refuge and La Amistad National Park are located in the bordering zones. Ostional Wildlife Refuge and Ballena Marine National Park are located in the coasts.

Other ways to manage protected areas are the private reserves and farms around the country which have to tax on their environment services. Management touristic units developed by the ICT are located throughout the coasts, high parts of the mountain range and cover 1,210.5 square miles of protected land. Thirty-nine of all (167) the PWAs receive tourists every day, promoting in this way tourism in Costa Rica. As a result, PWAs are one of the main attractions of the country and are part of the national touristic promoted strategies since the latest 1980s—when the tourism policies encouraged nature tourism, mainly Eco-Tourism. Mendez (2010, p. 139) states that the Sustainable Tourism National Program of the SINAC constitutes one of the main foundations of tourism in Costa Rica.

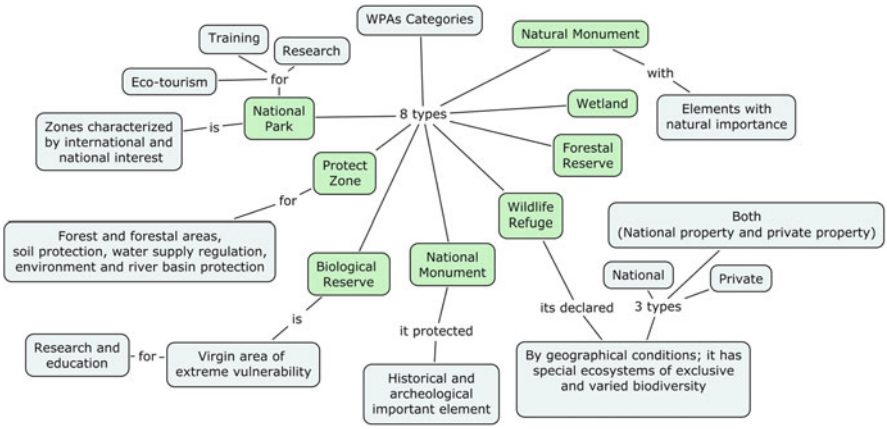

Fig. 7.2 PWAs management categories

According to the National Strategy of Preservation and Sustainable Use of Biodiversity, in regards to tourism, the SINAC has the responsibility of "carrying out and applying researches to control how tourists impact the protected wild areas" (MINAE, 2000, p. 37). Tourism is an alternative of economical income for managers of PWAs. In some areas as Chirripo (Talamanca range), Irazu and Poas Volcano (Main Mountain Range) National Parks, tourism is the main source of income (Fürst, 2007). Even though tourism has such financial importance, not all PWAs have the enough infrastructures to meet the visitors' needs. In some parks and biological reserves as the ones located in Tempisque Preservation Area, some plans are developed to improve physical conditions for visitors, such as trails, viewpoints, information and service units and accommodations (Rodriguez, 2008).

According to the National Plan of Touristic Development 2010–2016, the touristic enlargement plan in Costa Rica will continue to be built around historical factors and elements which have served to achieve national tourism recognition and positioning. In other words, it is achieved by promoting concepts of PWAs and mainly National Parks without "artificial ingredients."

Eco-tourism in Costa Rican Wild Protected Areas

Eco-Tourism was created, with a commercial focus, in the 1980s "as an introduced trend by the capital as an answer to the damage created by massive tourism" (Morera, 2005, p. 4). Eco-Tourism is an activity which changes the management of a tourist market section, mainly by transferring the local economical usefulness. In the 1980s, Costa Rica started to promote Eco-Tourism. This was translated as the growth of this activity (Vargas, 2000) and positions this country as one of the pioneers of the implementation of Eco-Tourism next to Kenya, Belize, Ecuador and

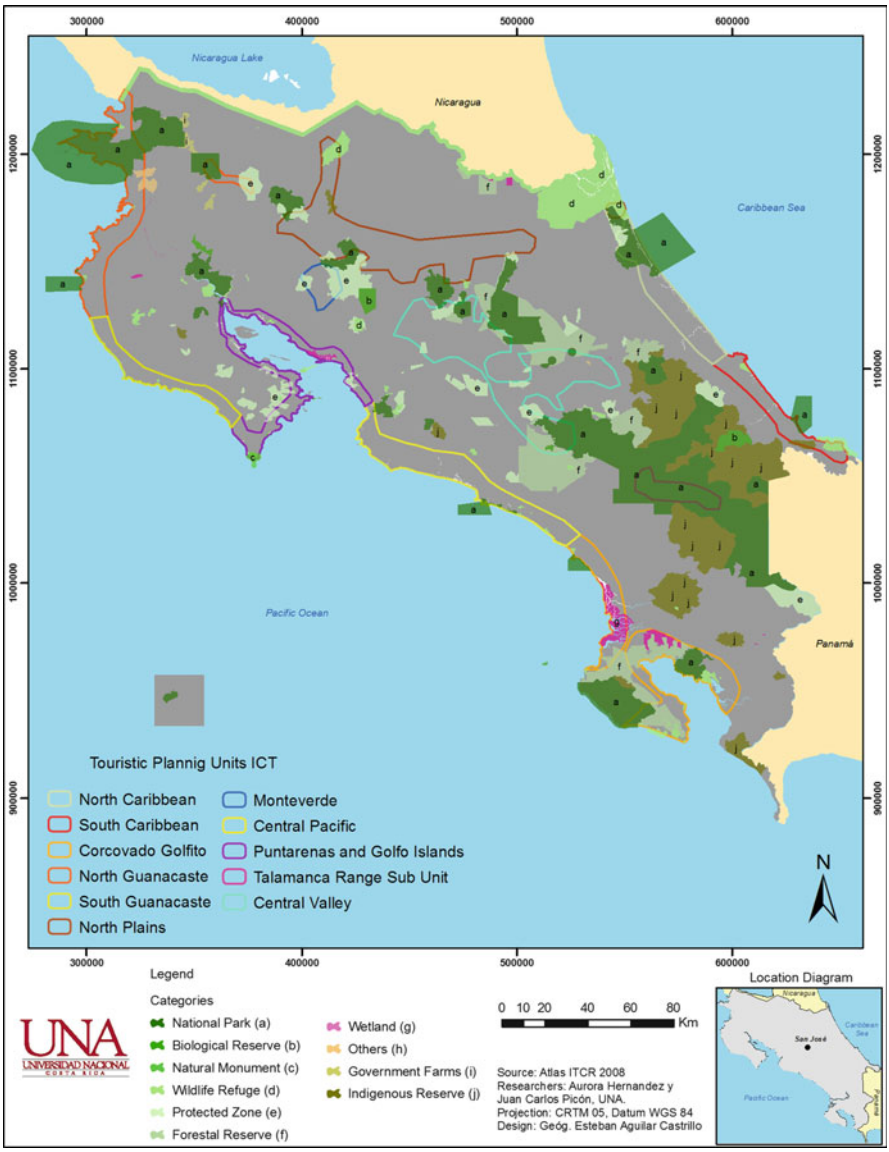

Fig. 7.3 Touristic planning units

others (Baéz & Acuña, 2003). Nowadays, Eco-Tourism promotion has extended to a lot of countries with natural and cultural heritage of international hierarchy (Baéz & Acuña, 2003). However, Eco-Tourism can acquire different characteristics in different places. Morera (2005) describing tourism in Peninsula of Osa, says that this place is an example of the concept of a touristic destination because it is characterized by the non-massive offer and it is based on the ecological attractions.

The developing relationship of Eco-Tourism and the PWAs in the case of Costa Rica and maybe other parts of the world is that PWAs meet the need of offering certain activities towards this type of tourism. Some of them are activities in a natural environment with a high quality state of natural resources, and also providing learning, enjoyable and recreational activities in natural spaces with high biodiversity. In Costa Rica, most of the protected areas are located in rural zones and the Eco-Touristic development in them has become the most suitable income option. Therefore, there are more agents and interested people in Eco-Tourism behaving as a dual tool: in getting the best out of local income benefits and in preserving and restoring nature. This is not only about a financial support; it is also related to the cultural change of the community regarding their view of the environment. They will start changing practices which negatively impact nature; for example, wild animal hunting, wood extraction, and burning of scrublands, grassland and forests.

The environmental culture changes of communities are important mainly regarding the fires because they directly affect Eco-Tourism. For instance, fires will eliminate bird observations sites and in the north part of the country, and they will damage the remaining sectors where the dry forest can be seen in Central America (Rodriguez, 2008). In fact, in 2010, fires affected 3,739 ha, mainly in the Preserved Area of Guanacaste and Arenal-Tempisque, which are located in the driest section of the country (SINAC, 2010). It is also important to point out that the 61 % of the burnt vegetation is categorized as wetland and 9 % as secondary forest. An investigation carried out in Iguanita Wildlife National Refuge, located in Bahia Culebra in Papagayo, has shown that one of the problems with the fires is that they are originated by tourists who did bonfires (Barboza, 2008).

The main touristic attraction in these protected areas is because they can, in theory, be useful and keep their ecological integrity by the non-consuntive use of the natural resources. There are two reasons for Eco-Tourism to be carried out in places with restrictive protection as national parks. First, because of the importance of visitors and this being a income source in the PWAs in Costa Rica, and second, because of its low impact on nature. However, there are other studies which have proved Eco-tourism having a negative impact on PWAs; for example, there was a change in the Yellow-billed Storks nesting (*Mycteria americana*) in Isla de Pájaros because of the high levels of human perturbation provoked by tourism (Villarreal & Jiménez, 2008).

Even though this relationship between Eco-Tourism and protected areas seems to be simple, it is a complex of growing relationships between touristic operators, communities and protected area administration. Since Eco-Tourism depends highly on the government's PWAs (MINAE, 2000), its pressure on them and the conflicts that arise by its use because it's a risk Eco-Tourism has to take daily. Also, it surely threatens the environment in some National Parks, as it is the case of Manuel Antonio National Park in Central Pacific, which had more than 200,000 visitors on 2010 (SINAC, 2011).

Protected Wild Areas and Their Visitors' Service

Nowadays, according to the ICT's statistics between 2006 and 2010, the main activities tourists carried out here were: 52 % watched flora and fauna, 45 % walked in natural trails, 25 % visited volcanoes, 35 % watched birds and 32 % did canopy (ICT, 2010, p. 14). Other less frequent activities but still associated with Eco-Tourism are walking through hanging bridges in the forests (5 %), whale and dolphin watching (5 %), scuba-diving, fishing, fish watching and others (ICT, 2010).

According to the international promotion of the ICT, the most potential visitors are the ones interested in Eco-Tourism and its colleagues: adventure tourism and green tourism. The ICT's plans consider the contribution of the national patrimony as the strongest strategy to be different from the competence and as the comparative advantage to develop these activities (ICT, 2010). Regarding the PWAs, the ICT proposes the need to develop and implement a set of technical, administrative, controlling and investment instruments to promote tourism as a sustainable alternative in PWAs and their surroundings (ICT, 2010, p. 21). Specifically, it is suggested that SINAC manages a permanent program of sustainable tourism in PWAs, supported by the ICT. An interesting fact is that PWAs in Costa Rica are more visited by foreigners than by locals. In 2010, of the total amount of visitors 45 % were locals and 55 % were foreigners (SINAC, 2011). Figure 7.4 shows that today's income has tripled because of foreigners' visits. It is important to point out that since 2003 foreigners visit PWAs more than residents do (ICT 2014).

The majority of visitors come throughout the first trimester of the year, which is the dry season and school vacations period. The most visited places are a) the Preservation Area of the Central Mountain Range (ACCVC, Spanish acronym) which consists of the Poas and Irazu Vocano National Parks, also part of the Central Valley Touristic Plan; and b) Preservation Area of the Central Pacific (ACOPAC, Spanish acronym), which consists of the Touristic Panning Unit of the Mid Pacific and Manuel Antonio National Park (SINAC, 2011) (Fig. 7.5). The amount of visitors to PWAs has decreased. According to the report from the National Program of Tourism from SINAC (Méndez, 2010), in 2006, 1,725,261 visitors came, and a 60 % of them visited PWAs, but for 2010, arrived 2,099,829 visitors, but only 35 % visited PWAs (ICT, 2010). In general, this decrease can be related to the world's financial crisis; but the decrease corresponding to the preference to visit PWAs has been researched. Morera (61) explained, on this matter, that Eco-Tourism is a previous stage to massive tourism, and in the case of Costa Rica, the tourism produced has been changing from being Eco-Tourism to become nature tourism, turning into sun and beach tourism.

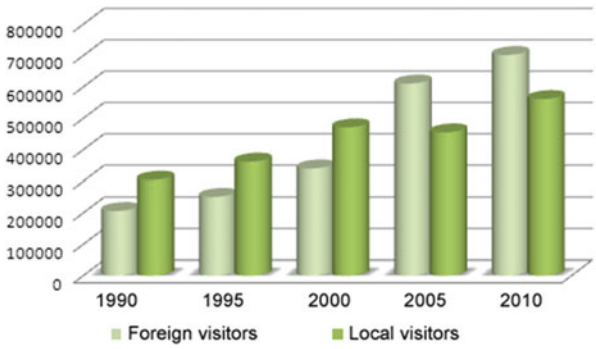

Fig. 7.4 Visitors to PWAs of Costa Rica, shown in 5-year periods, from 1990 to 2010. *Source*: SINAC (2011), ICT (2014)

Eco-tourism Development in Costa Rica and Its Consequences

Even though PWAs are very important for communities and nature, they have financial limitations to achieve their objective and their possibilities to finance themselves are few. Therefore, international cooperation or tourism have become in their income resource. Thus, in the last few years, tourism seems to be the activity capable of providing additional resources for PWAs. In addition, there are some unplanned chained activities in the surrounding communities to provide services to eco-tourists: local tour guides, local food, private and public means of transportation, boat and horse rides. One method to identify socio-economical benefits of Eco-Tourism is the chain system of products surrounding it; it is known as *cluster*, which was applied in Wildlife Refuges and National Parks in Costa Rica (Furst, 2004). These studies have concluded that small and medium business spread when next to an eco-touristic activity. Therefore, they energize local economies. Other studies deal with the economical assessment of environmental services in PWAs, according to the economical, environmental and ecological assessment (Universidad Nacional, 2008).

PWAs in Costa Rica become more and more isolated by the road infrastructure improvements and housing and commercial developments. The need of lands for housing, production and the huge pressure of human activities related to touristic use have become a challenge in the protections of areas set apart for preservations. An example of these pressures is the system known as “secondary residences”, which in Costa Rica drastically changed the soil use and wildlife affectation, taking into account that for the real estate market the PWAs add value to the final price of the land. In Las Baulas Marine National Park, there are known negative and direct impacts on turtle populations affected by residence and commercial local lights located around the park Piedra et al., (2008). The attractions of the PWAs, mainly the ones related to wildlife observation, can be affected by high amounts of visitors and get worse with the fauna extraction by locals and foreigners. Every year, plants and animals extracted from PWAs are confiscated. According to the SINAC’s

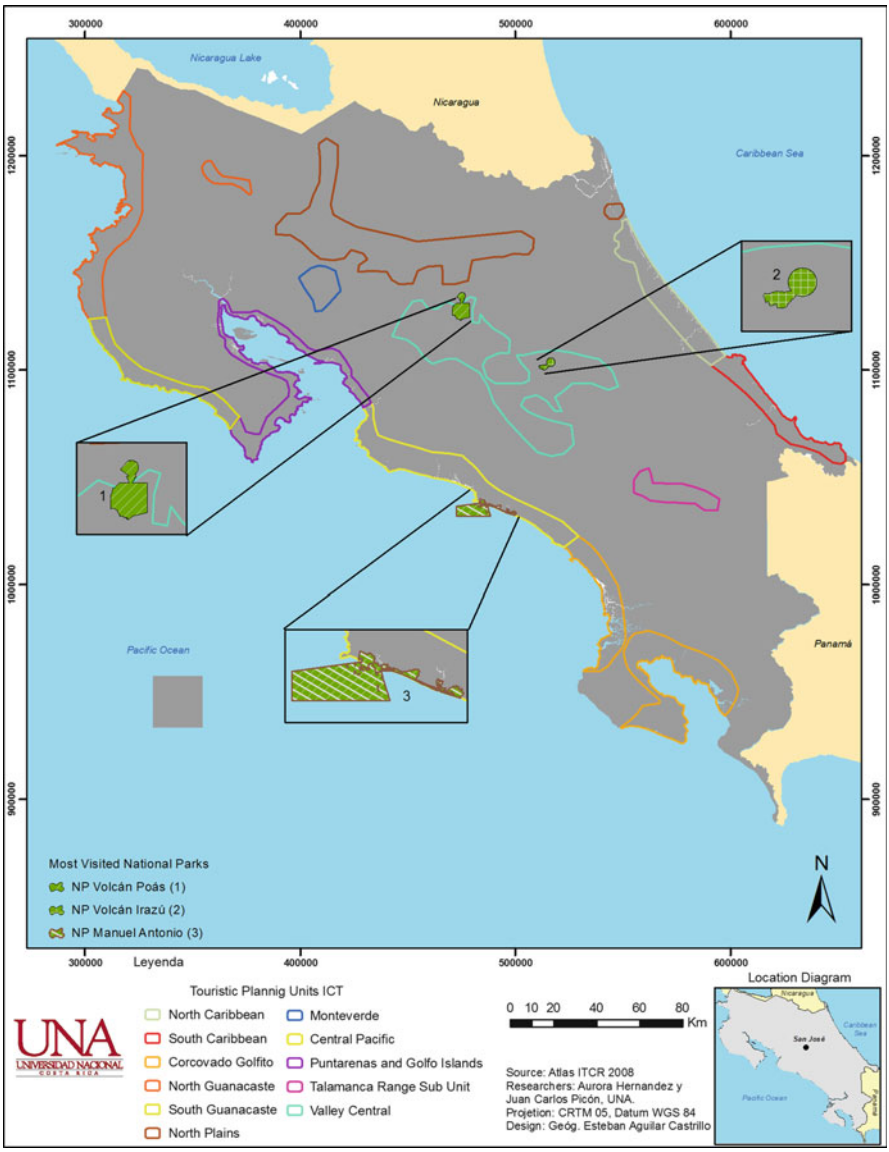

Fig. 7.5 Most visited national parks in Costa Rica

report on 2001, the highest number of confiscation or deliveries made was of birds, 219 of confiscated birds of a total of 458 collected birds (20).

Other damaging practice of tourists in protected areas is feeding wild animals. In Costa Rica, there are laws against this; however the news with Eco-Tourism is that "governmental authorities should avoid conflicts with hotels, business, guides and

tourists who like to practice this" (Varela, Guillén, & Janik, 2007, p. 33). There are many examples, such as in Manuel Antonio National Park where Titi monkeys (*Saguinus oedipus*) are continually fed by tourists, making them lose their fear to humans and consequently getting into residential areas (mainly hotel areas) claiming for food. In different national roads near protected natural zones, herds of wild animals can be seen (mainly white-nose coati, *nasua narica*), which have become accustomed to being fed by tourists. As a result, there are a lot of animals passing by heavily trafficked roads and animals become aggressive in claiming for food. In 1994, in an international meeting about Eco-Tourism in Costa Rica, it was concluded that feeding wild animals was prohibited (Varela et al., 2007, p. 33), but there has been no change and it has even become worse.

Another case is the zoo procurers, which are persons who would say they love nature but will keep animals with the excuse that "they are orphans or hurt" to offer them to tourists to touch them and take pictures with them; but what they really want is to ask for "donations" to keep caring for these animals. "In fact, there are a lot of places in Costa Rica claiming to be "Rescue Center", but the reality that is just a front, they actually take in wild and hurt animals as a tourist attraction" (Varela et al., 2007, p. 36). In the same way, other problems affecting PWAs is illegal wildlife hunting (deers, lowland paca, etc,) wildlife meat market, forest plantations of foreign species (Teak, *Tectona grandis*, and Melina, *Gmelina Arborea*) invading natural forests, and the introduction of exogenous species, mainly predatory fish like tilapia.

Solid and liquid waste is another problem regarding the protection of wildlife. Historically, the ocean has been used as a waste container, and the amount of waste taken to and led to it is shocking, mainly in highly touristic areas, like PWAs (Founier & Fonseca, 2007). Consequently, sea animals confuse such solid waste like plastic with food. This leads to digestive problems which can even lead them to death. Some examples are turtles, birds and fish, found dead by asphyxia or starvation. According to the Piedra et al., (2008), there are a lot of problems with tourists who don't want to respect the laws of use and behavior inside some PWAs as beaches. They damage through using their vehicle in public zones and not in the established parking lots, listening to music, making different noises, making bonfires that can lead to fires and damage insects and other animals like turtles; and leaving solid and organic waste.

"Even though Wildlife Protected Areas have brought us a lot of economical benefits than export products have, we have invested more in promoting then than protecting and developing them" (Varela et al., 2007, p. 48). Varela also remarks that there is a lack of professionals and resources to be able to really protect nature. This can direct to inadequate practices as feeding containers for animals like typical hummingbirds causing them nutritional deficiencies and interrupting natural cycles of pollination of a lot of other wild flora species (30). He also points out that "some hotels and tourist guides are used to feeding wild animals for visitors to appreciate flora and fauna species better. This is damaging and hurting the behavior and health of the animals" (32).

Acknowledging the importance of PWAS for conservation purposes and to keep the privilege position Costa Rica has, researchers as Portilla (2003, p. 4) think that in national parks and biological reserves should only be carried out environmental education, investigation and controlled Eco-tourism activities. He also points out that there are no clear polices for protected areas and that there is a potential threat from developers that can exploit national parks for commercial purposes.

Other researchers as Arguedas (2003, p. 6) warn that the world is suffering fast changes as the intense use of soil which modifies the logistics of PWAs management. For example, recent studies show feline populations are threatened by the loss of space and quality of forest because they need at least between 25 and 35 km^2 to survive; and there are only 34 national parks—which are supposed to be the highest protection category—who have more than 35 km^2. Regarding this lack of policies and budget to support and extend PWAs, Marín (2003) assures that true Eco-Touristic development and clear policies to help this kind of tourism can be the way out to find resources for PWAS and "that might be the only way to save them."

Conclusions

PWAs as touristic attractions have become the foundation of foreigners' visitations to Costa Rica. Eco-Tourism in PWAs has been recognized as the promoter of economical benefits, of local economies growth and income. However, it needs better regulations to accomplish preservation and sustainable use objectives, for PWAs to prevail over economical performance criteria. PWAs are vulnerable to the impact of the high amount of people visiting them. It gets worse with the lack of personnel to watch and accompany tourists throughout their trip. There is also the risk of treating the product based on the use of nature as any other traditional touristic product to end up diminishing them. One of the main issues is not being clear in the commercial scope or not having clear limitations in the use of PWAs as touristic attractions. Some of the weaknesses found are the lack of training and education about Eco-Tourism to the tour guides, the need of communicating visitors about behavior protocol, and the need of regulations and penalties in the case of not respecting the ecological conditions required to preserve wildlife.

Wildlife is fragile and sensible to humans' perturbation. The absence of scientific information about the conservation of ecosystems for tourists and developers is one of the reasons there is no clarity in the application of Eco-Tourism model. In the same way, the lack of education of people on Eco-Tourism leads them to think that entertaining activities in natural spaces are actually Eco-Touristic activities, and they end up adapting natural spaces to satisfy the visitors and this will always be detrimental to preserving the ecological quality of PWAs. Even though there is a clear interest from the public and private administration to find income through foreign visits, the government doesn't have a good infrastructure or alternatives of

accommodations inside PWAs. This shows there is a need to invest more to attract eco-tourists and for the activity to be sustainable in a long period of time.

In addition, Eco-Tourism in Costa Rica is marked by the demand according to the high or low season and this affects the community income and the administration of the PWAs, mainly in zones located far away from the Central Valley. Thus, we can conclude that Eco-Tourism should not be the main source of income in these communities but it can be secondary to other primary activities in areas surrounding PWAs. The massive use to the prefix "use" is causing an underassessment of this tourism practice. Today, there is an interest of tourists to be entertained with high artificial quality accommodations near or inside PWAs. Therefore, it is logical that tourism market will evolve according to the needs of tourist, so Eco-Tourism and all activities related, make of it a profitable business focused on transnational companies with good positions on the international market.

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Chapter 8
"Jardines del Rey": An Integrated a Sustainable Management of a Cuban Touristic Destiny

María Elena Betancourt García, María Caridad Falcón Rodríguez, and Luis Báez Peña

Abstract "Jardines del Rey" ("King Gardens") is one of the main sun-beach tourism destinations in Cuba. It has achieved a sustainable growth and an international recognition. Inside de general Caribbean context and the particular characteristics of the Cuban tourism system, the article shows the positive experiences and non solved problems related on the destination management. The paper recognizes the necessity of changing the sectorial point of view respected to de tourism development by models of integrated planning and management of the destinations, in order to promote the local capacities and opportunities, the actions to cooperate and to collaborate with the active participation of the people, as well as the view of the sustainability as an important factor to achieve the necessary competitiveness.

Keywords King Gardens • Sun-beach destinations • Integrated planning and management • Sustainability of the tourism destinations

Introduction

Tourism has become into a global business, whose expansive market includes practically of the human activities. An increasing quantity of destinies has been focused to the tourism by investing in this sector. So, the tourism has become into a key factor of the social an economical progress through the incomes, as a result of

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exportations, the employs and enterprises creating and the infrastructures development. During the last decades, the tourism has had a permanent expansion and diversification. As a result of this, it has become into one of the more important and increasing sector in the world. In the 2012 year, the limit of 1,000 millions of international arrivals has been raised (WTO, 2013, p. 4).

Cuba has not been isolated to this influence and it has showed a tercification of the economy, which has been remarked by the increasing tourism in the country. During the beginnings of the 1990s, after the disappearance of the eastern European socialist area, Cuban economy suffered a crisis, which was characterized by facts as the decreasing of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to 35 %, during the period 1989–1993; while the importations decreased to 75 %; and the fiscal deficit increased over the 30 % (Quintana et al., 2005, p. 16). Under such conditions, Cuba decided a fast acceleration of the international tourism, which has been used as a "locomotive" of its economy, as a possibility of the economical reactivation. Then, the country faced to an important challenge: to develop the touristic economy under very hard conditions within the Caribbean high competitive area.

The Caribbean area, where Cuba is included, is identified as a tropical tourism sun-beach area. It has been positioned with all its marvelous natural, climatic and geographical conditions, as well as its cultural diversity and linguistic peculiarities which combine the diverse and the specific features. All these conditions have propitiated the emergence of different destinies and tourist products in 26 Caribbean islands which represent about the 90 % of all the islands of the region.

The Caribbean has showed a sustainable growth with respected to the arrival of the international tourists (from 11.4 millions in 1990 to 20.9 millions in 2012). According to the WTO Barometer (2013), Cuba constitutes today the third tourist destiny in the Caribbean, exceeded only by Dominican Republic and Puerto Rico.

The Cuban touristic model, designed under a central planned economy, has been based on a conscious, integrated and harmonic process of development, which started with the General Touristic Arrangement Plan (GTAP) for each tourist region. This plan was designed by the Physical Planning Offices of the provinces and municipalities. It is the support for the design of Touristic Development Plans in each territory.

As a governmental strategy, from the beginning of the tourist development, the government decided to assign the available resources to eight previously selected regions, which were prioritized due to their load capacity, as well as their recognized values and attractions (Castellanos, 1998). The tourist destiny of Jardines del Rey is located in the region of the same name, which constitutes one of the prioritized regions and its is basically classified as a sun-beach destiny, with the all-included modality.

In spite of the challenges and insufficiencies that are still faced in its planning and management, it was chosen for this study for being one of the most important five destinies in Cuba. It has had successful results in different indicator and it is recognized like Varadero, in the list of ten best beach destinies in The Caribbean in the year 2012.

This paper states the most relevant issues of tourist management which characterizes Jardines del Rey destiny, among the general context of the Caribbean, as well as the peculiarities of the Cuba touristic system. The paper also shows the most important positive experiences and non-solved problems with the attempt to achieve an integrated and sustainable tourist management which allows increasing its competiveness in the world.

Cuba: A Destiny in the Caribbean Tourist Region

Cuban Republic is an archipelago formed by the Cuban island with a surface of 104,767 km^2, the Youth Island (2,419 km^2) and more than 3,000 cays and small islands. Located on the entrance of the Mexico Gulf, Cuba is the bigger island among the Small West Indies. The average local temperature is about 25.0 °C, which is of great significance for tourism almost the whole year. The Cuban tourism looks for a nice climate, vacations, rest and the knowledge of culture and local customs.

In the Caribbean, Cuba is an important tourist destiny due to its cultural, national and heritage richness. The first cultural Cuban attractive is its happy, extrovert, collaborative and friendly “people”. Besides, the educational and cultural development of the country has allowed important achievements in the different artistic branches, such as music, plastic arts, literature, movies and theatre, as well as varied food traditions, drinks, popular parties, carnivals and others which complement the diversity and provides a unique feature.

Among its natural richness there are the beaches and the sun generally linked to recreation, trips and vacations. This kind of tourism represented the 52 % of international touristic arrivals in the year 2012 (WTO, 2013). Cuba has 345 km of beaches for tourism: Varadero beach—the most recognized destiny in the world; Holguin; and the cays like Ensenacho, Santa Maria, Cayo Coco, and Cayo Guillermo. A wide coral reef is extended along 4,000 km out of the submarine platform with beautiful underwater landscapes which are very attractive for diving and nautical activities. There are 27 international diving centers and 13 navy centers distributed in different tourist destinies.

From the total surface of the Cuban island, the 16 % are protected areas with different management categories. The most important ones are: 14 National Parks, 25 Ecological Reserves and 6 Biosphere Reserves. Such ecosystems are of great importance for tourism, as their flora and fauna are endemics. Their care and protection is included in The National Environmental Strategy (NES) which demands the studies of the environmental impact for any touristic action to adequate it to the correspondent scale.

Cuba has 9 of the 16 sites that are considered World Heritage of Humanity in the Caribbean islands. Five of such sites constitute cultural ones: Old Havana and its buildings, Trinidad and Los Ingenios Valley, San Pedro de la Roca Castle, Santiago de Cuba, Cienfuegos Historical Center, Camagüey Historical Center; and three

national sites: Cultural Landscape of Viñales Valley, Archaeological Landscape of the first coffee plantations of southeastern part of Cuba, as well as Alejandro de Humboldt National Park. The Cuban immaterial heritage includes the ¨Caridad de Oriente¨ French Thumb. All these places constitute an important component among the Cuban touristic resources (Medina, Santamarina, & Salinas, 2010, p. 92).

In 2001 year, as a part of the dynamic integration process among the Caribbean countries, Cuba signed the Agreement for establishing the Caribbean Sustainable Tourism Zone (CSTZ), as a part of Caribbean States Association. This agreement defines the Zone as a ¨cultural, social-economical and biological unit¨. In this zone, the tourism development will be conditioned by the sustainability and the integration, cooperation and consensus principles, to facilitate the integration development of the Caribbean region (AEC, 2001).

Evolution of the Cuban Tourism

Since the mid-twentieth century, the flow of travelers to Cuba can be appreciated, both for commercial activities and for resting. Once ended the World War II an important touristic development takes place, which is associated to the American capital. In the 1950s the main market was the United States with more than the 85 % of the total. In that epoch tourism towards Havana was mainly associated to games and other vicious.

After the triumph of the Revolution in 1959, important changes originated related to tourism development, which was successful in the 1990s, what led to important advances after making the decision of considering tourism as a support to the Cuban economy.

The Ministry of Tourism was created in 1994. It was in charge of put into practice the leading policies, the regulations and the control of this sector. The development model stated in the country considered as the main strategic objectives: the integration of tourism to all the society, the increment of income capacities, the development of a sustainable touristic product, and an integral culture of the quality, and the training and development of human resources as well.

The outcomes already obtained show that tourism has become one of the most dynamic sectors of the Cuban economy. Particularly in this decade the average rate of annual growing of arrivals reached the 19 % while the gross inputs were 26 %, being one of the highest in the world (Medina et al., 2010, p. 194). According to Ferradaz (2001), on the other hand, the sector increased its incomes in eight times; while the quantity of tourists was increased in five times; the quantity of rooms—three times, and the work places—two times. Besides the percent participation related to the total of incomes in the payment balance had increased from 4.1 % (in 1990) to 41 % in 2000 year. During this period the national manufacturers' participation of items and services (for the sector) increased from 12 to 61 %.

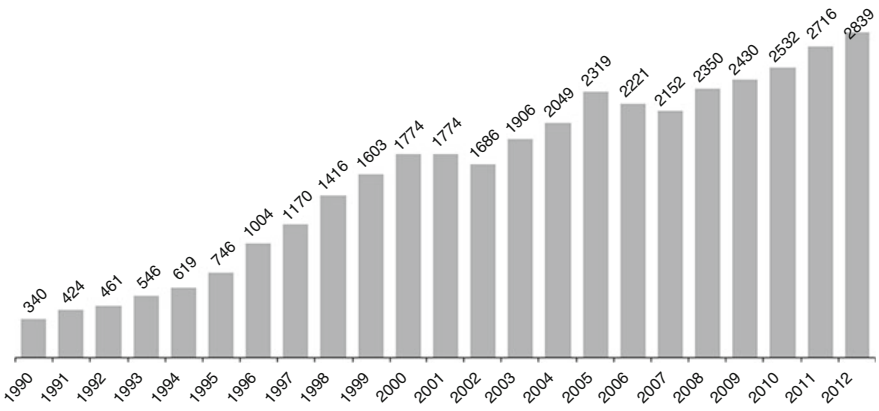

Fig. 8.1 Foreign arrivals to Cuba (thousands). *Source*: National Statistic and Information Office. Cuban Statistic Yearbook: 2008–2012

The tourism become in the first sector of the Cuban economy respected to obtaining foreign currency. It showed the capacity of the touristic sector and its capacity to increase the Cuban economy.

The participation rate of Cuba within the Caribbean touristic market has been relevant. It increased from 3 % (in 1990 year) to 13.5 % (in 2000 year). Nowadays, Cuba is the third tourist destiny in the Caribbean, exceeded only by Dominican Republic and Puerto Rico (WTO, 2013).

In 1990 year, the quantity of the foreign arrivals was 340,000 of tourists, while this quantity during the 2012 year was 2,838,000 (see Fig. 8.1). The dynamic of the hotels offer increment was from 12,900 of rooms (1990 year) to 60,500 in the 2012 year.

The obtained results of the touristic incomes show a sustainable increasing from 243 millions of USD on 1990 (Quintana, R; Figuerola, M; Chirivella, M; Lima, D; Figueras, MA & García, A, 2005: 111) to 2,325.6 millions of convertible peso (CUC) in 2012 (Oficina Nacional de Estadística e Información de Cuba, 2013).

The main markets are: Canada, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Mexico, Argentina and the United States (Baró, 2013). Nowadays Cuba has air connections with 51 cities in the world, by means of 36 air lines. Besides, the country has seven sea stations located in different points of its territory. The hotel capacity is over 60,000 rooms, with a projection of 85,000 near 2020.

The expansion of the tourist varieties is a strategic challenge for developing Cuban touristic sector. It just shows that Cuba is not only a sun-beach destiny. It also is an important destiny for conventions and resting voyages. In the same way, the culture, the health, the undersea exploration and the nautical sports are attractive possibilities. They contribute to change the Cuban image around the word, as a support of the current campaign “The authentic Cuba”.

Cuba also shows important social results. The country is recognized by its citizen and sanitary security, by a healthy tourism, without drugs; and by the

presence of high trained and professional human capital. All these aspects are recognized in favor of the competitiveness of the Cuban touristic destiny in the world.

The Touristic Destiny "Jardines del Rey: All in Nature"

"Jardines del Rey" ("King's Gardens"); this name was used (1513–1514 years) by Spanish colonizers to refer to the archipelago, in honor to the king Fernando The Catholic. This archipelago is located on the north of Ciego de Avila province. It is a component of Savanna-Camaguey Archipelago, in the geographic space of "Gran Humedal del Norte" (Ramsar site). This touristic destiny comprises different cays: Coco cay (370 km^2), Guillermo cay (13.2 km^2), Paredón Grande cay (6.0 km^2), and Antón Chico cay (1.7 km^2). They are linked to land by a road of 17 km which was built over the sea to facilitate the development of touristic actions, in such a way that the visitors can have access to the complementary offers of the city as well as the nature that surrounds the cays which enrich the touristic destiny attractions (Map 8.1).

The main access to the destiny is made by plane, through a modern international airport with capacity for 600 passengers per hour. From this destiny, visitors can have access to the main Cuban touristic destines by national flights. Guillermo Cay Marine also offers migratory, customs and on board services.

According to the Environmental Strategy of the Tourism Ministry in Ciego de Avila (2004), the territory includes the following protected areas, with touristic purposes: Center West Zone of Coco Cay (Ecologic Reserve) and Dunas de Pilar (Especial Natural Destiny).

This destiny is characterized by white-sounds beaches, protected by coral barriers which load along 100 km in the archipelago. There are rich submarine vegetations, with a great diversity of species (in total: 344; from them: 48 endemic species and 10 rare ones). The zone includes a rich forest area, with pink flamencos and others migratory births.

Important areas for reproduction of species (manatee species) are in de nearest sea waters of this tourist destiny. Beautiful beaches load along the 22 km of "Coco" cay; as well as the 5 km of "Guillermo" cay. These coasts are integrated to marvelous and unique vegetation.

Different institutions (The Ministry of Science, Technology and Environmental; the Physical Planning Institute and particularly the structures of the Tourism Ministry are in charge to coordinate and to rule de development and the building of an infrastructure for tourism, with the necessary natural environmental compatibility. All this is in correspondence with the slogan "Jardines del Rey: all in natural" (see Fig. 8.2).

Since 1993, the Project of the UN Program for Development ("Savanna—Camaguey" Project) has been in correspondence with the sustainability policy. It has just directed to this destiny through the Sustainability Development Center.

Map 8.1 “Jardines del Rey” archipelago. *Source*: Ministry of Tourism Office, Ciego de Ávila

Fig. 8.2 “Colonial Hotel” Coco cay. *Source*: Delegation of the Ministry of Tourism in Ciego de Ávila

This project was divided in three steps (Alcolado, García, & Avellano-Acosta, 2007):

I. Biodiversity Protection and Sustainable Development of Savanna-Camaguey Ecosystem.
II. Priority actions to consolidate the biodiversity protection.
III. It controls the above described steps.

"Jardines del Rey"; Experiences for the Integrated Management and the Touristic Sustainable Development

The Cuban destiny "Jardines del Rey" was created in 1993 with important operations for the national and international tourism. During this decade, the destiny has received more than 3,500,000 visitors, with an annual increasing of 13 %. In October of the 2013 year, the visitors quantity had an increasing of 22.9 %. The daily average of visitors shows that this is the more increasing tourist destiny in the country (Juventud Rebelde, 2013).

As the Trip Advisor (2013) reports, one of the 10 best "all included" touristic complexes in the Caribbean is located in this destiny. The "Meliá Cayo Coco" Hotel which has a recognized prestige, not only because of its beautiful (compatible with the vegetation rounding the installation) but also as a result of the staff professionalism, the excellent food service and the quiet the hotel offers (see Fig. 8.3).

The structure of the touristic system includes a Ministry of Tourism Region Office, the hotel national networks CUBANACAN, GAVIOTA and ISLAZUL, as well as the Palmares Enterprise Group, which offers products for resting and restoration. On the other hand, EMPRESTUR gives supporting services to the tourist operation, as well as the travel agencies CUBATUR, CUBANACAN TRAVELS, GAVIOTA TOUR, HAVANATUR, ECOTUR and PARADISO. There are also the specialized enterprises for touristic transport TRANSTUR and TRANSGAVIOTA.

The destiny has showed a sustainable increasing of the hotel investments with an annual increasing ratio of the rooms' quantity of 12 % (Trujillo, 2013). The main building characteristics are related on the high installations near the sea. The Coco and Guillermo cays include 5,259 rooms, located in 14 hotel and two touristic villages; the 92 % of which are of 4–5 stars categories, while the rest (8 %) corresponds to 3 and 2 stars ones.

The "all included" regime is used in this operation. This is a very characteristic modality for the sun-beach destinies; this allows proposing integral set products. On the other hand, the partners for commercialization are usually applied in this destiny. From the beginning, the most of the hotels have been ruled by means of contacts with prestigious international hotel networks, such as Melia Hotel International, NH, Iberostar, Globalia, Guitar, Memory Occidental Hoteles, Blau, Belive Hotels, etc. Their advantages are recognized by international organizations and their own customs.

The annual rooms-occupation capacity average is more than 54 %. During the high period (December-April) this average is 80 %. In fact it is near 100 % during the pick days.

The main customs are: Canada (58 % of total arrivals); Argentina (8 %); United Kingdom (7 %), as well as Germany, France, Spain and other countries. The presence of national visitors has been increased; in 2012 these tourists were the second market (27 % of the hotel capacities). The permanence average has been

Fig. 8.3 "Meliá Cayo Coco" Hotel. *Source*: Ministry of Tourism Office, Ciego de Ávila

according to the world tendency of decreasing (7.56 days in 2000 and 5.7 days in 2012). For the international tourism the permanence is 6.5 days while for the national one the permanence was 3.9 days.

After 20 year from its creation, this destiny exhibits good results. This is a great challenge to face important non solved troubles, which will be later described.

Main Positive Experiences in Ruling the "Jardines del Rey" Touristic Operation

- *The integrated planning of the touristic development.*

  In the "Jardines del Rey" destiny, the general planning for the touristic organization have been made (for the cays: Coco, Guillermo, Paredón Grande and Antón Chico.

  The characteristic fragility of this ecosystem demands a planning which rules its for of using, as well as the conservation and restoration of the nature places. Therefore the destiny states the urbanization of none more than the 8 % of the territory. All the buildings should be behind the dunes, according to the Coasts Law No. 212, which establishes a minimum distance from the beach border of 100 m (State Council Republic of Cuba, 2000).

  This planning is also distinguished by low room densities (25–30 rooms/ha): by an average sun-area per tourist of 25 m^2. In all the cases, the buildings have 2–3 floors. This requirement allows maintaining the rest of the cays area in normal height conditions to be used in walking activities and interaction with the

nature conditions of the places (Provincial Physical Planning Office, Ciego de Ávila, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2013).

During the making process of this planning, not only the planning institution play an important role, but the rest of the organizations are also consulted; for example: The Ministry of Science, Technology and Environment Provincial Office: The Ministry of Tourism Provincial Office; the Institute of Water Resources; The Electric-Generation Office; The Road, The Highway Administration and others. This coordination is important to achieve the strategies development and the priorities for carrying out the planning.

- *The looking approach about the development sustainability in the touristic destiny*.

  The main concept, from the planning to the destiny management, is based on a sustainable development model of tourism. For achieving these objectives, some previous conditions were stated: the touristic activity is the main task of the territory; the necessity of achieving the harmony and compatibility between the nature and the tourism, according to the regulations as well as the maintaining of the research, the ruling and control, which is very important for the tourism developing.

  The Coastal Ecosystems Research Center was first built in the cay (in 1990). It has maintained the ruling and control of the archipelago before and during the touristic development.

  Nowadays, all the installations in the destiny have stated (or they are stating) the Environmental Management System. This allows making working plans for saving of water, electricity and fuel.

  On the other hand, the brochures for good practices of environment conservation are elaborated, in order to be used by tourists and the hotels staff. There is also a permanent control for creating the Center of Sustainable Touristic Development which should control the correct performance of all regulations, ruled by the Convene for establishing the Sustainable Tourism Caribbean Zone.
- *Positive obtained results in customs satisfaction*.

  During the years 2011, 2012 and 2013 the destiny "Jardines del Rey" has been in the first places, according to the applied surveys about customs satisfaction, with a high recognizing of the visitors. In 2011 this destiny was in the second place respected on: the general satisfaction level, the satisfaction of airport services, the hotel satisfaction level and the extra hotel satisfaction one. Thus, the destiny has been in the first place since 2012. In this moment, it has the best results among the first five destinies (Holguín, Villa Clara, Varadero and Havana) (Delegation Ministry of Tourism Ciego de Avila 2013).
- *The increasing of the human resources' qualification and the recognizing of the human capital as one of the main competitive advantages*.

  The Ciego the Avila province has a total of 5,645 workers of the tourism sector. From the, near of the 65 % is located in this touristic destiny. The 43.0 % of the Jardines del Rey workers are directly linked with the touristic services, while the 77 % of them ended the high school or the university. It shows their

high training level. The stability of this labor force is also distinguished by an important level (35 %) of the women incorporation.

The basic permanent workers' training is also achieved by means of FORMATUR Training School, in Moron municipality. The University of Ciego de Ávila has the major of Bachelor in Tourism, as well as others associated with the touristic branch.

Other master's degree and postgraduate courses are also offered to tourism professionals.

- *Diversification of products to complement of sun and beach tourism*

  Taking into consideration the surrounding natural and cultural attractions, the destiny policy has been the diversification of goods with a complementary offer that the tourist can acquire out of the tourist package what improves the sun and beach offer and becomes a source of economic incomes for the region. Among the most important offers are:

  Ecotourism. El Bagá Park with 700 ha of forest, mangrove swamps, channels and lagoons, is the main ecotourism offer of cays. Other offers are the visits to relevant natural places as the dunes of Loma del Puerto in Cayo Coco and Pilar in Cayo Guillermo. There are also navigation excursions to observe the ecosystem of lagoons and mangrove swamps along internal channels.

  Navigation. There are two navigation centers: "Aguas Tranquilas" in Cayo Coco and the Marine of Cayo Guillermo, which organize trips in vessels and catamarans to visit virgin beaches, as well as snorkeling sessions. Underwater swimming is another important offer provided by four underwater swimming centers which make incursions in 20 underwater swimming places in the coral reef.

  Events. Steam Locomotive Festival in Moron, is a yearly competition event where steam locomotives from the the years 1911–1920, which still are in good working conditions, are shown. A fishing competition is also held in La Redonda Lake.

  Health. The Talasso center in Cayo Coco offers health services to improve life quality.

  Other services. Cultural and resting activities including city tours to potentiate the cultural institutions of the territory and to promote international events.

  The recreation center of Cayo Guillermo offers bowling alley, small golf areas and squares for recreation activities. There is a dolphin interaction center and other recreation centers for daytime and night-life activities.

  Trips. The travel agencies offer more than 30 excursions to different places of cays, including the province and other cities of the country, such as Havana, Holguìn, Cienfuegos, and others.

- *Turiguanó island community, the main settlement of workers, has received positive impacts of tourism development.*

  Turiguanó Island is located at the entrance of the cays from Jardines del Rey tourist region. It was recognized as the Tourist Corridor in 1997. Due to its

location it was considered the main settlement of the labor force for the tourist action.

Before the tourist development, the unique employment in this community was the Turiguano Genetic Center, which was created in 1976. Then this center improved the genetic condition of the bovine cattle. However, since 1997 this place and its population have received the tourism impact, with an important production improvement and sales diversification and a social and economic impact (Falcón, 2007; Falcón, Betancourt, & Vázquez, 2010).

The main social and economic impacts are:

- The creation of 813 jobs in Turiguano Island (400 direct jobs and 235 indirect ones; there are 178 induced jobs). It all led to the increment of personal incomes.
- As a result of tourism development, the community housing doubled with the building of 396 houses for workers and the rebuilding of the existing houses. Nowadays, new houses are being built. It's expected to reach the quantity of 2,800 new houses what represents the 25 % of all the destiny workers.
- The hydraulic infrastructure, built for Jardines del Rey destiny, beneficiates the 95 % of the community population.
- The first Eolian Cuban Park is an important contributes to the community sustainable development and it is an additional attractive for the tourists.
- The Turiguano Genetic Center has diversified its production with the sales increment directed to the tourism and to the community population.
- The local population uses the tourism workers transport.
- The community image has improved as a result of the new buildings.
- The population training related on the environment protection has also increased.

- *Integration actions of the tourist local sector for improving of population and tourists.*

Today there is greater understanding respected to the importance of the more integrated tourism management. The current Cuban decentralizing processes are a challenge for the local governments to promote the coordination of public and private actors. They should use the opportunities of the increasing production, the integral approach of the touristic products and the coordinated participation in the destiny management, with the people participation. This kind of local development management reaffirms the importance of the public local administrations to achieve the harmonic links of the national development policies with the necessities and possibilities of the local territories, in order to obtain the proposed communities goals.

In this sense, some of more important actions are designed for increasing municipal tourist projects for the local development. The current process includes the training of local actors to use the possibilities and opportunities of the different municipalities. This will allow to give not only touristic products, but to become into direct suppliers to hotels, restaurants and other customs. On the other hand the

private restaurants and rent houses, which are according to national regulations, can be marketed through travel agency of the destiny. This actions are in correspondence with the Indications 262, 263 and 264 of the Economic and Social National Policy (Communist Party of Cuba, 2011).

Difficulties and Challenges in the Destiny Management

- The conditions of the tourist actions in the cays, with great distance from the product and services suppliers are characterized by very expensive activities with lower efficiency parameters. However, there are favorable conditions to improve the current results and the costs of services, according to their quality.
- The quality of the product/destiny is another important challenge, especially related on a more integral approach of management. The local public administration doesn’t have the necessary budget to give services with authentic tourist quality and for reconversion and renovation of the tourist infrastructures. The local suppliers don’t guarantee the products stability and quality, as well as the services and the equipment, demanded by the hotels and other installations. This affect not only the stated quality requirement, but limit the economical development of local tourism.
- The important obtained increment in the hotel investments are not in correspondence with the planned resting infrastructures, such as golf fields, parks, navigation routes and others tourist options. There is still insufficiencies respected on different complementary offers. This problem is present, in lower level, in others tourist destinies such as Varadero and Holguin, where a more balance of hotel investments and complementary offers is achieved.
- The tourist operation depends, as in other non developed countries, of external tourist operators which demand their contract conditions. On the other hand, this tourist destiny strongly depends of Canadian market, which contribute with over than 50 % of the market share. Consequently, the destiny operations are also affected by the seasonality of this market. In this sense, some actions for obtaining new markets are been carried out, in order to achieve a best composition in the market structure (Cuesta, Dávila, Báez, Martínez, & Veiga, 2011).
- The training of workers from distant places demand on great effort and a perfect transport system, which not always are not in correspondence with the necessities.
- Finally, the main challenge is to maintain a tourist development, in harmony with the valuable cays environment. This demands the increment of the exigency, not only during the project and constructive step, but during the own tourist exploitation of the destiny for obtaining its necessary development.

Final Considerations

The very hard current competitive environment demands on new development dynamic for tourist development. Particularly, although the sun and beach destinies continue having the main weigh respected to the travels incentives, they should assume the new challenges. It is related on the presence of new destinies, the permanently changing people preferences and the increasing environment conscience of the tourists who are interested for knowing about the culture and the idiosyncrasy of the visited places. For this purpose, it is necessary add values to the main offer, by the presence of a diversity of products which complement and satisfy the most varied exigencies.

There is an urgent necessity of changing the sectorial approach about the tourist development by integrated planning and management models of the destinies, in order to use and to promote the local capacities and necessities. It demands on cooperation actions among all the agents which are present in this development. In fact, it is necessary to coordinate the public and private interests with the active population role. This condition will allow that the impact of the tourism development were present in the residents and tourists.

During 20 years, the tourism development in Jardines del Rey has demanded a great inversions effort of the country, not only to achieve the touristic foundations in the cays, but also in the population respected to the infrastructure. Therefore all the results should increase their effects on the localities and accomplish the objectives of sustainability proposed since the very beginning.

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Chapter 9
Practices of Corporate Social Responsibility in the Hospitality of Cancun

Elva Esther Vargas Martínez

Abstract The hotel companies, as well as other industries of the touristic sector, covers more importance in the development of the destinations, however, it is also recognize the role of the social processes and the nature impact. This paper presents the results of the research about the practices of social business responsibility reached by the three types of hotels in the touristic destination of Cancun, México. According to this empirical study some volunteer statements from the hotel executives are exposed with regard to their performance and the importance of the social responsibility recognized within the daily work of the enterprises and as this constitutes a support tool towards sustainability.

Keywords Social responsibility • Environmental management • Hospitality • Cancun

Introduction

With the growth of the tourist industry in Mexican destinations as the Riviera Maya, Nuevo Vallarta, Cancun, Los Cabos and Bahia de Huatulco (SECTUR, 2010) has emerged the interest to recognize the role of the hospitality in the social processes of the communities and the changes in the nature.

The offer of accommodation in these destinations are formed by a huge amount of multinational companies (MNCs) that accommodate most recognized hotel chains in the country and abroad. In this regard, and given that the development of the tourism industry is related to important factors such as job creation and increased investment in infrastructure, goods and services, which has been raised to continue to the momentum and growth of the hotel industry in the country

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(SECTUR, 2011). However, most of the companies have been characterized by repeated tourist model Sun and beach with all inclusive services which have been noted as a rate plan that favors economically hotel enterprises without extending the benefit into a local development.

In this regard, Greenpeace (2009) warns of social and environmental impacts that generate the multinational hotel companies in the tourist destinations and makes a clear description of the absence or failure of environmental and labor regulations. In addition to this, there is the perception that tourism in general and the hotel industry in particular does not develop an awareness towards the conservation of the natural environment-friendly, nor directs efforts toward a corporate social responsibility (CSR), since the employees remain days excessive work during peak periods, they are hired in any way and do not receive competitive salaries (Turismo responsable, 2008).

In the specific case of Cancun, Quintana Roo, the future of hospitality is a great dilemma since, on the one hand, it generates a significant economic benefit to locate on the tourist destination most recognized Mexican internationally, and on the other hand, faces different junctures, as falls occupational for long periods of time to suffer natural disasters events economic crisis and health alerts; as well as the arrival of new hotel investment to nearby destinations such as Puerto Morelos and the Riviera Maya. The darker face of tourism in Cancun and that is becoming a constant concern for researchers and environmental groups, are in one hand, the erosion of the beaches, the negative impacted systems Reef and lagoon, the territorial overpopulated, lack of water and excess of trash; and by the other hand, competition for jobs, social inequality, discrimination and the eventual recruitment (Fernández de Lara, 2009).

So then, inside hotel companies have undertaken on a process of change that has to do with their employees, with the agents of the environment, nature and society to which it relates. This responsible behavior is being increasingly recognized by consumers, employees, investors and financial institutions, which are constituted as pressure subjects for better business performance. Companies which decide to operate responsibly get real and tangible benefits that reflected in their financial performance, image and reputation, loyalty with their customers and employees, as well as the sustainability of the business (CEMEFI, 2008; Mercado & García, 2007).

The main objective of the research is to analyze the practices of CSR's hospitality in Cancun in order to recognize if they contribute to the sustainability of the tourist destination.

The paper is divided into three parts, the first concerning the theoretical and conceptual perspective from which were constructed categories of analysis, the second presents the methodology followed by the empirical study, and the third, which contains the research results and discussion.

Corporate Social Responsibility: A Step Towards the Sustainable Management

State of the Matter

The literature on social and environmental responsibility in business services are scarce compared with empirical research in manufacturing companies, it can be said that these are recent as most have been generated in the last three decades. Research have helped to build major theoretical perspective for their study. There are studies that focus on raising the positive and negative impact of business and how socially responsible management can affect the profitability of the same (Brine, Brown, & Hackett, 2007; Orlitzky, 2008). Also explored how the market provokes that companies assume a social and responsible behavior with the environment (Edwards, Marginson, Edwards, & Ferner, 2007; Marín & Rubio, 2008; McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006; Vicente, Ruiz, Tamayo, & Balderas, 2004; Zu & Song, 2008).

In this work, CSR has been viewed as a strategy to achieve competitiveness and enhance the reputation or corporate image; authors like Porter and Kramer (2002), Waldman, Siegel, and Javidan (2006) and McWilliams et al. (2006) have emphasized the low particular approaches to the strategic vision of the company and the vision of resources and capabilities. In this perspective, it is said that a company has a competitive advantage when it has a distinguishing feature of a product, process or service that is recognized by the market and competitors, and that transforms the business landscape in favor of the possessor but also Marín and Rubio (2008) have shown in their study that CSR contributes to competitive success through the proper management of resources and the satisfaction of its stakeholders.

An additional approach to CSR is seen under the ethical and moral guidance (Donaldson, 1983; Ferrete, 2005; Husted & Allen, 2000; Lizcano & Moneva, 2004), in interpreting the meaning of the company as an entity composed of human resources, where business activities are influenced by the behavior of people who practice or direct. Also the ethical dimension of the company is clarified from the capacity it has to respond to society as better perform its functions and its coverage is wider (Weyzig, 2007), this is where you should think about individuals in business context and also to the company in its social context.

This allows us to understand that organizations build their criteria, values and business goals, using the "recognition of the other" so that it is then an internal moment, not necessarily visible (Lozano, 1999). Thus, then, the objectification of this reflective process-regulatory organization, the affirmation of an ethic of human dignity, is given by formulating codes, missions and business principles, and is updated on an ongoing basis whenever formulated the services offered to society (Edwards et al., 2007).

Notwithstanding the adoption of socially responsible management companies are also part of the idea that there are other stakeholders besides shareholders that

influence their decisions and actions (Freeman, 1994). Several studies report the importance of stakeholders with corporate performance objectives (Jacobs, 1997; Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997; Preston, Sapienza, & Miller, 1991). Specifically Chamhuri research and Siti (2008) shows that multinational companies that practice CSR are subject to enforcement by the governments of the countries where they are located, but also because they face strong pressure from social groups and environmentalists who demand responsible behavior.

This approach helps to understand the relationship side of business with various stakeholders, considering that his performance will be more or less responsible when their stakeholders accept or reject certain principles or organizational management practices that deal with them (Argandoña, 1998; Maignan, 2001), and on the other, the integration of regulatory action when companies perform certain activities in its attempt to maintain a good relationship with government authorities abide by what the law stipulates (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Consequently, this approach requires that business behavior are largely determined by the influence held by the various stakeholders about the company and vice versa.

The stakeholder theory of CSR can be interpreted in two ways (Castelo & Lima, 2007): a strict, which includes all those interested (primary) that allow the continued participation and survival of the company (shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, government and society), and another, the broad sense that includes any group or individual (secondary interest) that may affect or be affected by the company, but that is not essential for survival. However, some problems are manifested with this classification and shows the difficulty of integrating those interested silent non-human group, as in the case of the natural environment (Buchholz, 2004; Capron, 2003; Phillips & Reichart, 2000), and in that sense, one can say that only humans are capable of generating the obligations necessary for the condition of interest. Jacobs (1997) argues, however, that if between the legitimate interests of the company there is a concern for the natural environment must be taken into account and considered in decision-making structures, either the company or the society itself.

Another underlying argument is to know which group of interest is the one considered most important for the leaders of companies, thus three factors influence for the priority: the power of influence, the legitimacy of the relationship and the urgency of the claim (Mitchell et al., 1997), and therefore affirms that some groups benefit at the expense of others (Castelo & Lima, 2007). However, stakeholder theory does not give priority of one actor on top of another, so it coincides with the assertion that each actor involved directly or indirectly in the activities of the company is part of a link that adds value and well-being for all.

CSR for Sustainable Development

Latest CSR speeches show a clear direction of what role must play the company in its contribution towards sustainable development. The philosophy of the World

Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) is part of the idea that companies are not separated from society, which must consider precepts such as the preservation of nature and the progress of societies for their operation.

CSR is defined as "the decision of the company to contribute to sustainable development, is working with employees, their families and the local community as well as society as a whole, to improve their quality of life" (WBCSD, 1998, p. 10).

This definition is useful for the interpretation of CSR under this assumption, which represents an integrative conceptual position, since the company is conceived within a system with three levels: economic growth, social cohesion and environmental preservation, which are complementary to achieve sustainability. In this context the proposal of research involves observation of CSR practices that occur inside of hotel companies; activities and forms of management product of a corporate action that contributes to sustainable development.

Seen this way, the CSR of the hotels is the articulation of the three dimensions. The economic dimension is the company with its shareholders generating them profits, but also making the processes more productive and improving services, too, taking advantage of its financial, human and natural resources that result in the reduction of costs and efficiency in carrying out. It is not enough to generate wealth in addition must not provide the conditions for a better quality of life in the company. In this dimension into action another interested agent, tourists, who pay for a service that should be offered with the promised quality, i.e., with the maximum value for the customer.

The social dimension is referred to mitigate the impacts that the company could generate in relation to culture, customs, respect for human rights, and participation in the life of the community, ethical performance and good relations with its stakeholders. And the environmental dimension is determined by the respect that the company should have towards natural resources and biological diversity.

Moreover, in order that companies generate responsible behaviour there must be an appropriate political framework where the State's participation is significant in the regulation of the matter. Public policies that Governments from tourism destinations exercise largely determine the cooperation of enterprises in the development of the same, encourage or discourage investments and point the way to achieve sustainability.

Continuing with what is stated above, it is important to distinguish the arguments underpinning socially responsible management in enterprises, which constitute the pillars of their measurement. Firstly we can speak of two dimensions of CSR: the internal and external. The first has to do with the workers of the company, aspects such as health, training, fair treatment and non-discrimination is integrated in this category.[1] The external dimension is referred to a corporate responsibility with

[1] The capability approach of Amartya Sen, whose guidance has been given in development studies and public policy provides an informational base centred on people (Enderle, 2004), i.e. social responsibility goes beyond welfare based on income or property, concentrating rather on the ability of individuals from five elements: political freedom, economic opportunity, social services, guarantees of transparency and protective security. In such a way that to study CSR should be to

agents in the environment involved in the production process, the environment, the community and society. Carroll (1991) for its part, has sought to reconcile economic and social responsibility of the company. With the figure of a pyramid sets four dimensions: the economic dimension is the basis for business performance, in second plane found the compliance by the company with the law, the third level means the obligation to do what is right, fair and equitable to avoid or minimize damage to the stakeholders, and in the top of the pyramid is the philanthropy which represents the companies as good corporate citizens.

In the field of CSR, there is a variety of models that allow evaluating the performance of enterprises, by establishing clearly defined dimensions and variables. These models have generally been developed by NGOs or business associations in different countries, some of which have generated a real effort for the creation of instruments applicable to companies of various twists and different size. The review was limited to instruments used in Ibero and Latin America, whose indicators have been validated through its application; selected dimensions are given under the following conceptual arguments:

Levels of corporate commitment. Value of obligations and intentions that has the company on economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic aspects.

Quality of life in the company. Management philosophy that enhances the dignity of the employee, makes cultural changes and opportunities of development, personal progress and security in the work environment (French, 1996).

Business ethics. Refers to an organizational culture with established common values and principles that guide the correct and transparent behaviour of the company.

Responsible consumption. Communication, education and participation mechanisms to generate proposals for responsible consumption in the company and their stakeholders.

Links with the community. Policies and actions that match the company's objectives with the interests and needs of the community.

Environmental management actions. Activities, mechanisms, actions and instruments, to ensure the conservation and environmental improvement. Includes the monitoring to determine conditions of pollution, optimize resources and improve their efficiency (Sors, 1987).

Methodology

This research for its development assumed a mixed method that integrates techniques of quantitative and qualitative methods, which turns out to be complex from the resources that are used in it, however, is important to consider that the main

check that both are caring for and fostering these factors that Sen has called them freedoms of the individual.

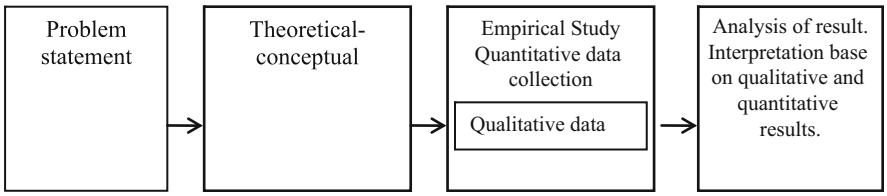

Fig. 9.1 Logic of construction. *Source*: Own prepared

reason that led to this choice was to expand the explanation of the phenomenon from the complementarity of the two approaches. It was designed under the strategy of concurrent integration, which is characterized by having a phase of collecting quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). At this stage there is a main method that guides the study of (quantitative method) field and a secondary (qualitative) method that provides complementary and support the interpretation of the phenomenon under study integrating one into the other (see Fig. 9.1).

The research focuses on hotel companies, which according to the Cancun Hotel Association (AHC) during 2009 the target had 139 hotels in all categories. On the basis of the following reasons it was decided to consider as a unit of analysis to the hotels of four and five stars as well as grand resort (GR):

It's about authentically tourism businesses to be located strategically in the area offering products and services to tourists.

The total capacity of rooms (23,498) composed of the three categories represents a higher proportion (79 %) of the hotel offer compared with establishments that comprise the rest of the categories.

43 % of this type of hotels offers plans "all-inclusive" reaching the highest averages for occupation in comparison with other plans.

Hotel chain companies maintain a strong presence in the market not only for the reception of tourists but also by his influence that comes to affect social, political, economic, and territorially in the locality (Jiménez, 2010).

In recent years large foreign hotel chains have been subjected to criticisms and complaints regarding his irresponsible action with workers, breach of laws and predation of natural resources. In contrast, they have also been considered as a sector willing and anxious to integrate sustainable principles into their management practices using voluntary CSR initiatives.

Finally the large number of hotels that belong to chains facilitates the study, because it unifies management practices among hotels that belong to the same corporate. The sample is composed of 28 hotels which are located on beach and lagoon of Cancun's hotel zone. The questionnaire for data was integrated by reagents 74, 46 with scale Likert type (where (1) is strongly disagree and (5) is fully in agreement), and 28 with nominal scale. For the validity of content, questionnaire was subjected to the review experts and a pilot test; it was also subjected to reliability of Cronbach's alpha test, revealing in most of dimensions satisfactory values.

To deepen about company behavior it was necessary to complement the process of data collection using qualitative as deep interview cutting techniques and observation technique. The stage of data collection was conducted from May 2009 to May 2010.

Research Findings

Hotels Characteristics

Of the total of grand resorts, 63 % additionally possess categorization by diamonds that recognizes them before customers and competition as a guarantee of quality of service; 47 % of the hotels have five star rating and 25 % is located in four stars. In addition, 86 % of establishments belong to national hotel chains and international and 14 % are independent operation.

It is mostly large companies (78.6 %) whose operation time is varied; 60.7 % of establishments supporting a national investment, 32.1 % foreign and 7.1 % are of national and foreign capital. Should be mentioned that 11 % of chain hotels maintain Spanish operation, 28 % American operation and 61 % Mexican operation (see Table 9.1).

Corporate Social Responsibility

The valuation for CSR is generally favorable. According to the average obtained in the results, the business ethics dimension is the highest and community engagement is the lowest. However, all dimensions were evaluated between 4 and 5 scale (Tables 9.2 and 9.3).

Levels of Corporate Commitment

The results showed that hoteliers of Cancun alternated their mandatory commitments with their voluntary actions, which respond to the need for legitimacy or validity that requires an enterprise as a social institution. As way to be of any business, hotels are committed to achieve firstly corporate profitability, as support of this constantly improved the quality of their services and looking to be more productive, that directly represent factors that contribute to its success.

Ethical nature applied to business management was recognized by 57 % of managers; given the social and environmental situation living destination, some interviewees recognize dilemmas of moral character have been raised to direct and

Table 9.1 Characterization of the hotels

	Operating time					Company size		
Type of investment	1–5 years	6–10 years	11–15 years	16–20 years	+21 years	Big	Medium	Total
Foreign (%)	10.7	7.1	0	10.7	3.6	28.6	3.6	32.1
National (%)	21.4	3.6	3.6	10.7	21.4	46.4	14.3	60.7
National–Foreign (%)	0	0	0	7.1	0	3.6	3.6	7.1
Total (%)	32.1	10.7	3.6	28.6	25	78.6	21.4	100

Table 9.2 Perception about corporate commitment

Corporate responsibility	Frequency	Percentage
Maximize profits and be profitable	22	78.6
Promote ethical performance	16	57.1
Meet legal system	10	35.7
Help solve social problems (philanthropy)	5	17.9

Table 9.3 Descriptive analysis by dimension

Dimension	Min.	Max.	Mean	Standard deviation
Quality of corporate life	1	5	4.59	0.661
Corporate ethics	1	5	4.77	0.698
Responsible consumption	2	5	4.74	0.469
Community engagement	1	5	4.32	0.789
Environmental management actions	1	5	4.25	0.950

make business decisions, especially during recent events that occurred in Cancun as Hurricane Wilma and the health emergency by the AH1N1 flu. With these developments the market became more competitive and then there would be to implement practices to the economic livelihood of the hotels. In that context, the need to obtain economic results exceeded the ability to integrate actions aimed at enterprise ethical performance of the hotels. In terms of legal compliance, declared that this is an imminent obligation of enterprises, however, hoteliers have valued it as one commitment to lower, before the philanthropic activities that are exercised. The stakeholders are shown existing in a triangle composed of customer-actionist—employed. Clearly, the high value client for the company, since it represents the core of its operation. In second place are employees, shareholders, investors and decision makers, and third since being of service companies, largely depend on the performance of its collaborators. Missing work more the link between the hotels and the external social groups, such as the community, the Government, suppliers and competitors.

Quality of Life in the Company

The majority of managers felt that working conditions, management that dignifies employees and professional development opportunities are favorable. Hotels are clear instrumentation of security and civil protection programmes, these include activities for employees and tourists, with them have been minimized negative impacts to the environment and it also complies with the legislation regarding risk reduction.

92.9 % of the hotels have identical benefits, including treatment, for men and women who exercise the same function at any hierarchical level. It complies with training and development of personnel, labor issues, promotion of charges, staff performance and satisfaction assessment information.

One initiative that has just begun to provide employees of the hotels is the opportunity of finishing studies at any level of education, in addition to certified in job skills; the conventions are carried out with schools and local universities.

Company Ethics

The most common business ethics practices are training and the ethical performance of employees, good governance and the codes of conduct or values. 82.1 % of the hotels comply with respect for human rights within its sphere of influence, 78.6 % work in the constant improvement of the quality of their services and 50 % maintains practices of transparent market and collaboration with other companies in the sector.

93.1 % of the hotels managers say maintain a non-discriminatory recruitment policy and 85.7 % for the promotion of ethical performance among workers. Note that companies are looking to establish the bribery and corruption prevention mechanisms, since this type of actions have also contaminated the tourism sector.

Other elements that prove to be decisive under the theoretical line of business reputation and the satisfaction of workers are the data privacy of the customer which is a policy of almost all of the hotels.

In the certification of business ethical performance they are beginners; three companies have achieved recognition Great Place to Work, fulfilling criteria of trust, credibility, respect and justice in its relationship with the company. The instruments of business ethics that predominate are codes of conduct (96.4 %). Some hotels were the active participation of the staff in the preparation of your code, important action because untreated obligations but commitments freely undertaken by staff. Also a high percentage of managers (82.1 %) expressed in its mission and organizational strategy integrating aspects of CSR. In the case of the publication of reports or memoirs of social performance, the percentage is lower (42.9 %) and most shows balances or made from your corporate social reports.

Responsible Consumption

There is generally a high implementation of mechanisms for communication, education and participation to generate responsible consumption in hotels. 64.3 % of the hotels serves the needs and opinions of its customers to enhance the quality of service and the satisfaction of tourists. The frequencies shown to 89.3 % of the hotels reported guest practices ecological during your stay and 92.9 % delivery information about risk in the use of their services. 85.7 % of those interviewed assessed with the maximum scale safety procedures for the guest, factor that ensures the tourist a stay successful and quiet; the same percentage of hotels serve the recommendations issued by the authorities in protecting the consumer.

Community Engagement

The hotels include among its suppliers to companies in the local community. The average with respect to the participation of hotels in the improvement of the quality of life of local communities is 4.29 (=0.897). More than half maintain a recruitment policy of people from Cancun or places nearby on foreigners or originating in other States of the Republic.

The actions of cleaning of beaches, renovation of schools and kindergartens, are common in the hotels the elderly and people suffering from cancer or HIV programmes. Working on campaigns with the system for Integral Development for the family (DIF in Spanish), the Police Directorate of traffic and fire department, Red Cross and Civil protection making donations in kind.

They also mention make donations of services, products and/or money to social causes. Five hotel chains possess their own Foundation through which carried out activities on behalf of its employees and society. Some hotels are integrated into programs such as End Child Prostitution, Child pornography and Trafficking of Children for sexual purposes, Telethon Foundation ties, challenge family A.C., UNICEF and street children. Hotels in philanthropic activities participation is high (96.5 %), employees also cooperate, such is the case of sponsor children and low-income elderly or form groups, moral and psychological support against violence and suicide, than in that area of the country is very high.

Environmental Management Actions

This dimension has a favorable level of measurement (=4.25, =0.950); controls environmental impact caused by the activities and hotel services, stimulating the consumption of products and/or services which do not harm the environment, environmental training programs, the use of facilities and technologies respectful

of the environment and possess environmental emergency plans, formed a set of very equivalent results with minimal variability and high averages.

Relative antiquity that keep Hotels has allowed the introduction of environmental technologies, new hotels and the remodeled are intelligent buildings that maintain a precise control of water and energy to improve the environmental performance of hotel companies. Although not all companies maintain a formal system of environmental management (EMS), most of them count with basic aspects of it, such as the separation of garbage, the environmental monitoring, and the management of hazardous waste and emergency plans. All of the hotels monitors water consumption, their supply is via the drinking water and network utilization, regarding sewage wells, most managers mentioned its hotels to meet standards that mark the applicable rules; two hotel chains have a chemical biological, physical type and purification of wastewater treatment systems.

With regard to the form of operating environmental logistics, five hotels have environmental managements and eight committees at the corporate level. 68 % of hotel companies have environmental policy, in this case distinguished the policy is stated from the corporate and all the hotels of the chain should assume it; to observe five enunciated policy aspects are as (a) compliance with the law, (b) the protection of the ecology through good environmental practices and programs, (c) responsibility with the nature, (d) sustainability, (e) communication, (f) community.

Working with the staff was one of the obstacles that were defeated by integrating the environmental management in companies, doing so meant a change of culture and training employees meant a new philosophy of work. Many environmental management actions aim at the protection of workers.

Regard to certifications and environmental audits, a high percentage of executives (85.7 %) noted know tourism environmental quality seal awarded by Federal Attorney for Environmental Protection (Procuraduría Federal de Protección al Ambiente, PROFEPA) and Ministry of Tourism (Secretaría de Turismo, SECTUR) although only 53.6 % has implemented or is in the process of doing so. The degree of progress between the hotels is varied, only a company mentioned found next to the audit, it is precisely the Hotel Dreams Cancun Resort & Spa, which received recognition in March 2010; This company also joined their operation processes the ISO 14001 EMS.

Green Globe 21 is known for the 71.4 % of hotel managers and seven establishments are in the process of implementation; your certification is highly appreciated in the international tourist area. ISO 14001, is identified by less than half of the respondents (42.9 %) and is only implemented in three hotels. The GG21 certificate has actively promoted by the international organization MARTI Conservation, the initiative that was created for the defence of the Mesoamerican Reef, together with the environmental group friends of Sian Ka'an, WWF, Conservation International, Tour operators for the development of sustainable tourism (TOI) and the Association of hoteliers in the Riviera Maya and Cancun.

Position That Assume the Companies Before the Environmental Situation

An initial overview of the results shows that the hotel managers were aware of the negative effects that tourism has generated at the destination; the events of the past few years has made them think about the vulnerability of the tourist sector. Most of them, considers that Cancun has had significant impacts of hospitality toward nature, and recognize that the place is has been deteriorating very quickly, since it speaks of a young destination (barely 40 years). They also consider that Cancun will hardly achieve sustainability, since it requires a great effort and a strong economic investment, provided that not all actors in the sector are willing to comply. The results of other studies (Llull, 2003) require that there must be a shared responsibility between the public administration and tourism enterprises to achieve the sustainable development of the destinations. In general, three specific groups working for social and environmental improvement in the place are recognized: civil society, the Government and employers; However, the task has not been easy and commitments among them just beginning (Vargas, Zizumbo, Viesca, & Serrano, 2011).

Conclusions

Tourism is considered a sector with a strong expansive dynamic, since its evolution is associated with the increase in the standard of living of the populations. However, the globalization process and models of tourism development with an economic approach have caused that major infrastructure projects are generated, are intended for huge capital for the tourist industry, and thus occur severe ecological and social consequences in the destinations. With the emergence of the discourse of sustainability one can observe an influence within the business sector, which is linked with the private and economic prospects and becomes evident, above all by the need of present society as entities responsible for socially and environmentally, revealing a good image in the sector.

The literature analysis allowed distinguishing the different theoretical perspectives that have been generated for the study and conceptualization of the CSR, from his particular orientation coincides in that CSR is an important tool for companies in its contribution to the fields of sustainability. The topic of CSR is relatively recent in the Mexican tourist context, and is in that sense, which manifests the exploratory nature of some indicators used, which although they come from the literature review may have limitations in this regard to be applied to another business turn and another context.

The quality of life in the company of the studied hotels is largely determined by compliance with labour laws and working conditions offered to contributors. Which have to do mostly with human resources management programmes. In terms of

business ethics, this is the result of the combination of respect for human rights within its sphere of influence, the employs control mechanisms against possible practices of corruption and the promotion of ethical performance among staff. However, results showed that the hotels still need more work in the design and implementation of a non-discriminatory recruitment policy.

Responsible consumption highlights the importance of the needs and opinions of its customers to monitor quality and customer satisfaction, while recognizing that more than half of the hotels are starting to inform their guests about how to reduce environmental damage by using their services. Regarding to the community engagement activities that support the community and improve relations with the authorities and providers are needed. With this respect, if the company has as main purpose to comply with economic responsibility, it makes sense to point out to customers and shareholders as the most important groups for hotel companies, since the former are those who acquire goods and tourist services produced by the hotel and its operation is intended for them. However, it is necessary to rethink the importance with the rest of the groups of relationship, otherwise damage or rupture between the two may occur.

Regarding the environmental management actions, control of ecological impacts and environmental training are actions engaged in most of the hotels; and excess waste, odor and waste downloads happen to be the main problems faced by companies in their daily operation. The integration of the majority of the hotels in the national programme of environmental audit evidence an interest in deploying an EMS, despite that the results have been insufficient in obtaining the certification.

In general, the results respond to the objectives of the study put the CSR practices of Cancun hotels carried out revealed. The analysis reveals that to achieve the long-awaited sustainable development required the conjunction of economic growth, social equity, ecological balance and the responsibility of all actors in the tourism sector; but the most important are the changes that are made in the way of thinking, of doing things, directing Governments and live individually. For this reason, actions that the hotels have in their day-to-day just represent the start of a new business culture towards sustainability. The companies must overcome the stage only to comply with the legislation to pass to the stage of integration of economic, social and ecological processes, products and services variables, so that they can decide voluntarily contribute to the achievement of a better society and a cleaner environment.

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Chapter 10
Endogenous Practices Aculco Agritourism, Mexico, Based on the Valuation of the Cultural Patrimony of Their Plantations (Haciendas)

Marcelino Castillo Nechar, Guillermo Miranda Román, Marisol Orozco Guerrero, and Laura Eugenia Tovar Bustamante

Abstract This paper discloses the results of an investigation focused at the assessment of Mexican haciendas, in the town of Aculco, Mexico, as a cultural patrimony and cultural manifestations (tangible and intangible) that own the local population, order to activate community life, business, public sector participation and expectations of the visitors in a model of rural tourism that propitiate endogenous development. The investigation considered the conceptual analysis this type of tourism, the importance of cultural patrimony, appreciation of the haciendas, the expectations of residents and visitors in the destination, the impact of programs that promote the haciendas, and the required link between the public and social to consolidate the place. Finally, a proposal was designed based on a tourist route which derive thematic routes that together with local practices of the field, leading to a conception of comprehensive agritourism model for four haciendas: La Cofradía , Arroyozarco , Dolores Ñado and Rancho Viejo, with the intending to generate agrotourism projects to stimulate the activity of the town, as best practices in this area.

Keywords Agritourism • Haciendas • Patrimony • Routes

Introduction

In Mexico since the 1990s, tourism has diversified. The so-called conventional tourism—the sun and beach—has lost importance, emerging called alternative tourism, among which are: ecotourism, adventure tourism and rural tourism. In

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the latter appears the agrotourism, a practice that has been little noticed by industry officials, although landowners engaged in agricultural activities-of empirically-or rural municipalities have set up programs to visitors who come to these areas to observe the way of life of farmers and their many tangible and intangible cultural events.

In Mexico, has paid special attention to the estates, traces of production units to architectural studies done to rehabilitate as hosting services, spas, restaurants or social events (SECTUR, 2001). The studies matter of plantations are oriented to economic, sociological or anthropological, however, an increasingly relevant interest takes into account the cultural heritage and their collections to exploit them fully with the participation of the inhabitants.

The use and occupancy of plantations, agricultural production units-peasant, have resulted in tangible and intangible cultural heritage, worthy to be known by visitors who come to town for Aculco. As a tangible work of the haciendas emerge facilities, areas and buildings for work and housing, agricultural tools and equipment, various household items, among other items that made possible the economic and social development of these productive units. About the intangible, which is still in force and influences the way of life of the peasants, include religious activities, language, food, art, dance, music, rituals, legends, customs, ways of life or organization for work agriculture. Both tangible and intangible, should be reassessed and exploited as tourist attractions, to conform museums, exhibition halls for the use and enjoyment of the tourists who visit these farms, and thus constitute a potential socio-economic and agro-tourism to places like Aculco.

This document reports on the operation of the plantations in the municipality of Aculco, Mexico, as cultural patrimony, which revolve around a series of practical proposals for tourism-related endogenous. Such practices, while enabling the enjoyment by the visitor, reorganized local people in their traditions and customs, employers in the design of its tourist services, the public sector in terms of planning, policy and dissemination and as typical small food producers. The model referred to is that of the agritourism, which can promote endogenous development in the municipality.

Rural Tourism, Agritourism, Haciendas and Patrimony

Tourism is one of the highlights socio-economic activities worldwide, in 2011 generated 980 million international arrivals to the various tourist destinations in the world, directly responsible for 5 % of global PIB,[1] 6 % of total exports and use of 1 in 12 people in both advanced economies and emerging (OMT, 2012). The

[1] The PIB (Producto Interno Bruto) Gross Domestic Product, is a macroeconomic measure that expresses the monetary value of the production of goods and services for final demand of a country (or region) for a certain period of time (usually a year).

Ministry of Tourism (SECTUR, 2011) reported that in 2010, Mexico ranked 10th place among the most visited countries, ranking as the third economic activity of importance in the country with a share of PIB from 9 % to 7.5 million direct and indirect jobs.

Meanwhile, rural tourism is considered an important alternative to carry out projects that promote the development of local communities. The World Tourism Organization (OMT, 2002) in its publication "Tourism 2020, global forecasts and profiles of market segments", believes that its market has great potential. While it may be difficult to estimate its size in terms of international arrivals, an estimated 3 % of international tourists guide their trips to this type of tourism, today, rural tourism is growing about 6 %, is say, a few percentage points above the average rate of growth of world tourism.

Diversification of tourism activity, today comprises multiple modalities such as: conventional tourism of sun and beach, business, social, hunting, health, cultural tourism, nature, among others. Nature tourism has positioned itself in recent years in the taste of the visitors, thanks to the trend of tourists by increasingly friendly products and low impact. In Mexico, defines nature tourism as "...trips designed to recreational activities in direct contact with nature and cultural expressions that envelop you with an attitude and commitment to know, respect, enjoy and participate in the conservation of natural and cultural resources" (SECTUR, 2007, p. 475).

The Ministry of Tourism (SECTUR) classifies nature tourism in three segments: ecological, adventure and rural tourism. The last is considered an alternative to foster local development in rural areas, are peasant, livestock, dedicated to handcrafts or indigenous communities. Rural tourism is characterized by "... aim to travel the activities of coexistence and interaction with a rural community, in all those expressions social, cultural and productive" (SECTUR, 2007, p. 475). In this segment include various activities such as: ethnotourism, participation in making crafts, experiences in local traditions, culinary workshops, sports of charrería and agritourism, among others.

The agritourism as part of rural tourism is based on the principles of sustainability, considered in the Commission for Environmental Cooperation (CCA, 2000). A notion of this is that the agritourism "... serving the needs of tourists and host regions while preserving and promoting opportunities for the future. In principle manages resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be met while preserving the cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems" (Barragán, 1997, p. 157). According to the above, the agritourism—sustainability model—not be the main activity of farmers, but, rather, an alternative to increase the income of their families. In this sense, the agritourism continues to specialize and assumes increasingly important role worldwide.

In Mexico, the agritourism is defined as "... the form of tourism in agricultural areas, with the use of a rural environment, occupied by a peasant society, to sample and share not only their idiosyncrasies and agricultural techniques, but also conservation its natural environment, the cultural and socio-productive, where it seeks

to represent an alternative activity to get the farmer to benefit from the expansion of economic activity, by combining agriculture and tourism" (SECTUR, 2007, p. 476). This means that rural inhabitants offered not only their culture, but also natural for rest and recreation, time offers visitors the opportunity to learn about aspects of local culture, learn about traditional cultivation practices, crop and processing of agricultural products, handicrafts, forestry and fishery. The agritourism tends to be an activity with great potential in exploring options for diversification of agricultural and agro-industrial activities even when their participation is still weak, of the order of 2 % of the sales volume of rural tourism in Europe (Riveros & Blanco, 2003, p. 6). However, this type of tourism has become one of the most important strategic activities of public institutions to develop rural communities.

The agritourism is also considered as an important factor to reassess the concept of territory, which clearly shows the multidimensionality of development with a territorial approach in different areas: economic, social and political-institutional dimension (Riveros & Blanco, 2003). This type of tourism is an example to energize rural areas beyond the conception sectoralist conventional agricultural activities and generate Rural Non-farm Employment (RNE) and Non-Farm Rural Income (NFRI).

In Mexico, are many rural areas under conditions of neglect caused by crises in the field, as in the case of the plantations But the legacy that these haciendas has generated not only has been a significant economic development in Mexico, but a creation of productive assets that have crystallized a true patrimonial heritage-tangible and intangible-that identifies cultural life estates and communities surrounding them.

Some reports indicate that "the plantations went through a historical process that took three centuries of splendor to violence that culminated in the 1930s with land reform in some cases were directed to neglect and, in others, to destruction" (Rendón Garcini, 2009, p. 44). Currently some estates in the country have been exploited for tourism, devoting their facilities to provide food service, lodging and museums.

In terms of agritourism, one of the efforts recognized nationally and internationally, was the rehabilitation of haciendas helmets through the program "Plantations and Rural Houses of Mexico". This project came during the presidency of Vicente Fox, the National Tourism Program 2001–2006, in order to generate and promote the recovery and consolidation of tourist accommodation properties with historical, artistic and popular and thereby enrich the product national tour promoting increased visitor flows, diversification of supply of services, the social benefit and return on investment (SECTUR, 2001, p. 166).

The Ministry of Tourism believes the plantations and rural houses just like business whose properties with historical or cultural value may be intended for high quality accommodations to have specific attractions, near a tourist product positioning and to be part of a tourist circuit. The claims of the program have been concerned with the social and economic development of local communities, job creation, increased flow and tourist spending, as well as sustainable development,

diversification of economic activities and tourism, through participation of property owners, business operators, communities and organizations of the three levels of government.

This program had specific plans to achieve the objectives, which were to: recover the property, finance, operate and market the services of the plantations and rural houses. To complement the offer established the following goals: to encourage participation to hotel operators of plantations and rural houses, promoting the plantations and rural houses were synonymous with quality and service, and to promote the operation of specialized lodging establishments to distinguish Mexico in this product (SECTUR, 2001, p. 166). The program was implemented in various states of the country. In the State of Mexico only benefited estates such as San Miguel Ometusco, located in Otumba, the San AndrésTeticpan and La Retana located in Ayapango, Panoaya Plantation in Amecameca, San José Salinas, San Juan Teotihuacan, among others, which offer accommodation, food, spa, or special events. Other plantations in the state were left out of the program despite having the potential to be exploited touristically.

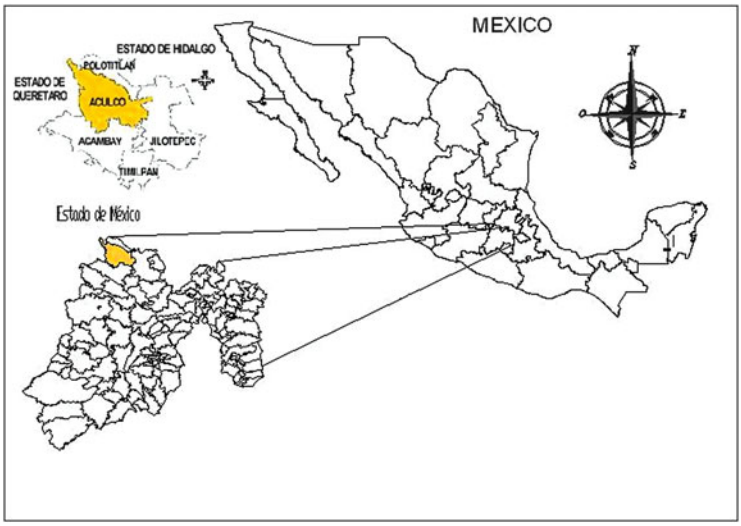
In the municipality of Aculco, some questions about the use of the properties are: Is it feasible to create these programs to convert agricultural production units in an alternative endogenous agritourism, or now, cultural elements not used in farming can be re-used in the implementation of agritourism programs for endogenous development of these destinations?

The plantations played a prominent role in the organization for agricultural production, traditions, customs, and cultural behaviors in everyday life of the people who possessed them. Boortein (1976, p. 13) says, "... the plantations in Mexico were more than just a group of buildings and a large tract of land: it was a way of life. Not only market organized production, but also unified the different elements of the field. Besides being a center of economic activities, the plantations were the core of the social life of all kinds, their owners and managers often exercised substantial political power. In Mexico, there were few areas of life that they turned around hacienda system".

In the State of Mexico the socioeconomic dynamics around the plantations with national significance was relevant, as "La Gavia" in Almoloya de Juárez, the Molino del Rey in Texcoco, the hacienda of "Santa Monica", located in Tlalnepantla or the Arroyozarco in Aculco. Currently it is necessary to conduct inventories of cultural patrimony collections on estates and rescue them and restore them, in order to establish proposals for comprehensive utilization and endogenous development.

Tourism in the Town of Aculco

Aculco of Espinoza Township is in the north of the State of Mexico (see Map 10.1), approximately 160 kilometers from Mexico City, was founded in approximately 1110 AD by the Otomíes. Its name comes from the Náhuatl. Etymologically Atl



Map 10.1 Location of the Municipality of Aculco in the State of Mexico and Mexico

include "water" cóltic "twisted" and co "in", which means "crooked water", that is, where the riverbed very steep turns. Yet another indicates that the word meaning Aculco means "in the place where the water twists". According to the translation of the word in Otomi means "two waters", because in this place in the ground are two types of sweet water and salt. The region was dominated by the Aztecs, many years even before the founding of Tenochtitlan.

After the Spanish conquest built the parish and the convent of San Jerónimo, in 1540, the architecture is of baroque style (INAFED, 2010). Aculco played an important role in the colony, and its geographical position places it in *La Ruta Camino Real de Tierra Adentro*,[2] or better known as *Camino de la Plata*, one of the most important of that time (see Map 10.2). Along the Way (from Mexico City to Santa Fe, USA), and for more than 300 years, they exchanged cultural elements from one population to another, such as language, medicine, music, irrigation systems, food or technologies. The largest amount of silver exported from New Spain between 1561 and 1630 was extracted from the deposits of Zacatecas and Guanajuato. This wealth argentiferous was the deciding factor for colonization of northern Mexico. Therefore, the prosperity of towns, villages, towns and haciendas located on the banks of the *Camino Real*, is due to the large profits earned by mining (INAH, 2010).

Aculco town still retains features of the traditional architecture of gray and pink quarry and cobbled streets. For cultural patrimony has, the place was named *Pueblo*

[2] Cultural route, considered the largest and oldest path traced by the Spanish in the Americas during the sixteenth century. This axis facilitated trade, transport and processing of raw ore, as well as the progress of the conquest of Mexico northward.

Map 10.2 Camino Real Tierra Adentro

con Encanto del Bicentenario.[3] Also included in the file was submitted to UNESCO in which she was named a Cultural Heritage in 2010, for the route *Camino Real Tierra Adentro* in its modality cultural itinerary. On this route, highlighting the hacienda of Arroyozarco that developed agricultural activities while offering accommodation and food services in the porterhouse was built to provide these services to passersby of the *Camino Real*, many great people in the Mexico history that marked the economic dynamics of the region.

Aculco town has two important aspects for tourism: its history and geography. Both elements delineate rich heritage resources based on archaeological, architectural, forests, mountains, waterfalls, dams, and historic events of national significance, traditions, customs and local cuisine.

The municipality has attractions such as Casa de Hidalgo provided shelter to Miguel Hidalgo on their way to Mexico City in November 1810, the Parish and ex-convent of San Jerónimo which was built in 1540 by the Franciscans and a style inherited from medieval Europe, around 1674, in another stage of construction was lifted a baroque parish called Tequitqui[4] modified. Within the cloister of the church,

[3] *Pueblo con Encanto del Bicentenario* is a program which acknowledges the towns that have preserved its authenticity and picturesque character, through the improvement and recovery of urban image, assessing and rich cultural attractions, with the purpose of increasing the influx of tourists as well as improve the conditions of life and growth.

[4] The term tequitqui means "tax". "Mestizo is the product that appears in Native America in interpreting images of a religion imported (...) is subject to Indian superstitions A strange mix of styles from three periods: Romanesque, Gothic and Renaissances Anachronistic, seems to be born out of time, because the Indian indoctrinated by the monks or teachers from Europe, received as models prints, drawings, ivory, rich embroidered fabrics, prayer books, crosses, and a thousand smaller items. Not all of them obeyed to the same style and the same time" (Moreno Villa, 1948, p. 115).

there is a sundial, within the temple an oil painting of the Virgin of Guadalupe and a painting of Miguel Cabrera made in 1790, "The Last Supper," in the parish are observed oils San Antonio de Padua, the painting of San Juan Nepomuceno and embracing a Franciscan Santa Cruz" (Ayuntamiento de Aculco, 1997).

Other architectural heritage that stand out in the Municipal Urban Development Plan 2006–2009 are: The Sanctuary of the Lord of Nenthé, small shrine where they worship the image or "Water Lord" who is credited with many miracles, public laundries were the first nationally in giving this kind of service, retain their country air and functionality, this flows the spring "water hole" that feeds water to the municipal pool, ideal for swimming during holiday periods. Some churches, survive with the splendor of the XVI and XVII (INAH, 1987).

As for its natural patrimony are:

- Dam Swim with a forest of 20 ha: suitable place to practice field day activities, horseback riding and picnicking.
- Conception and Waterfalls Tixhiñú: between a rocky landscape, La Concepción has a waterfall of over 25 m high, running on a basalt columns reef, ideal for extreme sports, its walls make this a perfect place to practice rappelling and rock climbing. The of Tixhiñú, has a drop of 15 m above magnificent basalt columns.

The resources and patrimony of Aculco contrast with the lack of services and tourist infrastructure, which has slowed the development of tourism. This is recognized in the Municipal Urban Development Plan of Aculco as mentions that: "Tourism is an important activity for revenue collection has not been exploited by the lack of appropriate care infrastructure for our visitors, the Hotel capacity is not sufficient for the accommodation for several days, a viable alternative may be the guest houses where families of the header and give communities the tourist accommodation and food, considering hygiene and excellent attention that grant, not there are restaurants that offer a complete service. The waterfalls as the main attraction, there are fairly presented in accordance with trash being generated by those who visit, there is no staff to give waste collection service, and lack of monitoring for those who wish to camp in these areas during the late week" (Ayuntamiento de Aculco, 2006, p. 89).

No doubt such a diagnosis, by 2006, reflects the plight of a space that missed an heritage and lack of support resources. However, by 2010, the Ministry of Tourism of the State of Mexico, reached the town records that a total of 122,995 visitors and tourists, being the most popular sites: the lienzo charro "Garrido Varela", San Joaquín waterfall, Salto Conception, Peña Swim, salto San Martin, San Joaquin Village, public pool, Aculco center, washroom, Hacienda de Arroyozarco, churches Denxhi, San Pedro, Concepción, San Lucas, Toxhié, San Antonio Village and church Santa Ana Matlavat (SECTUR of the State of Mexico, 2010).

Although it's notorious lack of tourist products and services quality, which affects local development of tourism in the municipality of Aculco. Natural resources, especially cultural, regional attract tourist flows, so it is essential to design strategies to address the problem in a sustainable manner, and to promote endogenous development of communities.

Map 10.3 Location of farms Arroyozarco, The Cofradía, Dolores Ñado and Rancho Viejo

Rating of the Plantations to Aculco: Basis for Agritourism of Endogenous Type

Among the historic buildings Aculco town, highlights the existence of 14 ex-plantations and ranches: 2 have aesthetic and architectural elements of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, while the remaining 12 nineteenth century (see Map 10.3). In the case of the Arroyozarco was recorded 20 architectural eighteenth and nineteenth century, the Cofradía 14, Santa Rosa 8 and Rancho Viejo 7. The historical and architectural significance of these plantations is notorious, but much more the impact they have had in the way of life of its inhabitants, which can be seen in the cultural manifestations of the communities that developed around their helmets. Below are four of the most important plantations.

Arroyozarco Plantation

Construction of the sixteenth century, as the main house formed a large rectangular block of approximately 50 per 120 m, oriented north-south and located at the foot of a hill that rises north of the building (Lara, 2003). The main courtyard is adorned with a corridor of four arches on pilasters without capitals on the west side. Around him were located hub hall, the desktop and several miscellaneous utility rooms.

To the west were the quarter-rigging and saddler, behind them spread to the sides of a small courtyard, places as diverse as the chicken, *tequesquite* store and two dungeons. The north wing was occupied by the nave of the chapel, barn atrium and two ships on cylindrical columns, after going through many owners, currently belongs to an association for pilgrims from Queretaro using its facilities once a year. The place could be rescued to establish an important cultural space for the town.

Another relevant aspect, perhaps the most significant is the location of the Hacienda of Arroyozarco in the *Camino Real Tierra Adentro*, (INAH, 2010). Arroyozarco was appointed as "*Puerta de Tierra Adentro*" which contributed to the village and will be formed within the historic boundaries of the hacienda.

The remains of the Arroyozarco hacienda are: The Chapel of Our Lady of Loreto, the best preserved building of the hull of the plantation, restored a few times by technical experts from INAH. This chapel is also known as "Jesuit plantation" and was part of the assets of the Pious Fund of the Californias (Lara, 2003). The chapel was under the stewardship of the village of Arroyozarco, for religious services of worship that are constant. The most important celebrations is the Lord's Propel and Our Lady of Loreto, in October and December respectively.

Another building of great value and historical and architectural significance for its neoclassical style, with traces of Moorish-is the Hotel-Inn, built between 1786 and 1791. Currently the facilities are managed by the National Water Commission and SEDAGRO,[5] despite the humidity and neglect have caused the building has lost some of its rooms.

The Hotel-Inn retains architectural and cultural heritages of particular importance: Paintings of the eighteenth century Inn Main Gate, Main Courtyard Inn, Cistern; Sources; Sundial; Bridge Arroyozarco, Illustrious at Hotel Meson (Guillermo Prieto, Humboldt, Juárez, and Maximilian and Carlota). Around the events in the hacienda Arroyozarco have generated many legends as the legend of La Llorona, among others.

The Cofradía Plantation

There is a chapel income for religious celebrations such as weddings and christenings, gardens also are rented for parties and social gatherings also highlights the big house, the barns, cattle pens, rooms of permanent and temporary workers, and some wineries. These spaces have different functions, in some cases different from the original. For example, the old rooms for casuals, now being remodeled for hosting necessary services to customers who purchase wedding packages. The gardens of The Brotherhood are suitable for large events such as food festivals, arts and cultural festivals, conferences, among others.

[5] SEDAGRO, is The Ministry of Agricultural Development.

Lara Bayón (2009) mentions that the plantation The Cofradía has eight murals by painter Ernesto Icaza, depict scenes of rural life and plantations in Aculco. These murals refer to rural events such as herding cattle and marking, charro developments, festivals and music on the estates, legends of bandits who robbed the *Camino Real*, among other things that the painter reflected in his works.

Its objects are: the wedding carriage Francisco I. Madero and Sara Pérez, daughter of the first owner of the plantation, Don Macario Pérez, in a wall of the chapel of the plantation helmet attached notes, a stone with the inscription "Here celebrating Mass", on which presumably the priest Miguel Hidalgo celebrated Mass on the eve of the Battle of Aculco of November 7, 1810", although this is not yet proven.

The combination of trails, the lake, the farm, the community and the crops, make the roads near the Cofradía, are attractive to those who like to walk. Also you can watch migratory birds of different species, as well as a rural landscape, as the farm is surrounded by Gunyó community, whose principal activities are the production of milk and cheese making.

Dolores Ñadó Plantation

It is a building of white stone quarry with arches on the facade of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. From the farm, there are records of its existence since the late eighteenth century, was an important center for the production of charcoal, grew to railroads to transport their produce to cities such as Querétaro (Solano, 2011).

Religious services, Sunday Masses, baptisms or marriages of residents of the estate were made on the farm (Rendón Garcini, 2009). The Ñadó plantation, did not have a chapel, as in most of the country plantations, but had a space that was used for religious ceremonies, now held in what was once the family gazebo, which retains many of its original architectural features.

The Ñadó plantation, still retains many related areas of the farm food supplies such as bakery or dairy. These facilities have been remodeled, but not given any use. It should be noted that the original stables were built with white or gray quarry, elements that have allowed currently adapt to provide the hosting service.

In Ñado, was built an aqueduct for irrigation between 1912 and 1915, although it could be judged by their appearance before those years. It consists of 27 arches with a clear 3.50 m holding a channel 90 feet wide. Today you can still see much of the construction, because it is still used to bring the vital liquid to communities near the ranch.

Nearby to the plantation there are various natural resources to promote endogenous development, such as:

- Ñado Hill: fit for ascenderse by walking.
- Rio Ñado: Suitable for camping and outdoor activities.

- Waterfall Tixhiñú: basalt has vertical walls about 30 feet high for climbing.
- Natural Mirador from plantation, from where there are valleys, Ñado the rock and the river, among others.
- Around the plantation: there are a number of trails suitable for hiking and knowledge of the flora and fauna.

Rancho Viejo

The main house, built in ashlar *tepetate*, has features that distinguish it from other nearby haciendas, such as swimming and Jasmine. It is a compact building with two twin homes, which stands at the foot of a hill near the south end of the dam Ñado.

Rancho Viejo, keeps the helmet, although there are various natural resources associated with the production unit, the community knows, however, have not yet been exploited in tourism. Such is the case of:

- The Bath: Natural dome where there is a hot spring and place where women were wealthy hacienda to take bath so is known as "bath ranchers."
- State park "Good Bear Forest": A large area of pine and oak forest, between Acambay and Aculco, where there are numerous places to enjoy nature, encompassing also an important tourist hinterland craft (Aculco, municipal and Tixhiñú waterfall) (INE, 2009).

Regarding municipal intangible cultural heritage associated with the properties, including:

The Fight Party Traditional agricultural estates subsequently stays in the community. Is performed at harvest, gather several families and live in a feast called "the battle of mole". This tradition is when the owners of the land, corn fields and ranches to have finished harvesting crops, between the months of October to December about, and obtained a good harvest, then they need to feed mole to all who helped to who helped raise, "the food is given on the harvest ended and has finished result" (Villafuerte Solís, 2002, p. 55).

Milpas Its name derives from the Náhuatl milli, meaning plot planted, and bread, on or in, what is planted above the plot. It is often assumed that the corn is synonymous with corn, and though this cereal is the cornerstone around which farming tour of the fields, it is a production system that includes several species and is of great importance in different times of the year. This type of culture impacts the social organization around its planting and management (De la Peña, 2010).

As you know, agriculture in most parts of the country have high production costs and low yields, so few farmers that keep the activity as a business.

Herds of Cattle The municipality has 36 communities whose main milk production of small herds (Castañeda, Boucher, Sánchez, & Espinoza, 2008). The production is used in the manufacture of cheese and other artisan products, recognized nationally.

The fact of having cattle allows families to increase family income, however, drought, the rising cost of fertilizer and livestock feed, and unfair competition, have meant that the activity is replaced or lost in some communities.

Cheese Production Workshops In Aculco dairy production stands, in fact, it is not uncommon to find ads in other places of the municipality cheese spread. The activity is done by hand in workshops usually installed in family house, in which its members are often involved in processes ranging from milk collection to packaging and product delivery. There are no regulations that allow for quality supervision, so that every family has a knowledge that has been inherited from generation to generation.

Charrería In Aculco charro tradition[6] runs deep. The charro costume for both men and women, is very striking. The costume can be seen mainly in the civic and religious holidays each locality of the municipality (Villafuerte Solís, 2002). Several teams of charros, which participate in competitions organized in the region, state and national level. One of the most representative charras parties municipality is December 25 in the hills of Arroyozarco griddle, where it is still the canvas.

Endogenous Practices for Agrotourism in Aculco

To evaluate and identify opportunities for endogenous development of the four haciendas studied, were analyzed by a number of factors approaches, surveys, interviews and direct observation to the main stakeholders.

As for the inhabitants, the hacienda with more people is the Cofradía, with 1850, followed by Arroyozarco hacienda with 910, then Ñado Dolores, 850 and finally 700 Rancho Viejo residents. The activities that prevail around the estates, highlights in The Cofradía, the smaller-scale agricultural production and small herds. In Arroyozarco, with the highest rate of urbanization, you can still see a few acres of corn, cereals, vegetables and fruit. Also dominate small herds of cattle for milk production and the craftsmanship of traditional cheeses Aculco. Although Dolores Ñado has significant production of maize, the predominant activities are trading in cheese and dairy and quarry carved white, gray and pink. Rancho Viejo, even though the community is located in a protected area, "Bear State Park good", there is a moderate logging, and large land suitability for agricultural use (corn, cereals, vegetables and fruits for consumption). However, this activity is being threatened by the migration of its inhabitants to USA.

Regarding identity and belonging, the inhabitants of the haciendas under study recognize the importance and what they mean their resources by 70 % and 80 %. In Ñado and Arroyozarco 50 % have or had relatives linked to the haciendas knowing

[6] Charreria Mexico is considered the national sport by excelencia. The term derives from charro rider synonymous.

his history, lifestyle, agricultural activities were conducted, administration, wealth, etc. Currently, between 70 % and 90 % and is not related to the properties and activities. However, 80 % of the population considers necessary more intense promotion of the attractions here. Regarding live with the visitor, between 50 % and 55 % said they agreed. When asked about their participation in rural tourism projects (offer horseback riding, hiking and trekking, guides, sale of typical products, etc.) The highest percentage Arroyozarco started off with 64 %.

When interviewing visitors, it was recorded that the type of visitor who comes to town fluctuates between 33 and 53 years travel in family groups from all over the valley of Mexico, DF, Guerrero and Hidalgo. Most people arrive in your own car and usually sleep at least one night, either with family or friends or in a hotel and eat in small shops or market. They felt that the lack of services and quality tourism products and specific families in the region, affecting the growth of tourism. However, they noted that natural resources, and especially cultural, regional attract tourist flows, and to promote endogenous development of communities.

For producers, the total population is 44,823. Of this grand total, the economically active population that is immersed in agriculture is 34.0 %, 20.0 % in industry, 27.0 % in services and the rest in non-specific. Regarding the use of the land, the total area of 46,570 ha, of which 45 % goes to agriculture, the 20.92 % is used in cattle, the 19.48 % to forestry, from which 64 % is forest and rest shrub surface. The remaining acres are urban use and others.

The performance of the public sector in tourism but has established certain guidelines to promote it, promote infrastructure required to serve for proper attention to visitors. Some actions for the promotion of tourism have been supporting hotel capacity involving Header families and communities to provide accommodation and food to tourists, tourism projects and training (hygiene and excellent attention to visitors) and as tourism promotion programs in the municipality.

Regarding the use of the property, its richness and variety, have begun to allocate financial resources to enable some of them, restore them, condition them and promote them to better use in support of endogenous development. In the case of owners of farms, they restore and condition with its own financial resources, materials and real estate knowledge and maintaining and restoring the helmets, with some participation of INAH personnel.

The possibilities of creating synergy between the actors involved and appreciated assets because the four haciendas are complemented by cultural patrimony of the municipality, the municipality will to promote them, as well as participation of the owners of such property for the development of recreational tourism activities.

Some basic proposals to promote a model of development within the municipality of Aculco, based on the agritourism are:

- Reinforcement or empowerment of local people.
- Ownership and use of endogenous resources.
- Complementarity with other sectors and economic activities.
- Design of an appropriate scale of development.
- Networking among stakeholders.

- Inserting or anchoring in the local systems.
- Promoting sustainability multidimensional.

Conclusions

Although Aculco town tourism activity has a primary importance, has been in recent administrations have established specific actions to promote tourism and diversify the range of services that meet the needs of visitors.

Agricultural activities conducted on the haciendas have dwindled, however the tourist activity may underpin and stimulate such activities for endogenous development.

From the tourist activity in the city, there have been many benefits of economic, social, cultural and environmental issues, with a modest addition by the community.

As for tourism services, the municipality has begun to promote local participation arrangements for lodging, food and beverages to meet the needs of visitors, also encouraging the improvement of hotel and restaurant infrastructure, impacting on direct job creation and indirect.

With regard to social benefits, tourism contributes to greater integration between different sectors allowing the exchange of ideas and knowledge, development of new products and services, specializing in craft production, support and participation of tourist companies in social programs, sports and cultural as well as promoting respect for the local culture.

Although the municipality has the appointment of *Pueblo con Encanto del Bicentenario*, work to position the state as a tourist destination only reduce the urban image, so it is necessary to reassess the local cultural manifestations, management sustainable natural resources and tourist use.

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Chapter 11
Building "The Way": Creating a Successful Tourism Brand for Panama and Its Consequences

Carla Guerrón Montero

> *'The Way' is Panama's brand; it has a great number of interpretations, such as the way to success, the way to adventure, the way to vacationing in an unforgettable destination. Many ways, only one destiny . . . Panama The Way*
> (Official Website of the Republic of Panama)

Abstract Panama's new country brand (*The Way*) is tightly connected to its long history as a passageway. It also demonstrates the interest of Panama's government in moving away from the suggestion that Panama's economy, history, and cultures are exclusively connected to the Panama Canal. Given the historic, economic, cultural and political relevance of the Canal for Panama, how is it possible to explain these concerted efforts to move resources and attention *away* from it? This chapter attempts to answer this question. I discuss the success of the concerted efforts among the Panamanian government and tourism mediators to transform Panama from a perceived dangerous and somewhat obscure tourism location to a welcoming and attractive temporary and permanent multicultural destination. Conversely, I address the minimal success and improvement that these efforts have represented in the lives of ethnic populations engaged in the tourism industry, paying special attention to Afro-Antillean populations.

Keywords Tourism • Panama • Afro-Antilleans • Multiculturalism

In many ways, Panama's new country brand (*marca país*) is tightly connected to its long history as a passageway (Map 11.1). Panama's history has been distinguished by travel, movements, and migrations resulting from its strategic geopolitical location on the isthmus that connects North and South America. The brand

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Map 11.1 Panama. *Source*: The World Factbook (https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/pm.html)

"Panama The Way" refers to the country's condition as a place of transit and as the location of the renowned Panama Canal, but it also attempts to go beyond it as the main source of income and tourism attraction, to indicate that Panama has many more opportunities to offer. Like its previous brand ("Panama, More than a Canal"), it demonstrates the interest of Panama's government in highlighting a particular view of Panama and moving away from the suggestion that Panama's economy, history, and cultures are exclusively connected to the Canal. These slogans represent a noteworthy turn in the politics of the nation and have been recognized as successful in the Latin American context (Future Brand, 2013, p. 39).

Yet one cannot understand Panama's current situation without understanding the role the Panama Canal has played in the construction of this young-nation state. In great measure, Panama's incontestable cultural diversity results from the presence of the Canal in its territory, which "facilitated a mixed ethnic population that included African slaves, English buccaneers, Scottish colonists, Indian and Jewish shopkeepers, Chinese railroad workers, and West Indian canal laborers" (Velazquez Runk, 2012, pp. 21–22). In a population of 3,516,820 inhabitants (Censos Nacionales, 2010), there are eight indigenous groups and at least two distinct Afro-Panamanian groups. There are also Asian Panamanians, rural and urban mestizo groups, and increasingly large numbers of resident expatriates.

Panamanian scholars have stressed the relevance of the country's struggle, beginning when it was constituted as a republic, to assert its sovereignty over the Canal Zone (Gandásegui, 1993; Sánchez, 2002). Panama has grappled to maintain its identity as an independent Latin American nation with Spanish ancestry not only because of its condition as a Colombian territory for 81 years and its dependence upon the United States from the time it gained independence from Colombia in 1903, but also as a result of internal ethnic, racial, and political confrontations.

Given the historic, economic, cultural and political relevance of the Canal for Panama, how is it possible to explain these concerted efforts to move resources and attention *away* from it? This chapter attempts to answer this question. I present a case study of the transformation of a country from a perceived dangerous and somewhat obscure tourism location to what the New York Times called in 2012 the "best destination to visit" (New York Times, January 6, 2012) and what has been named the first out of "eight best places to retire in the world" (Money Retirement, 2014). I discuss the success of these concerted efforts among the Panamanian government and national and international tourism mediators to produce a welcoming and attractive temporary and permanent destination. Conversely, I address the minimal success and improvement that these efforts have represented in the lives of ethnic populations engaged in the tourism industry. I juxtapose the governmental triumph in selling Panama as a brand able to attract a constant influx of tourists and capital with the limited benefits from tourism received by Panama's ethnic minorities, in many cases the sources of the tourism attraction themselves. In line with studies on tourism conducted among the Kuna (Howe, 2009; Martinez Mauri, 2012; Pérez, Xerardo, Mauri, Ventocilla, & del Valle, 2010), and Emberá (Theodossopoulos, 2013), my research centers on an ethnic minority that has received only nominal governmental and scholarly attention, Afro-Antilleans. The ethnographic data and analysis presented in this chapter are based on fieldwork conducted between 1996 and 2007 in the Archipelago of Bocas del Toro, as well as on archival research in Panama and the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture (2009, New York, United States).

Panama: A Nascent Destination

Panama did not begin its quest to become a world tourism destination until the mid-to-late 1990s (Guerrón Montero, 2006a). In fact, at the level of national institutions, tourism organizations have developed recently. The National Commission of Tourism (*Comisión Nacional de Turismo*) was formed in 1934; in 1960 it became the Panamanian Bureau of Tourism (*Instituto Panameño de Turismo*) and in 2008 the Panamanian Tourism Authority (*Autoridad de Turismo de Panamá*, ATP), an entity with ministerial status. Prior to the December 1989 US invasion that deposed de facto dictator General Manuel Noriega, for the most part three places were consistently marketed for tourism: the Panama Canal, the Duty Free Zone in the city of Colón, and the Comarca Gunayala in the Archipelago of San Blas. More specifically, there were only eight types of tours generally sold to foreign and national tourists until 1993: the Panama Canal and cruises through the Canal, wildlife tours to Barro Colorado, Chagres (near Panama City), Boquete, and Darién; beach tours to islands, mainly Taboga, Contadora, and San Blas; tours to the highland towns of the Antón Valley, Boquete, and Cerro Punta; deep-sea fishing tours to Bahía Piña and Contadora; sports diving tours to Portobelo; conventions in Panama City; and shopping tours in Panama City and Colón. With the onset of democracy and the

departure of US troops from the Panama Canal in 1999, the governments of Guillermo Endara (1989–1994) and Ernesto Pérez Balladares (1994–1999) concentrated on tourism as the most viable alternative for economic development.

In 1993, President Pérez Balladares signed a $685 million technical agreement with the Department of Regional Development and Environment of the Organization of American States (OAS) to formulate a Tourism Development Master Plan (TDMP), commonly called Master Plan, that would divide the country into nine tourism zones (later revised to ten zones), provide the framework for the industry's future growth (Anicetti, 1998, p. 70), and be fully implemented by 2002. The goal of the Master Plan was to support domestic tourism and increase international tourism "in order to boost regional development and employment creation" (International Technical Cooperation Agreement, 1993, pp. 33–36). That same year, Pérez Balladares instituted Law No. 8 to promote tourism activities and establish special tax incentives for investors (Anicetti, 1998, p. 72). The objective of these agreements and legal measures was "to make Panama a 'brand name' in the tourist market, and [for] each of its nine zones [to] be a 'model' to make this brand competitive" (International Technical Cooperation Agreement, 1993, p. 33). Due to Panama's ecological wealth and significant ethnic and multicultural diversity, the focus was placed on two types of tourism: high-end heritage tourism and ecotourism (Pérez Balladares, 1998, p. 4). Another important objective was to mark a clear distinction between the tourism offerings of Costa Rica, Panama's neighbor and long-established ecotourism mecca, and those available in Panama. The governments of Mireya Moscoso (1999–2004), Martin Torrijos (2004–2009), and Ricardo Martinelli (2009–present) have continued these tourism policies, with the significant addition of residential tourism (Instituto Panameño de Turismo, 2008; Klytchnikova & Dorosh, 2009; McWatters 2009). Under Torrijos' administration, the ATP was run by the famous salsa musician and Latin American icon, Ruben Blades (2004–2009).

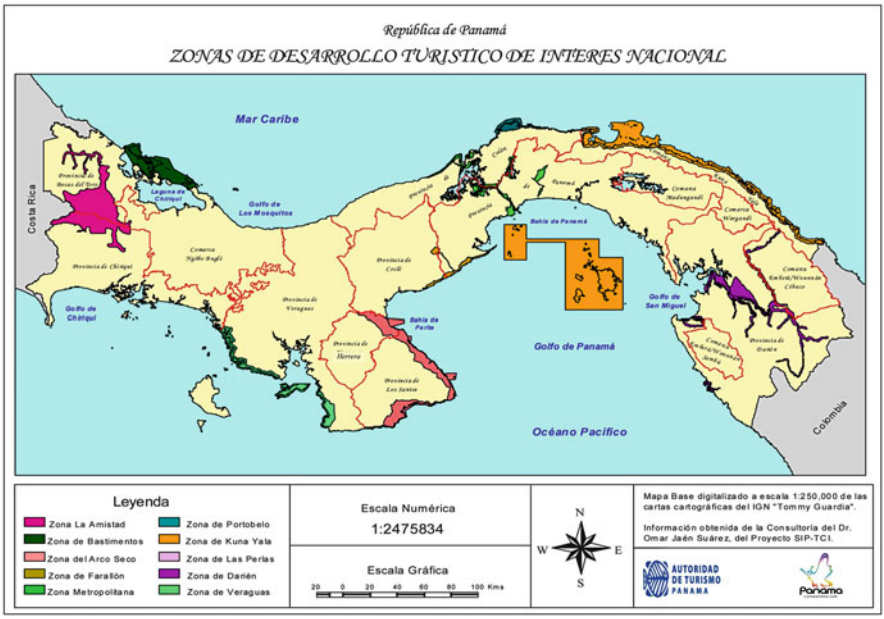
As noted above, the original Master Plan divided the country into nine tourism zones. Table 11.1 shows these zones with the number of attractions identified by the plan in them. Zone No. 10 (added years later) is the province of Veraguas (Map 11.2).

The Master Plan highlights several tourism trends in Panama up to the time of its elaboration. For instance, the Plan states that only about 20 % of visitors to the country were "genuine tourists," meaning tourists that fit the definition established by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) of "any foreigner or local traveling within a country during his leisure time, for periods of more than 24 hours with at least one overnight stay"). The remaining 80 % were people on business or commercial shopping trips, or who came to visit relatives and who were not considered tourists for the purpose of the Plan. Neither the "genuine tourists" nor the visitors left the metropolitan area during their visits. The main tourism market of Panama until 1993 included the Latin American region (Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Nicaragua, and Venezuela), mostly because of proximity, costs, and common language, and it produced 71.9 % of the demand. "Although the regional tourist market net expenditures are not high, they are much

Table 11.1 Panama's tourism zones and attractions

Zone no.	Zone name	No. attractions	Percentage
Zone 1	La Amistad	61	4.40
Zone 2	Bastimentos	78	5.60
Zone 3	Arco Seco	127	9.10
Zone 4	Farallón	20	1.40
Zone 5	Metropolitana	126	9.00
Zone 6	Portobelo	80	5.70
Zone 7	San Blas	290	20.7
Zone 8	Las Perlas	136	9.70
Zone 9	Darién	72	5.20
No zone	Outside tourism zones	408	29.20
	Total	1,398	100

Source: Tourism Development Master Plan for Panama 1993–2002 (1993, p. 4)



Map 11.2 Tourism development zones. *Source*: Autoridad de Turismo de Panama, (2012)

depended upon by the local medium- and low-priced hotels." The second market identified was the United States, with 15.5 % of the demand. This market included business tourists and special interest tourists (sports fishermen, bird watchers). Finally, the European market provided 7.3 % of the total of international arrivals to the country. The Plan pointed out that promotion in Europe was frail: "When compared to their flow into neighboring Costa Rica, the number of European visitors coming to Panama is very low" (International Technical Cooperation Agreement, 1993, pp. 23–24, 29–30).

In the initial stages of tourism development and despite the efforts of the ATP to strengthen the image of Panama in the world tourism market, the outcome was not successful (International Technical Cooperation Agreement, 1993, p. 30). This situation shifted rapidly in the mid-1990s, and by 1998, with an investment in infrastructure of US$200 million, tourism was the third-highest contributor to the gross domestic product of Panama (Guillén, 2000, p. 2A). In 1998, tourism accounted for 4–5 % of the GDP, about the same as exports of bananas, shrimp, sugar and coffee, and it employed 30,000 people directly or indirectly. In 2003, tourism generated more earnings (US$805 million) than the Panama Canal (US $690.3 million) and the Canal Zone (US$487.7 million) (Instituto Panameño de Turismo, 2003, pp. 1, 9), the two main contributors to the country' s GDP in previous decades. By 2006, tourism accounted for 20 % of the goods and services sector and annual expenditures by foreign tourists reached US$960 million, or 6 % of the country's GDP (Klytchnikova & Dorosh, 2009). According to the ATP, tourism today is the first industry of Panama, followed by the Panama Canal and the Duty Free Zone in Colon, and it represented 76 % of internal income between 2001 and 2010. In the same period, the number of tourists had increased 9.8 % (1,716,362) (ATP, 2012).

Clearly, the situation has changed dramatically since the completion of the Master Plan. Tourists who travel to Panama visit all ten tourism zones demarcated by the government. Panama continues to attract both the "genuine" tourist and the visitor identified in the Tourism Plan in 1993: business tourists, tourists searching for shopping opportunities, recreational tourists, and tourists interested in Panama City and its surroundings exclusively. In addition, Panama has developed a fruitful ecotourism market that attracts international tourists looking to explore its rain forest (whether through luxurious accommodations or in the most adventurous conditions) or participate in bird watching and sea sports expeditions. Educational and historical tours take visitors not only through the Panama Canal but also Portobelo, Colon, the famous *Camino de Cruces* and *Camino Real de Panamá* (Strassnig, 2010), or the recently renovated and mostly gentrified historical center or "Casco Antiguo" in Panama City (Espino, 2008). Those tourists looking for ethnic tourism can visit Gunayala in the Archipelago of San Blas, the Ngöbe indigenous peoples in the Archipelago of Bocas del Toro, or Emberá and Wounaan territory in the Darien region. The tourists interested in escaping the tropical heat visit the province of Chiriquí where they are offered fascinating encounters with Panama's "traditional" peasant culture. And for the tourist who is short in time or not interested in doing all the traveling, Panama City offers the theme park Mis Pueblitos, which contains a sample of Panama's cultural diversity in the constructed small towns that represent the "three roots" (indigenous, Spanish, and African) that have formed the nation (Guerrón Montero, 2009). For those in need of medical attention, Panama now offers "medical vacations," promising bilingual and board-certified doctors "accustomed to working with the same technology and standards used in the United States and Europe" at a fraction of the cost of medical care in those regions (Panama Medical Vacations). Agrotourism has also developed as a nascent niche in the country (Inter-American Institute for Cooperation in

Agriculture, 2010). Additionally, since 2007 the Panamanian government has emphasized its potential magnetism to multinational corporations through fiscal, labor, and migratory incentives (Future Brand, 2013, p. 39).

This is merely a sample of the options offered to tourists in Panama today. In addition to the previously mentioned 10 tourism zones recognized in 1993, the revised Master Tourism Plan for 2007–2020 identifies 20 tourism attractions for future development (General Evaluation of Panama’s Tourism, 2008, p. 194). As a brochure promoting tourism investment in the country reads, “Panama is a tourist’s delight. It is old. It is new. It is mountains. It is beaches. It is lush tropical forests. It is sophisticated, cosmopolitan cities. It is excitement. It is serenity and solitude. In whatever manner one wishes to spend a day, a week, or an extended vacation—Panama has it all!” (Panama Tourism Facilities Investment Guide n.d., p. 3).

Judging by the aforementioned statistics and current and potential offerings, the Panamanian government and the tourism industry at large have been effective in transforming Panama into a desired tourism destination. Following, I present a discussion of one tourism zone where tourism has developed rapidly—at times uncontrollably—and its consequences for the ethnic populations inhabiting this zone.

Branding the Archipelago of Bocas del Toro

The Archipelago of Bocas del Toro is located in the northwestern corner of Panama and is part of the province of Bocas del Toro. The Archipelago has approximately 18,000 inhabitants distributed across nine inhabited islands. It represents a microcosm of the multicultural elements found in Panama, including Afro-Antilleans, Chinese, indigenous groups (particularly Ngöbe and some Kuna), Panamanian Latinos (the term used in Panama to refer to mestizos), and resident expatriates, mostly from Europe and North America. Afro-Antilleans represent the largest and dominant population in the Archipelago.

Afro-Antilleans are descendants of enslaved peoples brought by the English, Scottish and Irish settlers who, starting in the 1820s, left the Antilles (particularly Jamaica and Barbados) in search of better economic opportunities. After the abolition of slavery in Panama in 1852, Afro-Antilleans became a society of independent peasants in small villages on the islands and along the coast. There were subsequent voluntary migrations of Afro-Antilleans to plantations located in the Archipelago. Their economic system, prevalent throughout the nineteenth century, was based on subsistence agriculture and turtle fishing (Heckadon Moreno, 1980, p. 12). Most Afro-Antilleans in the Archipelago speak Creole English in addition to Spanish.

The United Fruit Company (UFC) arrived in the Archipelago in 1890. Before its arrival, there were small, privately owned banana plantations. The largest plantations were 60 ha, and the smallest were only 5 ha. Workers were mostly Afro-Antilleans, and the plantations normally belonged to families whose ancestors had

arrived from Jamaica, San Andrés, and Providencia (Smith Lance, 1990, p. 87). UFC's settlement in the Archipelago generated an economic boom, and Bocas del Toro developed into a prosperous city with international presence and promising growth. Things changed dramatically in the 1910s, when the UFC moved the majority of its operations from the island of Bocas del Toro to Almirante. As a result, Bocas del Toro was no longer the center of the province's commercial activities and had to share its prosperity with the city of Almirante, "situated on the mainland and furnished with all the necessary facilities to make life comfortable" (Carles, 1952, p. 140). From then until the beginning of the 1990s, life in the Archipelago was characterized by a stagnant economy, organized around limited production of the United Fruit Company, small-scale agriculture and fishing, as well as service-oriented jobs (bureaucratic, medical, and educational). Bocas del Toro became known as a "punishment zone" for unruly bureaucrats or government workers. However, the development of a strong tourism industry in the mid 1990s produced important changes in the configuration of the Archipelago (Guerrón Montero, 2006a, 2006b, 2006c).

In spite of the dormant economy of Bocas del Toro prior to tourism, Afro-Antilleans in the Archipelago had the upper hand over indigenous and mestizo groups. Because of previous working experiences, Afro-Antilleans were considered by those responsible for the operations of small and large banana companies in the region as hard and responsible workers—although racism and stereotyping against Afro-Antilleans was by no means absent (Connif, 1995). In addition, their command of the English language greatly facilitated communication between North American chiefs and workers (Andrews, 1997, p. 16). This dual competence (which varied from individual to individual and differed markedly between urban Afro-Antilleans and those living as peasants) guaranteed a space and a degree of power for the Afro-Antillean populations. The outbreaks of the Panama Disease (a fungal disease of the roots of banana plants) in the banana plantations and the Great Depression that fostered the stagnation of Bocas del Toro, also benefited some Afro-Antilleans. When the UFC finally closed its doors, some of the Afro-Antilleans who had either worked there or grown bananas for it, had the opportunity to buy land and become a rural middle-class, in contrast to the situation of peoples of African descent throughout Central America (Andrews, 1997).

Nonetheless, it is essential to recognize that Afro-Antilleans in the Archipelago endured geographical and social isolation for most of their history. The province of Bocas del Toro, mostly composed of Afro-Antilleans and indigenous peoples, has been "the victim of indifference and oblivion from governments of the Panamanian Isthmus since colonial times" (Quintero in Smith Lance, 1990, p. 90). According to Jaén Suárez,

> Bocas del Toro was a marginal region during most of its history. Occupied by indigenous populations, apparently numerous during the sixteenth century, since the seventeenth century it was the victim of violence and rivalries of war-hungry *cacicazgos*, and of invading "Mosquitos," coming from the Central American coast, slave hunters, all of which finally destroyed the territory almost entirely, particularly its coastal and insular

> zones whose first more permanent inhabitants, lived withdrawn in the high areas, in the heart of the mountains (1998, p. 161).

Jaén Suárez views the province of Bocas del Toro mostly as an insignificant region with short periods of prosperity and activity (mostly tied to banana production) without a real regional center, with a political center in Bocas Town and two economic centers in Almirante and Changuinola. He also notes that the economic and demographic autonomy of the Archipelago of Bocas del Toro stems from its marginality with respect to the rest of the country (Jaén Suárez, 1998, p. 162). In fact, Bocas was long neglected by successive Panamanian governments, and—most importantly—it was portrayed as a dangerous, unappealing and unwelcoming place due to its geographic isolation and primarily Afro-Antillean and indigenous populations.

Things changed in the mid-1990s when tourism became an important economic and cultural force in the region. The Tourism Plan recognized the Archipelago as Zone No. 2, with 78 different touristic attractions (International Technical Cooperation Agreement, 1993, p. 40). Currently, tourism has become a permanent fixture in the region. The Archipelago of Bocas del Toro is one of the most visited tourism areas in the country by national and international tourists. Since 1995, it has been the setting for a considerable number of nature documentaries, reports, and articles in the national and international media. Tourism facilities (including hotels, hostels, boarding houses, restaurants, travel agencies, tour operators, transportation services and renting services) have grown exponentially. Most of these facilities are low-and-medium-priced hotels and restaurants, frequently owned by foreigners.

The ATP markets the islands as the finest example of ecotourism. In Bocas del Toro, ecotourism is understood as touristic activities centered on exploring the flora and fauna of the islands. National parks and reserves, pristine beaches, water sports, rare flora and fauna are highlighted as major attractions of the islands. In ecological terms, scientists agree that Bocas del Toro is one of the most important regions of Panama. Its flora and fauna have been of special scientific interest for decades, and research has been conducted for a long period of time, especially through the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute (STRI), which has had a presence in Bocas since 1962.

One of the reasons for the attractiveness of the Archipelago is that its flora and fauna are unusually and highly evolved (Camarena Medina, 1991, p. 4b). Biodiversity is high, with 68 % of the territory of the province of Bocas del Toro covered with natural vegetation. Of the 8,744 species of plants reported in Panama, 1,738 (20 %) can be found in the province of Bocas del Toro. In 1993, the Master Plan identified 78 natural attractions in Bocas. A reevaluation in 1998 reduced this number to 72 attractions, finding that some of the previous attractions were no longer interesting because of inaccessibility or because of environmental degradation (OEA, 1998, p. 25). It should also be noted that, in spite of the relative good health of Bocas' coral reefs, large extensions have been devastated by residue materials from the operations of banana companies and by more recent demographic pressure. In spite of these troubles, according to STRI researcher Charles

Handley, Bocas del Toro is "the Galápagos of the Twenty-First Century" (Heckadon Moreno, 1993, p. 5).

Although less prominently, traditional Caribbean architecture, a Caribbean "flair" and "carefree lifestyle" (represented by Afro-Antillean culture) are also advertised. As the governor of Bocas in 2000 noted,

> This is an island, with all its advantages and disadvantages, and its beauty, but it's an island. You know that this island has a special charm, its beaches, its sea, its environment, its climate, always refreshing in the afternoons. And the people, the islanders have a way of being that is characteristic—always smiling, always happy, very interested in music, very interested in being happy, because that is a characteristic of the Caribbean (Interview L. N., October 22, 2000).

Ethnic tourism is also an attraction offered to tourists, although less commonly. It includes visits to the largest indigenous group in the country, the Ngöbe, who inhabit some of the islands in the Archipelago (Bastimentos, San Cristobal, Isla Popa, Shark Hole, and Solarte, among others). Some Ngöbe communities have received assistance from the Peace Corps to develop interpretive paths in their communities. In addition, the Teribe indigenous peoples inhabit the margins of the Teribe River in the mainland (province of Bocas del Toro) and offer handicrafts and dance performances to occasional tourists. Additionally, volunteer and educational tourism have developed considerably; university students and researchers have opportunities to study the flora and fauna (and less often the cultures) of the Archipelago or engage in surf tourism while earning college credits through several educational institutes and NGOs, including the renowned STRI. More recently, residential tourism has become the niche of choice, as part of a larger national trend reaching urban and rural areas of the country (Rudolf, 2013).

Bocas del Toro is depicted by tourism mediators as a timeless and unchanged area, where people have been engaging in the same activities for centuries, and where tourists' presence has not provoked dramatic changes to this "off-the-beaten track" place. Another common advertisement strategy (less prevalent nowadays) has been to sell Bocas del Toro as the ultimate tropical and sunny location. For instance, one travel agency sells tourism packages called "Always Summer" (*Paquete Turístico Siempre Verano*). In fact, Bocas del Toro is a humid tropical region with a large rain forest (with an abundance of large trees and forests with lianas, mangroves and coconut trees) and an annual precipitation of 2,000–7,000 mm, resulting from the influence of the Caribbean Sea (Gabarrete, 1995, p. 13a). Because Bocas is sold as a tropical paradise, many tourists arrive unaware of the possibility of spending their entire vacation in rain, although current travel guides and internet blogs warn tourists of this possibility. For Anibal Reid, an Afro-Antillean working in the tourism industry, the role of the ATP is to provide accurate information about what Bocas del Toro offers to the tourists:

> I would like that there be quality tourism here without it being elitist—decent people, people that come to enjoy the environment. I want us to maintain the tropical humid forest we have. We are not a desert island, and we are not the Mediterranean. We don't have sun 24 h a day. We are a humid tropical region, and that is what we have, and there are people who like that (interview A. R., April 12, 2000).

Meanwhile, tourism is perceived by the national authorities as a way to tame this presumed "backward" Archipelago composed of people with "backward" pasts, indigenous and black populations. As Wilson (2008) states, "tourism impacts can be felt at national, regional, and local levels and by different communities within any given locality. Different classes will be affected differently, with the national and local elites gaining more than others" (2008, p. 4). As I have noted in previous works, for most Afro-Antilleans the development of the tourism industry in Panama provided an unexpected windfall of political and cultural capital. Bocas del Toro is no longer an off-the-beaten- track destination, although in some instances it continues to be advertised as such. Many Bocatoreneans prefer the Archipelago not to be considered such a destination because this suggests lack of services and resources and relative obscurity. For Bocatoreneans, tourism promises liberation from such a condition through modernization, advancement, and cosmopolitanism. Tourism offers the long anticipated opportunity to access neglected resources, and to create and recreate concealed gendered, ethnic, and racial identities represented in certain cultural traits, most noticeably in the areas of music and cuisine, which are markedly Caribbean. Just as the nation of Panama has struggled with constructing a suitable narrative for its origins, Afro-Antilleans—in Bocas del Toro since the1820s and Panama City since the 1850s—have labored to assert a distinctively Pan-Caribbean cultural identity and at the same time demonstrate their loyalty to Panama as their new land. The tourism industry has offered Afro-Antilleans a limited opportunity to do so, by entering the mainstream of Panamanian society on the basis of their unique heritage, a heritage that is both commoditized *and* reinvented for touristic purposes. Afro-Antilleans have benefitted to a degree from tourism, both in terms of economic and cultural capital expressed in jobs and infrastructural improvements, as well as greater awareness of the world and pride of cultural heritage. Nonetheless, the tourism industry has also brought land speculation, social and economic polarization not present prior to tourism development, drug trafficking, corruption, and a series of legal misdeeds, in addition to conflicts resulting from the expansion of foreign residents (Spalding, 2011).

Conclusions

Panama has been successful in transforming its once unappealing and presumably dangerous country, mostly outside the international tourism radar, into a destination of great international and national attraction (Guerrón Montero, 2014). This marketing transformation has been accompanied by important international and national investment in infrastructure and personnel training.

However, I stress the importance of recognizing that the benefits of tourism development have not reached most Panamanians. The World Bank identifies Panama as one of the fastest growing economies in the Western Hemisphere, with economic growth rates between 5 and 10 % in 2012 (World Bank, 2012). Yet between 33 and 45 % of Panama's population lives below the poverty level, and

27 % lives in extreme poverty (UN Data). According to the United Nations, while Panama has one of the highest per capita income levels in the developing world, their wealth distribution is the second worst in the hemisphere, next to Brazil (UN Data).

Unlike Central American countries like Nicaragua, where tourism narratives represent the nation as homogenous and consequently dispense with its indigenous and black minorities (Babb, 2011), Panamanian tourism has opened up the door for the recognition and development of a nominal multicultural state (since multiculturalism is not recognized in the Panamanian Constitution), albeit one where neoliberalism reigns. The profit-seeking international tourism industry has contributed to a discursive acceptance of Panama's ethnic complexity, producing "inoffensive" multiculturalism and reducing ethnic cultures to performance within delimited contexts. The main objective of all democratic administrations since 1990 has been to highlight Panama's many tourism alternatives *other* than the Canal by specifically promoting tourism as a viable economic industry (eco- and ethnotourism in particular) mainly based on the country's rich multiculturalism and by recasting certain ethnic groups and the regions they inhabit as safe and tourism-friendly. In addition, Panama diversifies its offerings by adding heritage tourism to the picture, while also highlighting that, like Costa Rica, Panama is ecologically diverse and a peaceful country without a military system. These marketing strategies are highlighted in advertisements produced by the Panamanian government and national and international tourism mediators.

One consequence of this new existent *and* produced multiculturalism is a degree of leverage for indigenous groups, Afro-Antilleans, and other ethnic minorities. In the case of Afro-Antilleans, this leverage is also the result of years of search for social justice sought by the Afro-Panamanian movement (Meneses Araúz, 2010). It remains to be seen how those interactions will continue to be played out and how these groups will develop and appropriate their own ethnic representations. Will they develop within the confines of social control regimented by the tourism industry and the state, or will they explode beyond it and demand to develop tourism in their own terms?

Since the early 1990s, the Panamanian government along with tourism mediators have succeeded in creating a recognizable tourism brand for the country, in developing destinations and desirable products, in bringing considerable revenues and attracting international investments through generous incentives. Panamanian elites have promoted images of nationhood that valorize diversity, thus apparently undermining the ethnic stratification of an earlier time. Nevertheless, these images remain bounded within the tourism realm. In Panama as elsewhere, racial and ethnic stratification go hand in hand with economic stratification, and there are few tangible improvements in the lives of Afro-Antilleans, indigenous peoples, and members of the lower socio-economic classes resulting from tourism development.

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Case Studies of Success in Panama

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Chapter 12
Success in Progress? Tourism as a Tool for Inclusive Development in Peru's Colca Valley

María-Luisa Rendón and Simon Bidwell

Abstract In contemporary Peru, high expectations have been set for tourism as an economic activity that can contribute to inclusive development by offering an alternative to extractive industries and providing new opportunities to historically marginalized populations, particularly in the rural sierra. We provide a historical overview of criteria for "success" in tourism and note that those criteria associated with coordinated planning and the effective incorporation of local populations in the tourism value chain are currently considered most important by governmental and other actors in Peru. The case study takes place in the Colca Valley in southern Peru, a mainstream and increasingly popular destination. We do not claim this case to be an unmitigated "success" but describe the benefits obtained from tourism by local populations in the districts of Cabanaconde, Tapay and Sibayo, while also noting their respective failures or shortfalls. We suggest that for the positive aspects to be disseminated more widely, and problems to be addressed, there needs to be effective spaces for participation, dialogue and decision-making by different actors. At present there are a number of impediments to this, which ultimately relate to deep-seated problems in the Peruvian society and economy. Thus, there is no straightforward pathway to "successful" tourism in Peru; rather, by opening spaces amenable to social and economic participation by local populations, tourism can be one part of a process of change towards more inclusive and sustainable development.

Keywords Inclusive development • Entrepreneurship • Partnership • Community-based tourism • Peru

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Introduction

In the past decade, Peru has seen rapid economic growth, driven in large part by soaring international prices for mineral exports and the public and private private investment this has stimulated within a permissive, "business-friendly" political framework. However, this growth has not trickled down to significant sections of the population, particularly in the rural interior of the country, and in fact economic, social and geographical breaches have widened, helping foment an increasing number of social conflicts (Bidwell, 2011; Toche, 2011). While they differ on questions of strategy and discourse, most Peruvian political parties and social movements recognize the urgent need for more inclusive development. In this context, tourism has been frequently portrayed as a means of diversifying economic growth, generating employment, and providing additional income sources for people in marginalized rural areas while also supporting environmental and cultural sustainability.

Tourism's potential contribution to inclusive development is therefore among the most important criteria for "success" in the Peruvian context, and it is in this light that we have selected the case study of the Colca Valley in southern Peru. Importantly, we do not claim this to be an example of unmitigated success but acknowledge the many limitations and problems with the way tourism has evolved in Colca Valley. However, we argue that individual cases where local populations have responded to the advent of tourism in creative ways provide examples of the alternative spaces for development that can be opened up by tourism.

Other case studies within Peru have been held up as examples of successful tourism. Examples include the partnership between Rainforest Expeditions and the community of Infierno in the southern Amazon (Gordillo Jordan, Hunt, & Stronza, 2008; Stronza, 2000); and the islands of Taquile and Amantani in Lake Titicaca (Cheong, 2008; Gascón, 2005; Zorn & Farthing, 2007), which are much-cited examples of community-led and managed tourism initiatives. More recent research has discussed the mixed results of tourism initiatives related to the development of archeological sites in the northern regions of La Libertad and Lambayeque, which highlight a more important role for regional and local governments (Ranaboldo & Schetjman, 2009; Rendón, 2006). These studies provide important analyses of the dynamics of tourism development, including collaboration, conflict and the variable involvement of local governments. In choosing the present case study of the Colca Valley, we have been guided by two considerations: first, if tourism is to contribute to the objective of inclusive development, as claimed in discourses of governments and development agencies, it must be able to do so in populated areas and along mainstream routes. Second, any study of tourism development should acknowledge the diverse perspectives and motives of different actors, and recognize that the conflicts and problems that arise from this diversity may be as interesting and instructive as the partial successes.

In the first part of this paper, we provide a brief overview of different perspectives on what counts as "success" in tourism, tracing the recent movement from a

focus on environmental sustainability to the reincorporation of economic criteria, especially in writings on "pro-poor" tourism. In the second section, we describe the Peruvian context, showing how significant hopes have come to be vested in tourism as an economic sector that might help promote broader and more inclusive development. In the next three sections, we describe the evolution of tourism in the Colca Valley, with specific case studies of the districts of Cabanaconde, Tapay and Sibayo. We describe the successes in each district and their corresponding problems. We then mention the existence of spaces for dialogue and mutual learning in the Colca Valley and suggest that these might provide ways towards the more (in all its contested senses) "successful" development of tourism.

Theoretical Perspectives on Elements of Success in Tourism

There is an extensive literature debating what counts as "successful" tourism, with a particular attention in recent years to the links between tourism, sustainable development and poverty reduction and claims that tourism can be a "tool for the elimination of poverty" (OMT, 2004). Government and institutional actors have presented tourism as a "positive form of development owing to its capacity for increased GDP, foreign investment, employment creation and poverty reduction"(Baud, Ypeij y Zoomers in Ypeij & Zoomers, 2006, p. 12), while others have suggested that it provides opportunities for "learning, leadership, empowerment and democracy" (Mair & Reid, 2007).

A historical overview of perspectives on success in tourism shows several shifts in emphasis. Tourism has long been recognized as a source of foreign exchange and an impulse for economic growth with notable multiplier effects through its links with other sectors. Tourism is by some measures the world's largest industry. It accounts for 10 % of global employment (Stronza, 2008) and sees the movement of 980 million international travelers per annum (OMT, 2012). On the other hand, tourism can also generate new inequalities, imbalances and conflicts (Gascón, 2005). Some have argued that in certain circumstances tourism merely reproduces a foreign-dominated "enclave" economy that has been associated with underdevelopment and inequality in Latin America in particular (Mowforth, Charlton, & Munt, 2009; Scheyvens, 2002; Schilcher, 2007). Tourism can also damage or lead to the deterioration of the natural and cultural resources on which it depends. In fact, such was the concern about the negative impacts of tourism that the World Bank and the Interamerican Development Bank ceased funding for tourism-related development projects in the 1970s (Honey, 2008).

During the 1980s and 1990s there was an increasing emphasis on sustainability in tourism, associated with the 1987 United Nations Bruntland report on sustainable development. Definitions of sustainability include reference to both human and ecological elements: as suggested by Elizalde (2004), sustainability implies rejecting the capitalist logic of accumulation, and recognizing diversity while rejecting the "fallacy of separateness": human beings do not exist in isolation but

in connection with other beings and the environment. While sustainable tourism proposed to develop economically viable operations that did not destroy the resources on which they were based, ecotourism set the more radical goal of actively conserving the environment and improving local people's welfare (Honey, 2008; Udhammar, 2006). By the end of the 1990s there was a burgeoning literature on sustainable tourism and ecotourism and interest from NGOs, multilateral institutions and development donors, to such an extent that the United Nations declared 2002 the International Year of Ecotourism.[1] However, there has been significant controversy over whether so-called "alternative" forms of tourism have lived up to their claims. In particular, some authors argue that sustainable tourism and ecotourism have either been no different from conventional "mass" tourism or have been driven by a "parks not people" philosophy that has excluded local populations and failed to deliver development benefits (Barkin, 2002; Belsky, 1999; Carrier & MacLeod, 2005; Duffy, 2002; Stonich, 1998; Udhammar, 2006).

In part owing to these criticisms, the past 10–15 years have seen a theoretical reorientation, with more specific emphasis placed on the ability of local populations to participate in or control tourism and to obtain economic benefits while reducing inequalities. This reorientation is based on arguments that tourism is more labour-intensive than most other sectors, more conducive to small or family businesses, has low barriers to entry to the market, offer more job opportunities to women, and brings international markets to marginalized rural areas (Ashley, Goodwin, & Roe, 2001; Ashley & Mitchell, 2008; WTO, 2002). Community-based tourism, (generally referred to in Latin America as rural community tourism) is conceived of as an activity compatible with the existing occupations of rural communities (such as agriculture, herding and craftwork) which emphasizes the tourist experience of "living with" local populations and sharing in their daily activities (Coriolano & Perdigão, 2005; MINCETUR, 2011; Zapata, Hall, Lindo, & Vanderschaeghen, 2011). Its popularity is driven in part by a handful of well-known and "successful" initiatives, including several in Latin America (Borman, 2008; Duffy, 2002; Stronza, 2008; Zorn & Farthing, 2007), in which local populations have not only taken advantage of tourism's opportunities but have also used negotiated their own defintions of tourism to defend their access to resources against extractive industries, expropriation and dispossession (Cordero, 2006; Duffy, 2002; Prieto, 2011; Wearing & Macdonald, 2002; Ypeij & Zoomers, 2006).

In the past two decades there has been a proliferation of community-based tourism (CBT) projects across the developing world, often initiated by NGOs and development agencies in an effort to reduce poverty or promote ecological conservation. In Latin America, there have been a range of efforts to share existing experiences and systematize the implementation of new initiatives (ILO, 2001; Maldonado, 2002, 2003, 2006). Proponents of CBT tend to prescribe specific models of tourism, emphasizing broad local participation and management by the

[1] Within academia, the Journal of Sustainable Tourism published its first issue in 1992 and the Journal of Ecotourism in 2002.

community alone or in partnership with an outside intermediary such as an NGO, development agency or "responsible" private tour operator (Hockert, 2009; Mowforth, Charlton, & Munt, 2009; Zapata, Hall, Lindo, & Vanderschaeghen, 2011). Benefits claimed for CBT are not just economic and ecological but also increased self-esteem, revalorization of cultural resources, the development of new skills and the creation of new alliances and partnerships (Borman, 2008; Duffy, 2002; ILO, 2001; Scheyvens, 2002).

A number of criticisms have been made of CBT, with some arguing that projects often fail to recognize the heterogeneous logics, diversity and power relations within communities (Belsky, 1999; Prieto, 2011) while others point out that the great majority of CBT projects have not been economically viable due to clumsy management, lack of real demand, poor marketing, or being too far away from mainstream tourist routes (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Sancho, 2001; Zapata et al., 2011). Some critics of community-based tourism are among those who promote a broader approach referred to as "pro-poor tourism" (PPT). Rather than prescribing specific models of tourism management, PPT approach aims to "tweak" tourism value chains to deliver "net benefits to the poor" (Ashley, Goodwin, & Roe, 2001; Ashley & Haysom, 2006; Ashley & Mitchell, 2008, Meyer, 2007). PPT aims to unlock economic, social, cultural or environmental benefits for the poor, not only through community-based tourism projects but also through other activities, services or employment linked to mainstream tourism routes; through improved infrastructure linked to tourism development; and through participation in decision-making on tourism. Among the criticisms of PPT are that it lacks theoretical coherence, has been too closely associated with community-based tourism, is unable to consistently define who the "poor" are, and lacks a focus on inequalities (Ashley et al., 2001; Harrison, 2008).

So, given these changing emphases and definitions, what now counts as "successful tourism? Some authors propose a single, technical definition of success. For example, Zoomers suggests that "for tourism in the Andes to contribute to sustainable development depends on whether its planners manage to (a) attract the appropriate type of tourist (b) control its costs and benefits and (c) protect sites from environmental and cultural deterioration" (in Ypeij & Zoomers, 2006, p. 279). However, a review of more concrete definitions of success in tourism reveals a range of criteria that are not necessarily compatible and may even come directly into conflict. These include:

- Macroeconomic criteria such as total visitors, bed nights or revenue, availability of foreign and national capital and access to financing to begin or improve tourism initiatives (Hampton, 2003)
- Quality-related criteria, including accessibility and availability of infrastructure, services and entertainment (Coriolano & Perdigão, 2005), as well as local capacities, such as language ability or commercial connections (Dulon in Maldonado, 2006; Ypeij & Zoomers, 2006)

- Criteria related to effective planning, the application of national and international policies and the development of new routes and destinations (Dulon in Ypeij & Zoomers, 2006)
- Criteria related to environmental and socio-cultural sustainability (Hockert, 2009; Honey, 2008; Mair & Reid, 2007; Udhammar, 2006)
- Criteria related to inclusive development, such as whether tourism businesses are locally owned, are small-scale (Debbage, 2000), and are established as part of local community development in less-developed countries (Hampton, 2003); as well as the extent to which the economic benefits of tourism are captured by the 'poor' (Ashley, Goodwin & Roe, 2001; Harrison, 2008, Meyer, 2007)
- Criteria related more generally to local participation and control (Binns & Nel, 2002, p. 244; Mair & Reid, 2007; Udhammar, 2006), "strengthening of host groups' cultural identity" (Prieto, 2011, p. 16), the presence of local leadership and the formation of partnerships, community unity, vision, organizational capacity and social capital (Lasso in Prieto, 2011; Lyall in Prieto, 2011; Mair & Reid, 2007)

The differences and potential contradictions in these criteria suggest that there is no single, 'neutral' definition of successful tourism. They underline the need to understand the multiple perspectives and possible conflicts between different actors in the negotiation of tourism development. In the following section, we describe the success criteria that have become most prominent in Peru.

The Peruvian Context: The Role of Tourism in Inclusive Development

Understanding perspectives on successful tourism in contemporary Peru requires some background on the nation's historical social and economic context, particularly the socially destabilizing problems of poverty and inequality that have persisted despite high economic growth over the past decade. Historically, underdevelopment in Peru has related to two linked themes: the legacy of its post-Conquest history of exploitation and social stratification (Peru was the political and administrative centre of the Spanish empire in South America); and its ongoing position as a 'resource periphery' in the international economy (Cardoso & Faletto, 1979; Drinot, 2006; Friedman, 1984; Kay, 1982; Thorp & Bertram, 1978).

Post-independence, the Peruvian economy was driven by a series of "booms" relating to the export of raw materials, including guano, rubber, saltpeter and wool in the nineteenth century, with petroleum and minerals taking on more importance in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. These booms tended to be economically and environmentally unsustainable; their benefits were concentrated in the hands of a few, often foreign, interests; and they did little to generate long-term employment or dynamize other sectors of the economy (Thorp & Bertram, 1978). The economic

dependence on the export of raw materials has been complemented by the fitful development of democracy, interrupted by periods of authoritarian government, notably in 1948–1956, 1962–1963, 1968–1979 and 1992–1999. This has tended to further debilitate an already weak civil society and hinder the development of effective and democratic institutions (Drinot, 2006).

Following the return of democracy in 2000, Peru's economy has grown rapidly, fuelled by a mineral extraction boom which, owing to the level of participation by foreign investors, sees 7 % of GDP lost in profit remittances (Dancourt, 2008). Social progress has been much slower: although the sheer scale of growth during the most recent minerals boom has had "trickle down" effects such as a notable reduction in the headline poverty figure (see Fig. 12.1), social breaches have actually widened, with poverty remaining persistently high in the sierra, rural areas, and in certain regions of the country (Bidwell, 2011; Bidwell & Murray, submitted for publication (b)). Uneven development has fomented an increasing number of social conflicts, many relating to disputes over the ownership and use of natural resources, especially in regions that have been targeted for investment by extractive industries and also where there is most concentrated poverty and exclusion (Hinojosa et al., 2009; Toche, 2011).

Although proposed strategies differ, most Peruvian political parties and social movements recognize the urgency of moving towards inclusive development. This sees economic growth as just one crucial aspect to contribute "(...) to the advancement of other aspects related to policies of inclusion, cohesion and social integration" (Rojas Aravena, 2011, p. 15). Such objectives require not only redistributive social programs but also diversified economic activities that will generate employment and support decentralization and stronger institutions (Rojas Aravena, 2011).

It is in this context that tourism has come to the fore and inherited a range of expectations that currently provide the most prominent criteria for "success". Tourism has been proposed as a source of economic diversification, a means of contributing to regional and national integration, and an alternative income source that helps improve living standards and promotes social inclusion in marginalized areas such as the rural sierra. As an example of this discourse, current president Ollanta Humala argued in a television interview during the 2011 election campaign that:

> We can't now be so irresponsible as to believe that international [mineral] prices are going to stay high for 10 or 20 years; that's not sustainable over time. This is the moment, now there's income, to stabilize and consolidate economic growth through other productive activities such as **tourism**, such as agriculture, agro-industry, agro-exportation, pastoral farming, [and] national industries.
>
> (Panamericana Television 2011, author's translation and emphasis)

Tourism certainly has the scale to make an impact. Peru now receives nearly 3 million international visitors per annum and tourism contributes 3.7 % of GDP (CAN, 2011), generating the equivalent in foreign currency of 10 % of exports

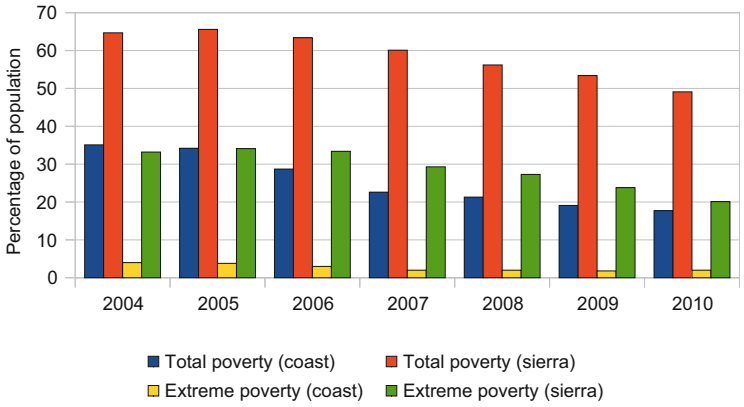

Fig. 12.1 Poverty and extreme poverty on the Peruvian coast and in the sierra, 2004–2010. *Source*: own elaboration from INEI (2010a, 2010b), accessed March 2012

(MINCETUR, 2010).[2] The General Tourism Law declares tourism to be of "national interest" and signals the National Strategic Tourism Plan (PENTUR, for its initials in Spanish) as its principal planning tool. Public sector representatives, call for "urgent action" and stress the "need to develop a shared vision" of tourism in Peru.[3] However, it is not just at governmental level that tourism is seen as a priority to achieve inclusion. Tourism has also been proposed as an alternative by local populations seeking economic development or resisting the incursion of extractive industries, in Ecuador and Bolivia as well as in Peru (Borman, 2008; Enlace Nacional, 2007; Zorn & Farthing, 2007 citing Monte, 2005).

The Ministry of Foreign Commerce and Tourism (MINCETUR for its initials in Spanish) is the public entity responsible for regulating and developing tourism in Peru. Its principal goal for the year 2018 is to "establish sustainable tourism as a tool for the socioeconomic development of Peru" (MINCETUR, 2008a). To this end it has set specific objectives including: fomenting investment in tourism; improving and developing new products and destinations; creating models of tourism management that promote inclusion; promoting the competitiveness and access to international markets of linked products such as craftwork; and ensuring the sustainable use of natural and cultural heritage.

Progress is evaluated through a series of indicators that provide a "measure of success" (MINCETUR, 2008a). The PENTUR defines eight "destination virtues" which are largely market and quality-related (such as adequate infrastructure and services, genuine demand, and a marketing image) but also include the existence of a "space for public-private collaboration" and the development of a regional

[2] The main attractions include destinations such as Machu Picchu and Cusco, Arequipa and Lake Titicaca in Puno in the south; Huaraz, Trujillo and Lambayeque in the north; Iquitos, Tambopata and Manu in the jungle; and Lima, the capital city.

[3] Exploratory interviews conducted in MINCETUR's Vice-ministry of Tourism (May, 2012).

strategic tourism plan (PERTUR for its initials in Spanish). There is also a National Tourism Quality Plan (CALTUR, for its initials in Spanish), which aims to "promote competitiveness" and whose objectives include the development of competent human resources, responsible business practices, sustainable use of tourist sites, and secure and well-managed destinations (MINCETUR, 2008b).

It may be argued that these existing indicators of "success" for MINCETUR can be related to a "neostructuralist" or "reformed neoliberal" paradigm, in which a singular emphasis on economic growth is replaced by broader criteria of international competitiveness and social coordination (Leiva, 2008). However, within this general approach, there has also been specific emphasis placed on the: "involvement of rural populations (...) to make an important contribution to the governance of tourism" (MINCETUR, 2011, p. 3). Recent years have seen the development of a national program dedicated to rural community tourism (TRC for its initials in Spanish). The TRC program began in 2006, based on the "existence of ideal natural spaces with rich natural and cultural resources...(and) changes in visitor needs and preferences, oriented toward the desire for experiences" (MINCETUR, 2011, p. 4; MINCETUR, 2008c); as well as on the potential of tourism as "an activity with economic benefits" that "constitutes a tool for development" and in rural areas can "include populations that for years have lacked opportunities linked to social, economic and environmental development"(MINCETUR, 2008c, p. 5).

The national TRC program has proceeded through a series of national conferences and through the designation of "pilot sites" in regions of the country considered to have high potential for rural community tourism and to obtain benefits from PPT approach (including Sibayo, discussed in this chapter). Guidelines for rural community tourism were developed in 2006 (MINCETUR, 2006). The broad intention of the program is to provide orientation and technical assistance to build on existing initiatives developed by local entrepreneurs or fomented by NGOs and development agencies, "with success in some cases but in others with negative results owing to the omission of basic principles of tourism development" (MINCETUR, 2011, p. 4).

A subtle shift in emphasis can be detected within policies and discourses on rural tourism in Peru. For example, the 2006 guidelines prescribe the development of specific models of community-managed tourism. More recent publications and our own interviews indicate a more flexible vision, in which local populations may be drawn into the tourism value chain in a variety of ways, such as through the development of alternative activities and attractions within the sphere of "anchor attractions".[4] In the official tourism development strategy, MINCETUR signals that it has passed from a "poverty focus" to an "entrepreneurial focus" which promotes "viable and sustainable businesses" to "generate sustainable wealth and inclusion" (MINCETUR, 2011). Indeed, in recent discussions, representatives of MINCETUR indicated they now see the economically viable integration of local populations into

[4] According to an interview with the National Director of Tourism Product Development at MINCETUR (May 2012).

the tourism value chain as the single most important success element for tourism in Peru.[5] Thus, although a closer view will reveal different and even contradictory logics related to tourist activity, current national policies on tourism broadly correspond with the demands of social movements and local populations that see tourism as offering opportunities for their economic and social empowerment.

To be successful on these terms, tourism development will need to differ from that seen to date in Peru's most prominent destinations: Cuzco and Machu Picchu. Total visitors to the Machu Picchu archaeological sanctuary saw a sixfold increase from 160,000 to 916,000 from 1995 to 2008 (Autocolca, 2006; INE, 2011). Yet in Cuzco, poverty remained persistently high, reducing just 2 points from 53 % in 2004 to 51 % in 2009 (INEI, accessed July 2011). The concentration on Machu Picchu has meant that a high proportion of the benefits of tourism have tended to flow to large investors such as the multinational-owned Peru Rail, which has maintained monopoly control of transport between the archaeological site and the city of Cuzco (*The Economist*, 22 April 2010). Existing studies argue that in general, the development of tourism in Cuzco has been dominated by urban interests and has excluded the rural peasant population (Hill, 2007, 2008; van de Berghe & Flores Ochoa, 2000).

In the Colca Valley of Arequipa, which now competes for the title of the second most popular destination in Peru,[6] tourism development has been quite different. Tourism in the Colca has evolved in a spontaneous way, with relatively little participation by large investors, and it is largely mediated by small regional and local business. Although this style of development has brought its own problems, it has allowed spaces for significant participation by local populations, which has met at least some of the criteria for success discussed above. In the following sections we describe examples of these successes and note their corresponding limitations.

Local Context of the Colca Valley

The Colca Valley is a mountain basin bordered to the north and south by peaks of up to 6,300 m, located entirely within the province of Caylloma in the region of Arequipa, southern Peru (see Fig. 12.2). At the valley's western end the combination of seismic and hydrologic action has created a dramatic canyon that by some measures is the world's deepest[7] The most accessible entrance to the valley is reached in approximately 3 h by road from Arequipa city (urban population

[5] Information provided by the head of the CBT Programmme at MINCETUR (May 2012). Arguably, this represents a move from a "community-based tourism" approach to more of a "pro-poor tourism" philosophy.

[6] Along with the Nazca Lines and Lake Titicaca.

[7] There continues to be scientific debate about the respective dimensions of the Colca and Cotahuasi canyons (both in the region of Arequipa, Peru).

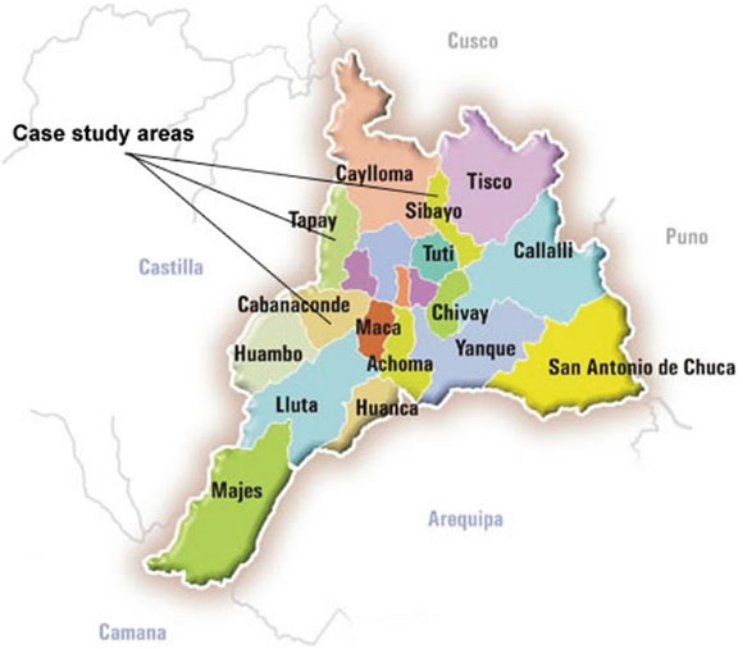

Fig. 12.2 The case study districts of Cabanaconde, Tapay and Sibayo within the province of Caylloma, department of Arequipa. *Source*: Modified from http://es.wikipedia.org. Modified by Bidwell from Toccallino (Public) [CC0 1.0 (http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/deed.en) via Wikimedia Commons (http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Provincia_de_Caylloma)

870,000), leading to the provincial capital of Chivay (population approximately 6,500), from where roads diverge to the upper and lower parts of the valley.

The Colca has been populated for thousands of years, with agricultural development influenced particularly by the Wari "horizon culture" (approximately 600–900 AD) and the Incan empire from approximately 1450 AD. As with many parts of Peru, the Spanish conquest saw dramatic depopulation due to disease and forced labour in nearby mines. In 1580 the Spanish Viceroy Toledo ordered the valley's scattered population to be forced into *reducciones* lining the north and south banks of the Colca River. These formed the basis of villages which have become the present-day district capitals. During Peru's nineteenth century wool export boom, white and mestizo migrants annexed large areas of land and created haciendas that endured until land reforms in the 1960s (Autocolca, 2006). The most important transformation in the twentieth century was brought about by the Majes Project, a major State-led initiative in the late 1960s to dam the upper Colca River and divert its water to irrigate the Majes plains, an arid area between Arequipa city and the coast. The roads and tunnels constructed by the project improved transport links into and through the valley. However, the project was also socially, economically and environmentally destabilizing, and local residents were largely marginalized

(Gelles, 2000; Paerregaard, 1997). It was not until residents of the village of Cabanaconde took direct action, blowing a hole in the irrigation canal and diverting water to feed their own parched fields, that state authorities agreed to allot a quota of irrigation water to each district (Gelles, 2000; personal communications). Today, agriculture and herding continue to be the main economic activities of the majority of the Colca Valley's population. The impact of steady outward migration is illustrated by the fact that the 2007 population of 33,000 people had reduced slightly since 1961, while the population of both Peru and the Arequipa region approximately tripled over the same time period (Bidwell, 2011).[8]

Thus, many aspects of the Colca Valley's history reflect themes common throughout Peru: periods of exploitative, unsustainable economic activity, social stratification based on race and later culture and ethnicity, and profound imbalances between dynamic urban centers and impoverished rural areas. The entry of tourism as a new economic activity since the 1980s provides a test of its potential to generate a more inclusive form of development.

The Evolution of Tourism in the Colca Valley

Tourism to the Colca Valley was made feasible by the improvement of road links to Arequipa brought by the Majes Project, while national and international attention was captured by a Polish expedition that rafted down the Colca River in 1981 and estimated the Colca Canyon to be the deepest in the world. In 1986, the tourism potential of the area was recognized through the creation of Autocolca, an autonomous public entity charged with overseeing tourism development in the region. However, it was in the mid 1990s, when the downfall of the Shining Path saw international visitors flow back to Peru, that tourism to the Colca Valley grew rapidly. In addition to the spectacular scenery and diverse local cultural manifestations, the Colca's trump card for tourism was the Andean condor. A particularly striking vantage point for seeing condors is the *Cruz del Cóndor*, a roadside lookout in the Cabanaconde district, where the world's largest flying birds glide upwards on morning thermals just metres from watching tourists (see Fig. 12.3).

Arequipa-based travel agencies established what became known as the "conventional" tour to the valley: a two-day sightseeing trip in minibus with a night spent in Chivay and a morning visit to the *Cruz del Cóndor*. An alternative, which by 2010 was attracting approximately 20 % of visitors,[9] was the canyon trekking tour, a two to three-day walking circuit linking the village of Cabanaconde and the natural oasis of Sangalle by the Colca River. Autocolca has tracked tourist numbers

[8] The 2007 Colca Valley population is derived from the Census for Caylloma province minus the population of the Majes district, newly created and incorporated into Caylloma since 1993 (Bidwell, 2011).

[9] Based on observations undertaken by Bidwell in 2010 and 2011.

Fig. 12.3 Tourists at Cruz del Cóndor watch the flight of the Andean condor. *Source*: Rendón

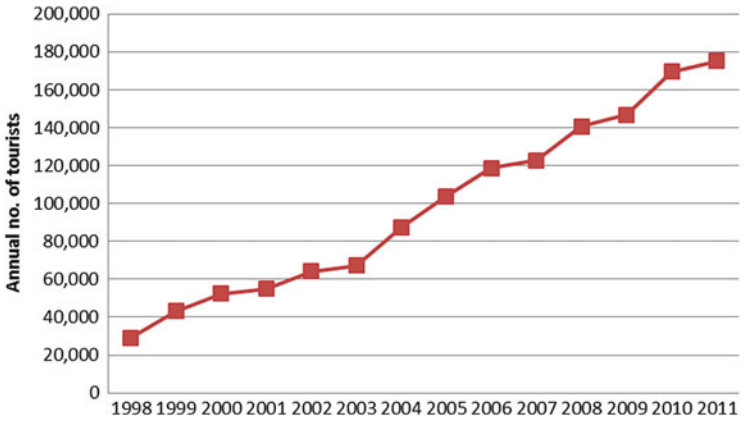

Fig. 12.4 Growth in reported tourist visits to the Colca Valley, 1998–2011. *Source*: own elaboration from data retrieved from http://www.autocolca.gob.pe, May 2012

since 1998, when it began to charge a tourist ticket for entry to the valley. By 2011, reported annual tourist numbers had risen to 175,000, including around 115,000 international tourists. Tourist flows had more than doubled since 2003 and grown fivefold since 1998 (see Fig. 12.4).

To what extent can this growth be counted as a success in terms of contributing to inclusive development? Given the stated objective of Peru's tourism strategy to take advantage of the nation's existing natural and cultural resources (MINCETUR, 2008a), the fact that the Colca has become a major tourist destination without significant external investment or modification of the environment, makes it an

interesting and important case study. However, local evaluations of tourism's impacts, as showcased at a conference in Chivay in April 2010 and a workshop in Arequipa in June 2012, have been distinctly ambivalent. While broad economic and infrastructural benefits are recognized, criticisms include the "disorderly" and excessively competitive nature of tourism development, increasing dominance of urban tour operators, neglect of peripheral districts, adverse cultural influences and environmental contamination.

It is undeniable that tourism in the Colca Valley has problems, some of them significant and requiring urgent redress. However, it is precisely the "messy" and problematic nature of tourism in the Colca Valley that makes the positive aspects achieved locally interesting and instructive. The following section provides a brief account of local engagement with tourism in three Colca Valley districts that are distant from the urban epicenter of Chivay and provide contrasting examples of elements for tourism success.

Successes and Shortfalls: The Examples of Cabanaconde, Tapay and Sibayo

The districts of Cabanaconde and Tapay are located, respectively, on the south and north side of the Colca River and share the steep canyon terrain through which passes the trekking circuit linking Cabanaconde village to the "oasis" of Sangalle (see Figs. 12.5 and 12.6). Agriculture is the main occupation of both districts, with the maize grown organically on terraces around Cabanaconde famed for its quality. However, while Cabanaconde is the largest urban centre of the lower valley (population approximately 3,000), and has the valley's second-highest average income (INEI, 2010a, 2010b), Tapay's population of around 700 is scattered in small settlements along the canyon, and it is the poorest, most isolated district in the valley, with the great majority of the area lacking sanitary infrastructure (Bidwell, 2011). The two districts share a long history of strong outward migratory flows, which in the case of Cabanaconde has resulted in a significant number of international migrants, particularly in the United States. Ethnographic studies have shown how these migrants have maintained links to their home districts and through episodic or permanent return migration have had important influences on local economy, society and culture, including the responses made to tourism (Gelles, 2000; Paerregaard, 1997).

The most notable success element in Cabanaconde and Tapay is the way in which local residents responded spontaneously, in innovative and resourceful ways, to the arrival of tourism. The most prominent local participants in tourism were the families who established accommodation and restaurant services, beginning in the late 1980s, as international tourists began to find their way into the canyon. By the late 1990s, others established spaces for tourist accommodation in the natural oasis of Sangalle, as well as building swimming pools fed by local thermal springs.

Fig. 12.5 Group of trekking tourists about to depart Cabanaconde for the Colca Canyon. *Source*: Rendón

Fig. 12.6 Trekking trails connecting the 'oasis' of Sangalle in the Colca Canyon to the districts of Tapay (*left*) and Cabanaconde (*right*). *Source*: Bidwell

By 2010 there were at least 20 local accommodation providers across the two districts, ranging from basic shelter to an architecturally designed three-star hotel in Cabanaconde.

It is important to note that the local entrepreneurs that benefited from the arrival of tourism were not necessarily historically privileged "local elites". Although Gelles (2000) describes the historical dominance of a few powerful families of Spanish descent in Cabanconde, these traditional hierarchies had largely broken down following the 1960s agrarian reform. More important were the migratory experiences in the cities of Arequipa and Lima, which had the provided education, capital and business savvy necessary to engage with tourism (Bidwell & Murray, submitted for publication (a)).

Other residents of Cabanaconde gained economic benefits from tourism through acting as guides (mainly men) or selling crafts, food and drinks at the *Cruz del Cóndor* lookout point (mainly women). Guiding tourists through the canyon was originally undertaken informally, but during 2000–2001, approximately 40 residents received practical courses in guiding supported by Arequipa's Catholic University, Autocolca and the Spanish development agency (AECID). Around the same time, a group of women began to travel to *Cruz del Cóndor* to take advantage of the lookout's increasing popularity as a tourist destination and sell food, drink and crafts. For these residents, connections to the tourism value chain helped diversify incomes limited by the single annual harvest possible in the region's harsh climate. Residents also welcome the presence of visitors, who "help us to face the loneliness and isolation of working in agriculture in the fields".[10]

As will be discussed later, local benefits from tourism have been far from evenly spread. However, it is undeniable that a number of residents have made a commercial success of tourism operations while others have been able to diversify their livelihoods, providing a buffer against poverty and enabling inter-generational progress. This has been achieved almost entirely without outside assistance and through considerable resourcefulness, which, as argued by Bidwell & Murray (submitted for publication (a)), runs counter to the frequent depiction of local rural populations as passive and requiring assistance from "responsible" or "well prepared" outsiders or intermediaries (Wearing & Macdonald, 2002), usually consultants or experts from NGOs and governmental organizations (Mitchell, 2002), to engage with tourism.

The district of Sibayo[11] has been held up as an example of success for completely different reasons to the lower valley districts. As the concept of rural community tourism has been gaining currency at a national level, Sibayo has gained fame as an example of how a community can organize itself and form partnerships with outside agents in order to engage with tourism. Census data suggests that Sibayo falls between Cabanaconde and Tapay in terms of poverty levels, education, availability of infrastructure and services, and proportion of first-language Quechua speakers (Bidwell, 2011). In other respects, it is distinct from the other two districts: around half of Sibayo's population (approximately 800 people) is spread out

[10] According to informal interviews carried out in Cabanaconde, July 2012.

[11] Located in the upper part of the Colca Valley, approximately one hour by road from Chivay.

Fig. 12.7 A group of women from the Sibayo tourism association await the arrival of a tour group. *Source*: Bidwell

through peripheral settlements and farmsteads above 3,800 m. With agriculture mostly not feasible, the principal activity is herding alpacas, llamas and cattle. Migratory flows from Sibayo are more circumscribed than from Cabanaconde and Tapay, with proportionately fewer migrants in Arequipa and Lima and more in nearby Chivay (Bidwell, 2011). As a result, the population is considerably more homogenous.

According to interviews conducted in 2010 (Bidwell, 2011), the origins of Sibayo's tourism project lay in the development of the district strategic plan in 2000. Undertaken through a participative process led by the municipal government, the plan defined tourism as one of the district's four "axes of development", intended to link to and dynamize the other three: alpaca herding, craft production, and trout fishing. Associations were formed to facilitate collective action in each of the principal productive activities, including tourism. The unique stone architecture of the district's "old town"—which had become partly abandoned in the 1970s—was identified as a key tourist attraction. During 1999–2001, the municipality issued a series of bylaws (*ordenanzas*) requiring maintenance of the stone buildings and preventing the use of materials such as corrugated iron in the old town. In 2005, support was obtained from Spanish development agency AECID to recuperate stone houses and convert them into *casas vivenciales* suitable for lodging home stay tourists (Bidwell, 2011).

By 2010, 12 families had *casas vivenciales* and were receiving tourists. A rotational system managed by the local tourism association ensured that each family received an equal number of tourists (see Fig. 12.7). In 2008, the first year of operation, approximately 600 tourists visited Sibayo but by 2010 the annual total

had not yet surpassed 1,000 (personal communications). Most arrived in tour groups through three different agencies in Arequipa and stayed just one night. However, participants in the tourism association stressed that they had received other, non-economic benefits including increased self-esteem and confidence and a number of learning opportunities. A key factor in Sibayo has been the way in which outside help from a diverse range of governmental, non-governmental and international institutions has been integrated into a cohesive development program. The role of the municipal government was key in providing a link between the population and outside agencies and in coordinating the disparate contributions of these agencies.

While each of these case studies provide instances of local participation in tourism and the achievement of development benefits, they also reveal problems and shortfalls, which when examined closely, are related to the very characteristics which have brought "success". In Cabanaconde and Tapay, the correlate of individual entrepreneurship and innovation has been lack of coordination, destructive competition and outright conflict. What may be characterized as longstanding "competition, factionalism and envy" within the community (Gelles, 2000, p. 34) has bedeviled the local tourist economy almost from the beginning. As a result, local participants have been unable to respond adequately to the increasing dominance of Arequipa-based tour operators, which have proliferated since government deregulation of the of the industry in 2005, and have forced down prices, excluded local guides and effectively bypassed Cabanaconde village (the main population centre). Local tourism services have been forced into fractious, zero-sum competition for independent tourists, including through unsustainable lowering of prices. In addition, there has been little effort to link traditional livelihoods to tourism, despite the potential for agro-tourism, to cite one example. The majority of residents who are not involved through services or commerce currently have little connection to tourism and receive few benefits.

In Cabanaconde, one factor is the different migratory histories of tourism entrepreneurs (some long-term residents, others recent return migrants with strong links to urban Arequipa or Lima), and the increasing involvement of inward migrants to the zone. This has seen contested identities of "local" and "outsider" overlaid on existing economic inequalities and social differences (Bidwell, 2011). However, in Tapay, which at face value is more homogenous with fewer historical inequalities, there has been just as much disunity.[12]

In Sibayo, despite the admiration which the district's rural tourism program has received from NGOs and state agencies, it has problems that are arguably just as important as in Cabanaconde and Tapay. Quite simply, at present there are insufficient tourists compared to the expected numbers. Despite all the efforts to develop

[12] Bidwell & Murray (submitted for publication (a)) suggest that a reason for this is that local tourism initiatives have been more closely associated with the urban business and employment experiences of return migrants, rather than the (somewhat) more structured and cooperative village life.

infrastructure and skills, tourism in Sibayo is commercially marginal. A survey conducted by the regional government's tourism ministry in 2011 estimated that each family with a *casa vivenical* was receiving PEN 120 (US$ 44)[13] per month from tourism (less than one-sixth the minimum wage, and not counting costs incurred).[14] For access to the tourist market, Sibayo relies on three Arequipa-based tour operators, who generally include a one-night visit to the village as part of a wider package: some distance from the *turismo vivencial* and cultural exchange envisioned by the Sibayo tourism association. Tourism has also had little dynamizing effect on the local economy, unless the considerable resources invested directly by NGOs and development agencies are taken into account.

As in Cabanaconde and Tapay, it can be argued that strengths and weaknesses are intimately related. The carefully planned and coordinated development of Sibayo's tourism project has arguably been facilitated by the very problem that has limited its progress: the lack of commercial pressures from a genuinely dynamic market. While the strict principles of equity and transparency maintained by the tourism association are laudable, they have not yet been tested.

Tourism in Cabanaconde, Tapay and Sibayo will likely continue to evolve in different ways, determined by local social and cultural aspects as well as the different niche each one occupies in the tourism market. It is unlikely that Cabanaconde will ever develop into an orderly model of community-based tourism. The community is simply made up of too many diverse parts, with influences pulling in to many directions. Similarly, Sibayo is unlikely to see the volumes of tourists that arrive to the lower valley.[15] Its subtle charms based on culture and livelihoods do not have the instant mass appeal of condors and the jaw-dropping canyon landscape. Nevertheless, although neither locality is ideally "successful" (according to the criteria of inclusive development, sustainability and coordinated planning) there is potential for each locality to advance through mutual learning.

For example, the efforts made in Sibayo to link local livelihoods with tourism are exactly what are lacking in Cabanaconde and Tapay, preventing a more dynamic engagement between tourism and the local economy and a greater sense of collective local ownership. Ironically, the lower valley has the tourist flows that could make such linkages work; while the range of productive niches and activities means that

[13] The exchange rate used is PEN 2.7 = US$1.

[14] This information was provided during an interview with the coordinator of the regional government tourism office's CBT programme (July 2012). It is consistent with the data collected by Bidwell (2011) but differs significantly from the data provided to Peru's Ministry of Foreign Commerce and Tourism (MINCETUR, interviews carried out in May 2012) which reported that tourism entrepreneurs in Sibayo were receiving PEN 583 (US$ 216) per capita per month, information that the authors consider implausible as it cannot be made consistent with available data on number of visitors, nights stayed and prices charged.

[15] Some data indicate that a single *hospedaje* in Tapay, away from the main trekking route, received as many visitors in 2010 as the entire village of Sibayo (Bidwell, 2011).

opportunities are perhaps more noticeable than in Sibayo. What has been missing is the ability to identify, plan and to work together to take advantage of these opportunities. These shortfalls are now widely recognized. There is a growing consciousness among local authorities, tourism service providers and the population in general that, in the words of one research participant: "we ought to promote what is ours" (Bidwell, 2011) and that there must be wider community involvement and ownership. The actions taken in Sibayo demonstrate this wider community involvement could be achieved, and indeed, there have already been initiatives by local NGOs to organize practical experiences and learning exchange in Sibayo involving tourism entrepreneurs from other districts such as Cabanaconde.

There has been less recognition that Sibayo might learn something from Cabanaconde and Tapay. Although much attention is given to the individualistic and disorganized nature of tourism providers in the lower valley, it is also worth acknowledging their resourcefulness and creativity in the context of a competitive and changing market. Most of those involved in tourism in the lower valley have never received any outside support. In addition, those in Tapay and Sangalle have established their operations in some of the most difficult terrain imaginable: 1,000 vertical meters and at least two hours by foot or mule from the nearest road. While price-based competition has been an unfortunate response to market pressures, many providers have also adapted through innovation and improvement. Local tourism service providers have used a range of strategies to maintain direct access to the tourism market, some of which rely on their links to urban Arequipa. These include children and relatives gaining education and working in tour agencies or as professional guides; effective use of the internet; and word of mouth (a mark of service quality).[16] We would suggest that tourism entrepreneurs in Sibayo have something to learn from the experiences of Cabanaconde and Tapay in the areas of commercialization and adaptation to a changing and demanding market.

There are also possibilities for more direct alliances: the high-quality craft weaving of Sibayo could be commercialized by the tourism entrepreneurs of the lower valley, with their much greater access to tourism markets (at present they mainly sell cheap items imported from elsewhere in Peru), while greater collaboration between groups of entrepreneurs and local governments could see the development of alternative routes based on the diverse natural and cultural heritage of the valley, at present largely ignored by the stereotyped circuits of Arequipa-based tour operators.

[16] Tourism entrepreneurs have also continued to find novel ways to overcome the challenges posed by geography. For example, the first electricity supply in Sangalle was established in 2010 using a small generator powered by falling spring water.

Spaces for Dialogue and Partnership in the Colca Valley

In the preceding case study, we have suggested that, although tourism in the Colca Valley has had ambiguous results and suffers from notable problems, there are striking examples of "successes" where local populations have made creative responses to tourism and have achieved effective collaboration between different actors (Sibayo) or economically viable incorporation of local entrepreneurs in the tourism value chain (Cabanaconde and Tapay). Although these successes are balanced by weaknesses and failures, these could potentially be addressed by mutual exchange and learning.

The bases for mechanisms that facilitate such exchange and learning have been established, although there is still a long way to go for them to be effective. During the 2000s, a growing number of NGO, governmental and international cooperation agencies became interested in linking tourism and development in the Colca Valley. In late 2008, the various cooperation agencies created the *Comité Técnico de Turismo* (Technical Tourism Committee), a group which met approximately monthly to share and discuss their respective actions.

There have also been significant efforts by the various development agencies to promote the organization and association of local communities and entrepreneurs, although these efforts have been overlapping and uncoordinated. In a few cases, these initiatives have been sustainable and relatively effective, such as the case of the Sibayo Tourism Association (ASETUR), where they have gelled with the existing efforts of local populations. In other cases, (such as the efforts by NGO Grupo GEA to create consortiums of local providers organized along "micro-corridors" of geographically adjacent districts), organizations have been formally established but have not outlasted the completion of the respective project.

There are a number of factors that limit the further advancement of coordinated planning in the tourism sector. Among the most important has been the role of Autocolca tourist authority. From its creation in 1986, Autocolca's governance was dominated by regional government and business representatives and many Colca Valley residents considered that little benefit from the tourist ticket flowed to the local population. In 2005, a group of Colca Valley residents undertook a general strike, blocking the entrance to the valley and demanding the devolution of Autocolca's administration to provincial level (as well as the improvement of the road to provide better access into the valley). These demands were acceded to and the Peruvian Congress, which modified Autocolca's legislation, passing administration to the provincial government of Caylloma and restructuring the governance board to include a majority of provincial and district representatives (Adaui Rosas & Ojeda, 2005).

According to inclusive development discourses, this move to local control was a positive step. However, with Peruvian local governments usually lacking the capacity for medium and long-term tourism planning (Rendón, 2006) as well as continuing to suffer from insufficient separation between institutional and political motives, it has also made Autcolca vulnerable to becoming a vehicle for the provincial government of the day. Many stakeholders are critical of Autocolca for

what they see as improvised decision-making and lack of transparency, consultation, coordinated planning or evaluation (Rendón, 2006).[17] With Autocolca having the most important legislated role and easily the largest budget of any actor involved in tourism in the Colca Valley, its disconnection from other actors is a significant obstacle.

Another limiting factor is the lack of participation by or representation of the private sector (in its broadest sense) in the debate and planning of tourism development. This is true in Arequipa city as well as in the Colca Valley. In general, gremial organizations of hotels and travel agencies have attracted participation by only the most formal and well-capitalized providers, while the great majority of tourism businesses are informal or semi-formal micro-enterprises (Bidwell, 2011; Bidwell & Murray, submitted for publication (b)). Almost all tour guides are employed on a casual basis, and their various associations have struggled to be either representative or effective participants in tourism debates.

Ultimately, the problems that beset tourism in the Colca Valley are reflections of fundamental challenges for Peru as a society. The disorganized and overly competitive small business sector is related to the historically narrow economic development that has generated structural inequalities and insufficient formal employment (Bidwell & Murray submitted for publication (b)); while the weakness of democratic institutions is also a legacy of extended periods of authoritarian government and the profound inequalities and exclusion within Peruvian society (Drinot, 2006). Thus, there is a case of the chicken and the egg: tourism is presented as a new, diversifying and dynamizing factor that will help heal the breaches in Peruvian economy and society: at the same time its "successful" development is limited by the very problems it is supposed to help overcome.

It must also be acknowledged that even if there were effective participation of different actors, there would be no ideally "successful" model of how tourism should develop. While documents such as PENTUR propose coordinated and collaborative planning, different stakeholders may have very different views on what counts as "success" or what could be considered as "inclusive development". For example, actors in charge of cultural conservation such as Peru's National Cultural Institute (since 2011 incorporated into the Ministry of Culture), ruled by mainly punitive norms, have tended to emphasize the conservation of natural and cultural features in their original state and are opposed to the hybridization and uncontrolled commercialization of these features. Yet, these are exactly the strategies that have been used by some local populations in the Colca Valley to insert themselves into the tourism value chain and gain additional income. We suggest that there is ultimately no "most successful" balance between these priorities.

[17] For example, in late 2011, Autcolca doubled the price of the tourist ticket from PEN 35 to 70 (US$ 13 to $26), a move criticized by many other stakeholders, including the regional government's tourism office and NGOs as well as many local entrepreneurs who reported suffering from a reduction in income as tourist volumes dropped.

Conclusions

High expectations have been set for tourism in Peru as a source of economic diversification and inclusive development. Unlike some other countries where mass tourism has had a greater proportional impact and where success may be associated with limiting tourism's negative effects, in contemporary Peru tourism is seen by most actors as a potentially positive force.

We have argued that if these expectations are to be realized, tourism will have to be successful along mainstream tourist routes and at a significant scale. For this reason, we have discussed the flawed development of tourism in the Colca Valley, an increasingly popular destination where tourist demand is based on existing natural and cultural features and which, unlike Machu Picchu, is not dominated by external investors. The case study includes different experiences in the districts of Cabanaconde, Tapay and Sibayo that show how local populations have made creative responses to tourism, obtaining certain benefits and supporting economic and social changes that may lead to more inclusive development.

The nature of these achievements may be counted as "successes" in the context of the historical marginalization of Peruvian rural populations. The specific advances, as well as their limitations, relate to the social and cultural characteristics of the respective communities (cosmopolitan and entrepreneurial in Cabanaconde and Tapay and more homogenous and close-knit in Sibayo), as well as to the different types of market demand and the distinct interventions of government, NGOs and international development agencies. Importantly, these examples show how local populations can be leaders in responding to tourism, and do not necessarily rely on outside agents to act as intermediaries.

For these success elements to be disseminated more widely and for problems to be addressed, there needs to be further development of spaces for debate, dialogue, collaborative partnerships, and creative responses to conflict. To date, a number of limiting aspects have stalled or rendered less effective the development of these spaces. Ultimately, these limitations reflect the pre-existing social and economic problems of Peru as a whole. There is therefore no straightforward road to successful tourism, which itself is a variable and hotly-contested concept. Yet, the example of the Colca Valley provides enough evidence that tourism can provide new, diversified and locally-focussed economic opportunities that do not rely on "trickle down" from extractive industries. It can also help to revalorize and conserve natural and cultural heritage and empower local populations to define and pursue their own logics of action. Thus, while it is no panacea, tourism can indeed make a contribution to moving towards more inclusive development in Peru.

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Chapter 13
Dominican Tourism Clusters: Pillars of Development

Pilar Constanzo

Abstract The touristic clusters' function is grouping the different players within a destination with the aim of jointly outlining the vision, path and action plan to enhance their competitiveness.

Since 2003, in the Dominican Republic ten touristic clusters have formed, which boast several accomplishments: the creation of commercial capacity, joint ventures in public-private alliances, the establishment of themselves as legal Non-Governmental Organizations, the diversification of touristic products, the promotion of differential cultural aspects, and environmental conservation activities.

Associativism highlights as the most important: organizations cannot compete by themselves. They need the support of their employees, the educational system, the communities, and the government.

The Dominican touristic clusters have reached a high level of local empowerment, and together with the Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness, which is the umbrella cluster, their continuity is guaranteed.

Keywords Cluster • Competitiveness • Alliances • Integration

Introduction

The Dominican Republic is the second largest country in the Greater Caribbean Antilles. Is has an extension of 48,000 km^2 and has 10 million inhabitants. Since the 1970s the country has nurtured tourism as an economic activity with a great potential to enhance the country's development. Since the 1980s, it has had a sustained growth in the arrival of foreign visitors arrival, surpassing the four million-tourist arrivals mark by 2010.

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Currently tourism is a prime economic activity, which represents the core industry of the Dominican economy. As per data collected by the Dominican Central Bank, the contribution of tourism to the Gross Domestic Product amounts to 18 %, generates about 20 % of direct and indirect jobs in the country, and a gross income that surpasses four billion dollars, as the result of tourist arrivals in excess of four million visitors. Nowadays the Dominican Republic is the leader in the Caribbean islands in terms of tourism revenue, number of tourist arrivals, and number of hotel rooms (approximately 70,000).

Many countries are replicating the *cluster* model, and the Dominican Republic has had a very good experience with it.

A cluster is by definition -and as per Professor Michael Porter of the University of Harvard- a group of interconnected companies and associations, which are geographically in a close range, are engaged in a similar industry, and are connected by a number of common and complementary characteristics.

In the clusters, the creation of wealth lies above the regional average, and they tend to export a high percentage of their production. It can include anything from a region or a city to a network of neighboring countries. Within the clusters there are organizations of all shapes and sizes, companies offering finished products as well as services, suppliers of special raw materials or services, financial institutions, companies in related industries, educational institutions, research centers, governmental institutions; basically, in general, each and any organization that in one way or another contributes in developing the specific economic activity.

The clusters offer a great variety of benefits to their members, such as: availability of inputs or services, congregation of labor, concentracion of knowledge, accumulation of social capital, generation of incentives, innovation, and complementarity.

The clusters represent a new way to approach the research of economic activity, and the formulation of development policies. This new focus differs from the approach based on the different sectors of the economy, as it captures not only the vertical relationships (i.e. supplier-distributor), but goes further by taking into account horizontal relationships such as competition and cooperation among organizations, financial back ups, university researches or meeting points. Its coordination and impact is absolutely crucial in generating a competitive and sustainable advantage.

In 2001, the cluster model was formally introduced to the agricultural and touristic industries of the Dominican Republic by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

This chapter will describe the experience of the creation of the touristic clusters in the Dominican Republic, as a strategy for growth, equity and competitiveness in this sector.

The important players within the touristic clusters are all the big and small private companies, the government entities in a given region, as well as the communities within the regions. Finally, these are all the different parties that form the value chain in a pre-established geographical area, or within the boundaries of a particular tourist destination; everyone that in one way or another is related to the development of tourism. Among others we find: ports, airports, airlines, tour operators, travel agencies, hotels and other types of lodging facilities, restaurants, gift shops, currency exchange offices, taxi drivers, and tour guides; as

well as the local communities representations. The government ministries that have a direct influence on touristic activities in the Dominican Republic are the following: The Ministry of Tourism, The Ministry of Culture, The Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources; as well as the local councils, and the Tourist Police.

The clusters constitute a kind of "family" of organizatons, that create and strengthen bonds of trust,—social capital—which results in smoother business interaction, and lower trade cost.

The following will describe the complete process since the introduction of the cluster model to the Dominican Republic, the achievements and benefits obtained, as well as the challenges that lie ahead for the ten existing touristic clusters, and the Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness as the entity that groups them all.

Dominican Touristic Clusters as True Catalysts for the Local Development

The touristic clusters of the Dominican Republic have marked a before and after in the work of national tourism, achieving new ways of thinking within the sphere of the public and private sectors to accomplish higher levels of competitiveness.

The development of these ten clusters in the country has been a long process full of challenges and lessons learned which has resulted in a paradigm shift in local development.

A Little History

In 2001, the situation prior to initiating the process of the creation of the touristic clusters, the situation can be described as follows:

- *Competitiveness* was a little known concept
- *Cluster*? No one had heard of the term nor the concept
- Limited coordination of the actors that make up the tourism value chain
- Limited synergy and articulation among the actors that make up the tourism value chain
- There was no effective interlocutor in the different regions
- The tourism development completely excluded the surrounding communities

The touristic clusters in the Dominican Republic emerged precisely as an answer to the problem of the above mentioned exclusive attitude of national tourism, and as a development tool more in line with the times. Then the idea was formalized, and with the support of the National Competitiveness Council, (CNC) and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the first clusters were born: *Romana-Bayahibe*, *Puerto Plata* y *Ecoturístico Vegano* (Jarabacoa y Constanza).

Afterwards five other clusters made their appearance, all with different characteristics and realities. These were: *Cluster Ecoturístico y Productivo de Barahona*, *Cluster Turístico de La Altagracia* (Punta Cana/Bávaro), *Cluster Turístico de Samaná*, and the touristic clusters of *Jarabacoa* y *Constanza* as different entities.

At the same time, with the support of the CNC (National Competitiveness Council) the Cluster *Turístico de Santo Domingo* and the *Cluster Turismo Sostenible de Pedernales* formed.

The USAID-CPP project and the National Competitiveness Council (CNC) signed an agreement in 2006. The cooperation between the two organizations was an important step and an unprecedented partnership, that served as a basis for the long term support that these ten clusters are still receiving until today.

But, Why Touristic Clusters as a Tool for Local Development?

In the absence of an institutionalized cluster in a tourist destination, the liaisons among the different actors still occur but in a totally unilateral and also disorganized manner; without taking advantage of the relationships that emerge from a conglomerate. However, when there is a cluster, the relationships are multidirectional, ergo everyone liaises.

The reasons to encourage the clusters model as a tool to foster local development can be summarized in the following points:

- Because today's world requires more dialogue, trust and social capital
- Because the touristic cluster is equal to the representation and union of all local actors
- Because in this model there are more empowered actors—both direct and indirect
- Because united they can all fight for tourism sustainability
- Because they can accomplish projects with greater impact

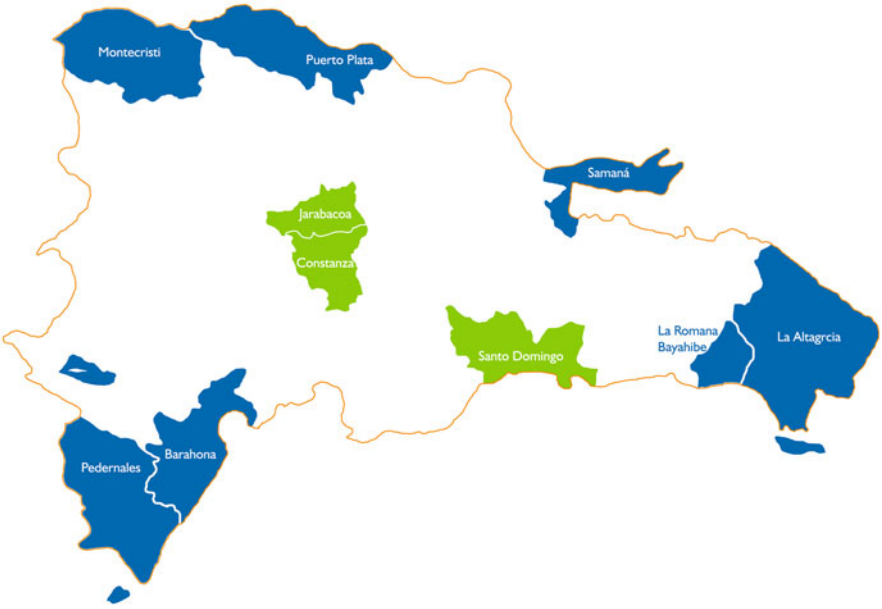
Example of the value chain integrated into the Santo Domingo's touristic cluster

Process of Touristic Clusterization at the Dominican Republic

The process of creation and strengthening of tourism clusters in the Dominican Republic has taken almost a decade, and has been carried out in two stages that have been funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID):

First stage: 2003–2007: USD$2.2 million for tourism
- CPP Project by *Chemonics International*: La Vega, La Altagracia, Puerto Plata and Barahona
- National Competitiveness Council: Santo Domingo and Pedernales

Second stage: 2007–2011: USD$12.5 million
- Dominican Sustainable Tourism Alliance (DSTA)
- Strengthening of the existing 9 clusters, and the creation of number 10: Cluster of Montecristi



Dominican consortium for tourism competitiveness's map of the ten touristic clusters (*green color* don't have beach)

The second project, the *Dominican Sustainable Tourism Alliance (DSTA)*, ended in December 2011 and managed a donation of 12.5 million dollars, while the clusters provided an equal counterpart contribution. Strategic investments were focused on human and financial resources, with the aim of accomplishing ample sustainable impacts. To carry out these efforts, crucial alliances were established

with foreign implementing partners of the *Global Sustainable Tourism Alliance (GSTA)* and its associates, *Academy Educational Development (AED)*, *The Nature Conservancy (TNC)*, *The George Washington University (GWU)* and *Solimar International,* who acted as partners of the nine touristic clusters.

The support of USAID, in both the PCP Project by *Chemonics International* and the DSTA of the *Global Sustainable Tourism Alliance,* is summarized as follows:

- Cluster specialists provide technical assistance to the leaders and facilitators of the clusters:
  - Support in the development of work plans/strategic vision
  - Conflict resolution and institutional strengthening
  - Support in the implementation and monitoring of activities and products
  - Assistance in accessing donors funds and investment facilitation in the destinations
  - Encouragement and assistance in monitoring counterparts of clusters
- Coordination among donors—implementation of liaisons between the National Competitiveness Council and the clusters
- Financial Assistance:
- Support with the salaries of some executive directors
- Support with office space, as well as logistics
- Support with the implementation of their business plans

And in the Midst of This Whole Process the Opportunity Arises to Create a Cluster Network

The birth of the National Network of Touristic Clusters in 2005 was very spontaneous. In a conversation among technical staff and some members of several clusters, the idea emerged to create a network of clusters united under a common umbrella with a national scope, with the purpose of dealing with collective and transversal matters. Along the way, they also realized that it was necessary to found a Dominican entity capable of providing ongoing support to the clusters, once the USAID funded programs came to an end.

Hence, this Network/Consortium would be a Dominican NGO that was to become "key" to fostering the sustainable competitiveness of tourism in the Dominican Republic, in which considerations of business efficiency, the environment, culture, and equity would be the parameters for every action aimed.

Although the concept was born in 2005, it was not until 2008 that it became clear that the Network/Consortium should be the continuation of the USAID-DSTA (*Dominican Sustainable Tourism Alliance*) program. To accomplish this process of "dominicanization" of the DSTA, there should be a transition and coaching process with the DSTA, for which certain guidelines were established. With these basic ideas a process began to strengthen the Dominican Consortium for Tourism

Competitiveness (CDCT) and the necessary steps for its official constitution were taken.

Since June 2009, the organization has taken the following actions:

- Initiation of its legal constitution, revision of its regulations, and the first assembly with all the members (9 touristic clusters) took place
- Established its work plan
- Business Plan (stating the mission, vision, objectives, SWOT analysis and activities with its projection for economic sustainability of the institution)
- Negotiation with DSTA for the transition plan of this project to CDCT
- Appointment of the Coordinator

General Accomplishments of the Clusters to This Date

During the implementation of the USAID-CPP program which ended in March 2007, as well as the USAID-DSTA project which worked with all the existing touristic clusters in the country, several important accomplishments were achieved. They range from impacts to the value chain, the community and institutional strengthening to improvement of local communications and the general empowerment of the community. Among the highlights are:

As for the value chain:

- Dialogue and associativity among the local actors
- Marketing, promotion and access to new niches
- Product development (new attractions)
- Capacity building (training)
- Establishment of quality standards
- Environmental Certifications and actions:
  - *Blue Flag* Certification for beaches
  - *Green Globe* Certification (hotels, attractions)
  - Marine Coastal management programs
  - Cleaning campaigns
  - Community awareness
  - Work with projects in protected areas

As to the community:

- Training of the key actors (English courses, local tour guide training)
- Training for small and medium enterprises
- Enhancement of cultural aspects and events
- Access to communities that impact the tourist activity
- Role of the municipality in tourism planning
- Dialogue with the tourism sector

As to the transformational impact: Change of paradigms and the dialogue within the sector:

- Change in public speeches
- Establishment of cultural and craftwork programs by the Ministry of Tourism and the private sector
- The tourism sector has become more sensible to community problems
- High commitment to construction of proper sewerage infrastructure
- Formation of clusters, unassisted or with government support (10)
- Investments/actions requiring joint ventures, creating trust:
- Restoration of the Victorian houses in Puerto Plata
- Marketing campaign for the Romana-Bayahibe region by Peter Yesawhich in the USA (cost of US$500,000 provided by local tourism enterprises)
- Increasing recognition by the Ministry of Tourism of the role of tourism clusters
- Increased participation of the municipality and the local authorities in tourism planning
- Concern by the government and the private sector for the state of local crafts and culture

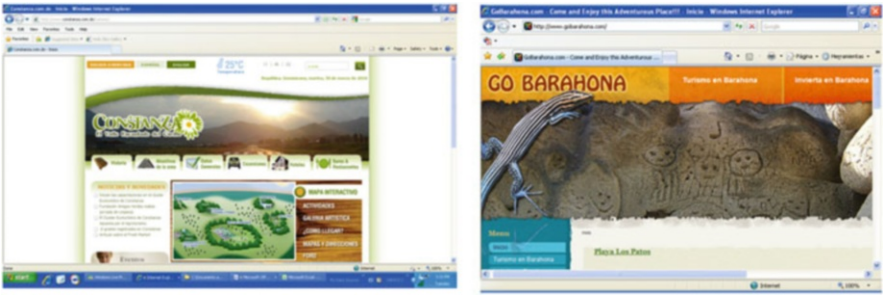
As for the consolidation and financial sustainability of the clusters:

- All the touristic clusters have their own business plan as an important step towards institutional strengthening.
- These business plans are made for 5 years, allowing them to resemble commercial enterprises in the way they operate and succeed, in addition to meeting the needs of internal management, as well as providing information for external entities for investment opportunities.
- They all have very clear advantages for the members.
- Understanding the need for diversification of tourism products to achieve greater competitiveness
- The clusters have started to see themselves as Destination Management Organizations. A DMO (*Destination Management Organization*) is a coordination entity in a destination, which unites all the interested parties, and promotes its marketing and development. The DMOs are reference points that have no control over the activities of its partners, but simply create synergy in the use of common resources, and lead the path towards the common development. In cases where the destination targets the meetings and conventions segment, the DMO's are in charge of the Convention Center management.

As to communication:

- Most clusters have their *Info-Cluster* or monthly bulletins to further advance the culture of partnership and advantages of the cluster model, in addition to providing local information of the actions carried out by the institution, and the most relevant local events.
- Some of the clusters already have a webpage (Barahona, Constanza y La Romana-Bayahibe), and the rest are in the process of developing their own.

Also, in the case of the Clúster Turístico de Santo Domingo, it has a blog that has been remarkable in informing about the different and most important activities taking place in the destination.



Websites of Constanza and Barahona

- All of them are present in the social networks, such as *Facebook* and *Twitter*.
- Most of the clusters have opened and managed *Tourist Information Centers* at their destinations which are indispensable to provide top quality service to the visitors, as well as to better showcase the local enterprises that take part in the tourist activities, making it beneficial for everyone involved.

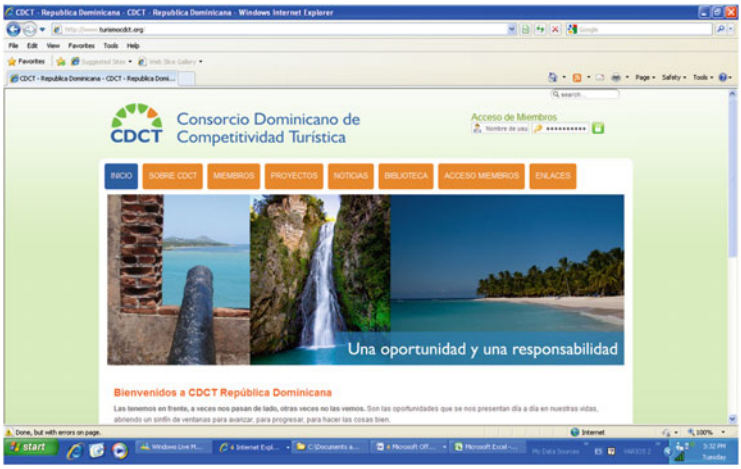
Romana-Bayahibe's information touristic center

As to the local empowerment: The creation of the Cluster Network and the Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness (CDCT).

A few notes about CDCT:

- CDCT promotes sustainable tourism and the corresponding training for the correct management of destinations nationwide.
- Executor of a tripartite project with UNESCO funds for 3 touristic clusters
- Has signed an cooperation agreement with the National Competitiveness Council (CNC): "Competing with Equity".

- Instigator of the Sales and Marketing Alliance between (ATAS Dominicana) and Dominican Treasures (DT). DT is a certification program that promotes community tourist projects within the cluster regions, to diversify the range of national tourism products with new experiences, and stimulate more sustainable tourism activity.
- Support to leverage projects with national and international funds
- A database for its members with historical and current statistics of the tourism industry, and general information about all the destinations
- Technical assistance and institutional support
- In January 2012 it just started a new development project funded by USAID called *Sustainable Tourism Empowerment (STEP)* for a duration of 2 years and funds of USD$2.4 million.
- Its institutional webpage serves as a promotional tool for all the clusters. (http://www.turismocdct.org)



Other great accomplishments within the clusters have been the successful replication of some programs and projects, such as:

- Barahona Training Program emulated by Constanza and Samaná
- The guide map of Jarabacoa that was emulated by Barahona
- *Blue Flag*, emulated by Puerto Plata, Samaná and La Altagracia with the support of Romana-Bayahibe
- Support accessing funds from the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation (AECID) (Barahona y Santo Domingo)
- Implementation of commercial flights between San Juan, Puerto Rico, Barahona and Constanza
- Constanza's *Fresh Market* replicated by Barahona in its *Destination Market*

Challenges for the Dominican Touristic Clusters

The clusters are in different stages of institutional maturity and they have still a lot of work ahead to reach the same level of development.

One of its main challenges is to achieve financial sustainability before the USAID funding ends.

Furthermore, both the clusters and the Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness (CDCT) must continue to carry out the necessary actions to accomplish the efficient management of the destinations, and to transform them in real models of sustainable tourism.

Moreover, there is the challenge to increase the commitment of Government Ministries related to tourism activities. This refers especially to the Ministry of Tourism, which can slow down many actions in the destinations.

The cooperation between cluster members will remain essential to keep gaining in competitiveness.

Conclusion

Tourism clusters are complex in their processes of birth, growth and maturation because each aspect can be looked at from different angles and it involves countless actors with different agendas, yet there is also common ground.

The Dominican Republic has succeeded adapting the cluster model to its tourism reality. With less than a decade after starting the process, it has already shown tangible and positive results, and it is a showcase that can be emulated within its region.

One of the great problems the country had was a strong resistance of both the private and public sectors to work together; and the idea of including the communities in the whole process was unheard of. The clusters have created the opportunity for dialogue among all the different actors. Regardless of the results of the dialogues and negotiations, this is a great accomplishment.

Though it is not a unique case in the world, the Dominican touristic clusters have a success story to tell. It is important to highlight the advantages of the cluster model, and to report on the process that has taken place in ten tourist destinations in the country, and to try to replicate the experience in other regions that see the tourism activity as a driving force for their local development.

There are countless positive results: the creation of social capital, increased employment opportunities, increased sales and investments in the different regions. However, the clusters are in different stages of maturation, and they all need support and coaching to further advance in the consolidation of their structures, strategic direction, and management capabilities.

An unavoidable challenge for the clusters will always be to compete and cooperate simultaneously, focused on four fundamental strategies: technology, training, sustainability and internationalization.

The Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness (CDCT), is a Dominican NGO that serves as the umbrella cluster. It promotes sustainable competitiveness and fairness in the tourism sector of the Dominican Republic, and it will always be of support to the clusters to accomplish these central points.

To achieve its objective, it should use appropriate technical support and an ongoing evaluation process. The indicators will reflect the gains, and also the areas that require improvement in order to create empowered organizations that are capable of managing and promoting the destination in a sustainable and competitive way.

To accomplish the great challenge of becoming DMO's (Destination Management Organizations), it is imperative for the clusters to continue requesting the acknowledgement and collaboration of the Ministries of Tourism, Culture and Environment, and Natural Resources.

An efficient DMO should coordinate all elements of the destination (attractions, amenities, accessibility, human resources, image and price), and its proper promotion (marketing). It should also watch over the quality standards in the destination, and advocate for favorable conditions in politics, regulations, legislation and tax policies.

With all advancements that they have accomplished, one can say that the foundations have been set to guarantee the success of the tourist clusters. It all depends on the commitment of all the actors not to faint or divert from the path, always seeking fairness and competitiveness in developing a more sustainable tourism which at anytime must involve the elements that provide the necessary balance: the economic, socio cultural and environmental issues.

Finally and furthermore, the actions of the Dominican Consortium for Tourism Competitiveness (CDCT) must continue contributing to influence the unity and the commitment to achieve competitiveness. It should also build strong local institutions, promote social initiatives and democracy; endorse sustainable tourism in all its aspects: environmental conservation, economic efficiency and preservation of the cultural aspects within the communities. The CDCT must reinforce leadership as an essential aspect of the institutional growth of each cluster, as well as provide and secure the support of donors to enhance the resources to carry out continuous activities for development in the different regions.