



## ECOTOURISM AND THE IMPACT OF THE CONVENTIONAL TOURISM ON THE FRAGILE ECOSYSTEMS

<sup>1</sup>Sameer Ahmad Khah, <sup>2</sup>Rao, R.J. and <sup>1</sup>Khursheed Ahmad Wani

<sup>1</sup>IGAEERE, Jiwaji University, Gwalior

<sup>2</sup>Conservation Biology Unit, School of Studies in Zoology

### ABSTRACT

The natural environment is crucial to the attractiveness of almost all travel destinations. It is dependent on natural and manmade resources, any kind of degradation leads to decline in tourism. Loss of flora and fauna may occur due to the expansion of tourism industry. The influx of tourists with different life styles and different cultures may disturb the existing lifestyle and cultures of the locality. The concept of ecotourism may solve some of the issues. Ecotourism may provide economic benefits to the people and may be less destructive as compared to conventional tourism in the long run.

**KEYWORDS:** Ecotourism, conventional tourism, environmental stress, sustainable development

### INTRODUCTION

There is some confusion surrounding the etymology or origin of the term ecotourism to late 1980's from the voluminous literatures available (Orams, 1996; Hvenegaard, 1994) while other suggest its usage to late 1960's and early 1970's through the work of Muller (1989) on eco development (Higgins, 1996) and on environment tourism and culture (Hetzer, 1965). One of the themes opted out from the literatures supports the fact that Caballos-lascurain was the first to coin the phrase in early 1980's (Thompson, 1995; Boo, 1990; Van, 1996). Ecotourism most likely has a convergent evolution, 'where many places and people independently responded to the need for more nature travel opportunities in line with society's efforts to become more ecologically minded (Fennell, 1998, 2003; Nelson, 1994). This evidence comes at a time when researchers were struggling to find relationship between ecotourism and other forms of tourism (Mathiesion and Wall, 1982; Romeril, 1985). The fact that ecotourism was viable long before the 1980's in practice, if not in name from the literature that the Travel Department of the American Museum of Natural History has conducted natural history tours since 1953 (Blangy and Nielson, 1993).

The principles that separate ecotourism from its more broad-based nature counterpart include an educative component, a sustainability component, ethical nature of the experience and narrow base (Blamey, 1995; Kutay, 1989; Wight, 1993; Hawkes and Williams, 1993; Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Goodwin, 1996). The Quebec declaration in the International Year of Ecotourism (2002) suggested that five criteria be used to define ecotourism namely nature based product, minimal impact management, environmental education, contribution to conservation and contribution to community (UNEP/WTO, 2002). Although ecotourism has been defined at times by various researchers as small-scale,

sustainable, responsible, low impact, education and study, highly benefitable, local people oriented, reliance on parks and protected areas, contributes to conservation, interest in nature with long term benefits (Kutay, 1989; Ziffer, 1989; Fennell and Eagles, 1990; Valentine, 1993; Western, 1993; Brandon, 1996; Goodwin, 1996; Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Funnell, 2003). With many definitions and the continues evolution of the concept, The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) defines ecotourism as travel to natural destinations, minimizes impact, environmental awareness building, direct financial benefits to conservation, creation of financial benefits and empowerment for local people, respect local culture and supports human rights and democratic movements (Honey, 2008).

India's recognition as one of the four "mega-diversity" countries of Asia is derived largely from two of its most important biodiversity "hot-spots": the Himalayas, including the north-eastern hills along the northern border, and the Western Ghats in peninsular India (Ramakrishnan, 2000). The Himalayas cover 18% of the geographical area and extend over 12 States of India. In the context of the global agenda many programmes have been implemented for conservation and management of biodiversity in the Himalayas. These have aimed to keep the rich biodiversity of the region and limit threats to biodiversity at the local and regional level. The implementation of a Natural Resource Management Plan (NRMP)—that includes creation of protected areas in the form of sanctuaries, national parks and biosphere reserves—is an example for conservation of biodiversity and management of ecosystems in the region. These are closely linked to the surrounding resources/forests and mutually reinforcing (Nautiyal and Kaechele, 2007).

Various studies have been carried out on the symbiotic interactions among humans, animals, and plants from the perspectives of geographers, economist, biologists and

botanists (Anderson, 1952; Harlan, 1975; Cincotta *et al.*, 1992; Gooch, 1992; McCorkle, 1992; Kuznar 1994; Kaechele and Dabbert, 2002; and Maikhuri *et al* 2001). In developing countries, conservation has mainly focused on a segregated approach and mainly adopted from the North American approach for management of the area based on strict natural preservation and exclusion of human interaction and dependency despite the fact that in developing countries the human–ecosystem interaction is more complex and closely interwoven to support conservation options and the sustainable livelihood of the local people (Colchester, 1997; Ramphal, 1993 and Hjortso *et al.*, 2006). Many studies have indicated that following the segregated approach for conservation and management without emphasising the multifunctional values of ecosystems/landscape and society can lead to conflicts between conservation and utilisation of the resources. This is widely termed as resource–people conflict and has been identified as a major hurdle for sustainable management of the ecosystems/landscape (Pimbert and Pretty, 1997; Nautiyal, 1998; and Hjortso *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, the implications related to production and economic objectives of the environmental, cultural and social systems need to be emphasized in detail (Benjamin *et al.*, 2005).

Natural resources refer to functional utility that social groups derive from the environment. It is a problematic term because of attribution of utility and value to nonhuman world is one of the primary means by which dominant social groups impose order and control upon the world (Bridge, 2009). Conservation of areas and species, education, legislation and the development of natural resources are priorities for IUCN (Berwick, 1969). There is an urgent need to understand different people’s relationship with the environment and incorporate these knowledge’s, experiences and attitudes into decision making, planning and implementation process (Michener, 1998; Leech *et al.*, 1997). Environments have been modified, managed and, in some instances improved by people for centuries in most parts of the world (Ghimire and Pimbert, 1997). Protected areas have stereotypically restricted resource use for local populations and customarily lead to extensive resource alienation and economic hardship for many rural groups (Ghimire and Pimbert, 1997).

## METHODOLOGY

The search for relevant literature was approached with a rather broad perspective. Keywords were tourism, ecotourism, environment, climate, and natural resources and stress with a number of synonymous such as sightseeing, surroundings, type of weather, and people behaviour. The language was limited to English only. The quality of reference was assessed by using the criteria such as contribution of new knowledge, originality of empirical findings, use of theory in design and analysis, and finally whether the reference took the special characteristics of tourism into consideration.

## IMPACT OF TOURISM

### Climate, tourism and ecology

Climate is often said to delimit optimal zones for tourism at a global and regional scale, as illustrated by the warm temperate zone, considered optimum for sun and beach tourism (Burton, 1991). Environmental degradation is one of the shortcomings commonly associated with tourism in developing regions (Brohman, 1996). Mountain tourism in developing countries is becoming a growing environmental concern due to extreme seasonality, lack of suitable infrastructures and planning, and interference with fragile ecosystems and protected areas. High-altitude ecosystems are inherently fragile and characterized by low resiliency, and therefore they are particularly susceptible to human interference, such as soil and vegetation trampling, disturbance to native wildlife, and waste dumping (Arrowsmith and Inbakaran, 2002; Buckley *et al.*, 2000).

Concern over the ecological impacts of tourism on environment started to mount during 1960s and 1970s through the realization that the industry had the capability of either moderately altering or completely transforming destination regions in adverse ways and tourism related developmental activities have major impacts on environment (Pearce, 1985, 1982 1989, 1991). There is a need to alleviate some of the stresses caused by high concentration of tourism by employing regional development strategies designed to promote other areas (Naylon, 1967). The vital necessity for conservation in the interests of ecology, tourism and for moral, aesthetic and other reasons has been recognised at both levels, although tourism has began to play an important role in economy. Tourism development is a classic case of the battle existing between conservation and preservation (Jones, 1972). As tourism related activities have transformed much of the world natural beauty into gold, it may too have planted the seeds of its own destruction (Crittendon, 1975). Unregulated development of hotels as a result of mass tourism has threatened the quality of life (Harrington, 1971).

Krippendorff, (1977) is of the view that importance of planning and dispersion of tourists and tourism development activities is a means to minimize impacts on environment. Cohen (1978) studied the difference between developmental purposes of aesthetic appeal verses the modern unsustainable tourism.

### Tourism and environmental stress

Most studies on tourism concentrated on the economic benefits while there is tremendous range of topics related to its negative impact including pollution, crowding and congestion, ecosystem damage, loss of flora and fauna, increased urbanisation, damage to heritage resources (Travis, 1982). The resource base recognised as being acted as raw material of tourism loses its value through improper use and overuse (Krippendorff, 1982). There is always the risk of deterioration or even destruction of environment from the use of tourism resources in unsustainable manner (Romeril, 1985, 1998). Shackelford (1985) in his review on tourism and the environment is of the view that the International Union of Official Travel Organisation (IUOTO) has been working with environment hand to hand through the efforts of the Commission for Travel Development. The carrying capacity of tourist sites is an important factor in the planning and design of appropriate tourist facilities while

planning and policy are critical components of a more ecologically based tourism development strategy for the future. Newsome *et al.*, (2002) had identified a wide range of different types of environmental impacts of tourism, their sources, and place of activity. A whole range of recreational activities and their associated impacts along the lines of habitat loss, species loss, aesthetics, physical pollution, energy/water usage etc have been identified (Tribe *et al.*, 2000). Environmental impacts of tourism industry can be measured through an analysis of ecological conditions as the term impact denotes undesirable change (Hammit and Cole, 1987) and the concept of carrying capacity for tourism industry requires proper management. Previous studies have pointed out that visiting to the environmentally degraded tourist spots may have a negative impact on tourist arrivals and thus on economy (Greenpeace, 2009, Ritzer and Liska, 1997). Shrinking tourist flows have led to identification of environmental quality as a key asset for tourism and its loss with tolerance to landscape change no doubt an individual psychological dimension cannot be ignored (Caletrio, 2011).

Regulation of visitor behaviour is an important approach to address the management problems at recreational sites as ecotourists were likely to view management actions as acceptable and regulations as attainments of certain outcomes (Frost and McCool, 1988). Environmentally destructive tourism development has led to number of problems like water pollution, erosion of soils, destruction of natural habitat and to some extent cultural pollution (Mathur and Chowdhary, 1999). Development of tourism activities are often accompanied by a host of negative impacts on ecology, environment and socio-economy of the host communities/destinations (Pleumaron, 1992; Mathiesion and Wall, 1982; Butler, 1990; Nelson, 1994). Tourism has been blamed for damaging local environments in different regions of the world (Lukashina *et al.*, 1996). Tourism is often viewed as a means of achieving development in destination areas as tourism takes place in any destination area (environment) which are made up of both human and natural features. The human environment comprises of economic, social and cultural factors and processes while the natural environment is possible to comprise plants and animals and their habitat and environment is particularly useful when discussing the impact of environment (Mason, 2003). A study on economic and environmental impacts of tourism indicated that 57.6% of the residents suggest that the historical buildings and natural environment had been resorted due to introduction of tourism and 71.2% indicate that tourism has not yet produced any pollution and 66.7% indicated that construction of tourism facilities resulted in destroying the natural environment in some coastal areas (Hazbar and Anand, 2009).

Tourism, religious activities, bathing, washing, road construction, fishing, drinking water intake, rafting etc affect water quality (Semwal and Akolkar, 2006) and unsustainable tourism activities including forest fires, landslides affect River ecology (Singh *et al.*, 2002). Tourism is having a wide range of impacts on water quality from untreated human wastes, resorts, hotels, roads, and vehicle parking's (Pickering *et al.*, 2001; Cullen, 1992; Marston and Yapp, 1992; Good and Grenier,

1994; Digance and Norris, 1999; Growcock, 1999; Buckley *et al.*, 2000). Tourist facilities increase the amount of impervious surfaces, causing more runoff to reach water bodies and this runoff contains nutrients, suspended particles, oil and gas affecting water quality (Davies and Cahill, 2000). Tourism is increasingly built on the marketing of nature and natural resources, which have become its central elements (Urry, 1995). The marketing of immobile resources such as landscapes, sights, and cultures represents a substantial economic advantage for tropical developing countries, because their immobility makes it necessary for tourists to travel in order to consume them ( Urry, 1990). Moreover, tourism allows the use of natural areas which are otherwise of less economic value for developing countries, but perfectly meet the demands of industry (World Bank, 1998; WWF, 1995).

The rising interest in nature is thus seen as a major advantage for developing countries, with economic gains even contributing to the conservation of protected and other areas (Ellenberg, 1999; Vorlaufer, 1997). Natural reserve tourism has gained much importance over other types of tourism promoting increase in the number of natural reserves (Mu *et al.*, 2007). Negative impacts from tourism include water pollution, land degradation, destruction of breeding environment and food sources for wild animals (Yang and Ding, 2003). Environmental degradation, species loss, waste accumulation, water pollution, and landscape degradation in natural reserves are widely reported (Wang and Hao, 1988). Decreased water quality, loss of flora and fauna, habitat destruction and reduction as a result of tourism activities have been reported in protected areas of Australia (Pickering *et al.*, 2001). Cooper (1995) identified the adverse impacts of tourism on natural areas characterised by loss of habitat, damage to soil and vegetation, floral and faunal disturbance. The earth is fast becoming an unfit home for its noblest inhabitants and perhaps even extinction of the species (Bowler, 1993).

#### **Impact of tourism on flora and fauna of sanctuaries:**

Today sanctuaries serve a variety of purposes but face number of pressures from tourist activities (Lovejoy, 1992). Disruption of local cultures and economies has adverse impacts on ecologically fragile areas (Hough, 1988). Natural reserve tourism has major threats because of external pressures from recreational activities (Dearden and Rollins, 1993). Growing concerns about negative impacts of tourism and tourists on short and long term animal behaviour (Constantine and Bejder, 2007; Green and Giese, 2004; Green and Higginbottom, 2001; Higginbottom *et al.*, 2001), physiology and reproductive success (Constantine and Bejder, 2007) have been raised. Negative impacts on the environment like trampling, wave action, management actions and pollution, may in turn show impact on the wildlife (Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001). Various studies have illustrated the negative impacts often resulting from tourist-wildlife interaction (Hanna and Wells, 1992; Burger and Gochfield, 1993; Griffith and Van Schaik, 1993; Ingold *et al.*, 1993; Wallace and Lindberg, 1993; Viskovic, 1993; Muir, 1993; Orams, 1995).

In birds, negative impacts of tourism may result in nest failure and reduced reproductive success, which

potentially affects population growth or stability of species (Haysmith and Hunt, 1995). Bird communities have been studied fairly well both in temperate and tropical forests (Black, 2007; Keast, 1990; Latta *et al.*, 2003; Robinson *et al.*, 2000; Terborgh *et al.*, 1990; Thiollay, 1994). It is essential to delineate the importance of regional or local landscapes for avian conservation by understanding the diversity and structure of bird communities (Kattan and Franco, 2004). Studies have documented the bird communities of Himalayan region, mostly in western part (Khan *et al.*, 1993; Price *et al.*, 2003; Shafiq *et al.*, 1997; Sultana and Khan, 1999, Sultana *et al.*, 2007), few in east region (Acharya, 2008; Chettri *et al.*, 2001; Raman *et al.*, 1998). Eastern Himalaya, a global hotspot of biodiversity and an Endemic Bird Area (Mittermeier *et al.*, 2005; Myers *et al.*, 2000; Stattersfield *et al.*, 1998) is biologically most diverse region in India, probably because of diverse climatic conditions and marked altitudinal zonation of vegetation (Hooker, 1854; Mani, 1974) and Overa-Aru Sanctuary falls in this region.

There is an increasing evidence that wildlife tourism can have positive short and long term impacts on visitors' environment, via developing a respect and appreciation for wildlife and nature; environmental issue awareness raising; promotion of environmentally sustainable attitudes and actions; and building tourists capacity for the longer term adoption of sustainable living practices (Ballantyne and Packer, 2009; Ballantyne, *et al.*, 2007; Tisdell and Wilson, 2005; Zeppel and Muloin, 2007). A more notable positive impact of wildlife tourism on the environment itself is by providing income for the protection and sustainable management of wildlife and wildlife habitats (Buckley, 2002, Buckley, 1999.; Fennell, 1998; Goodwin *et al.*, 1998; Wilson and Tisdell, 2001; Zeppel and Muloin, 2007); encouragement of visitors to make financial and non-financial contributions to environmental causes; providing socio-economic incentives for the conservation of natural resources (Higginbottom *et al.*, 2001; and influencing of tourist behaviour. The educational aspects of wildlife tourism experiences impact not only on visitor learning and subsequent behaviour, but are also an important contributor to visitor satisfaction with the experience (Moscardo and Saltzer, 2004).

Observing, feeding, touching, photographing, experiencing wildlife occurs in a wide variety of settings throughout the world as evident from various works (Duffus and Dearden, 1990; Clamen and Rossier, 1991; Duffus and Wipond, 1992; Muir, 1993; Hammitt *et al.*, 1993; Shackley, 1996; Ryan, 1998). Increased growth of nature-based tourism and more specifically wildlife-based tourism is having a lot of potential benefits for wildlife (Davies, 1990; Groom *et al.*, 1991; Borge *et al.*, 1991; Barnes *et al.*, 1992; Burnie, 1994). Natural area tourism involves experiencing natural ecosystems or wildlife for recreation or education (Haysmith and Hunt, 1995) with a significant proportion of wildlife tourism focussing on endangered or threatened species (Shackley, 1996), and much nature-based tourism takes place in protected areas (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). Tourism can also provide the economic strength for the long-term conservation of endangered and rare species (Wilson and Tisdell, 2001), and result in the creation or continued existence of protected areas (Hunter, 1995). Despite all these efforts

and potential, creation of a symbiotic relationship between tourism and conservation has often been unattainable (Higham and Luck, 2002). However, there is growing recognition that activities such as wildlife viewing, photography, and even the simple act of walking through an animal's territory, can have serious negative impacts on wildlife (Boyle and Samson, 1985; Gutzwiller, 1995).

#### **Impact of tourism on socio economics**

A notable social impact of tourism on traditional values is where local consumption patterns change to that of the tourists (Britton, 1977; Hope, 1980), with tourism leading to conflicts between locals and hosts (Erisman, 1983). Studies on back water tourism in Kerala: Challenges and Opportunities implies that the effect of tourism on environment as felt by different category of people cannot be ignored by the fact that 39.2% of the respondents were of the opinion that environment is very much effected, 37.7% were of the opinion that environment is slightly effected and 23.1% opined that environment is not at all effected (Zacharias *et al.*, 2008). Creaco and Querini (2003) identified issues for future consideration, especially in view of making tourism to become compatible with the conservation of major ecosystems and with the preservation and good use of historical-cultural heritage. The socio economic and socio environmental impact of tourism in the developing countries highlighted that tourism is an economic and industrial activity in which many individuals, firms, organisations, cooperation's and associations are engaged and is directly concerned to many others (Negi, 1990). The tourism industry in India is associated with various problems and various measures for removal of these problems were suggested and analysed for tourism promotion (Singh, 2003).

Tourism has lead to emergence of a lifestyle that is oriented towards leisure, pleasure, and consumption (Craik, 1995). Overall, tourism can be seen as an agent of modernization, which decontextualizes and dissolves the relationships individuals have with society and nature while increasing the separation from structures, being the base of sustainable human-Environmental relations (Croll and Parkin, 1992; Ingold, 1996). The inclusion and involvement of local communities in tourism management is a big boost for tourism industry as local residents are seen as a key resource in sustaining the product (Hardy *et al.*, 2002). Community participation ensures a level of sustainability in tourism Industry (Woodley, 1993) with better opportunities for local people to gain benefits with the development of positive local attitudes and the conservation of local resources (Tosun, 2006). Sebele (2010) is of the view that increased local involvement and participation will help to ensure that people are empowered and the conservation of natural resources takes place and community-based ventures, if properly run and managed, can promote the conservation of natural resources and increase local benefits through participation in tourism activities.

A study on ecotourism concluded that, it endeavours to encourage and support the diversity of local economies for which the tourism related income is important and the revenue generation from tourism helps and encourages governments to fund conservation projects and training programmes (Babu, 2010). Tourism is less environmentally destructive than other forms of

development and there are many significant effects which may be attributed by tourism. Ecotourism may or may not improve the socio economic conditions of developing countries by limited dollars, government directed financing, foreign vegetation, ownership of hotels and other facilities and non existing land use planning (Kusler, 1991). Important environmental challenge facing tourist planners and managers is not to find small numbers of environmentally aware visitors into fresh environments rather to devise sustainable forms of mass tourism (Wall, 1994). Tourism may provide economic benefits for conservation and this relationship is unsustainable if visitors reduce the viability of local ecosystems through the disturbance of wildlife (Lindsay *et al.*, 2008).

## CONCLUSION

Sustainable usage of protected areas by tourists is dependent upon identifying the coming impacts of tourism, proper management practices, encouraging awareness and responsible usage. A lot of adverse environmental impacts in protected areas are potentially caused by tourism with Government need to control the pace. Conventional tourism has negative impacts resulting in habitat loss, erosion, floral damage, and hydrological changes in protected areas. A popular recreational pursuit, wildlife tourism raises major concerns because of its impact on wild species and their habitats. Wildlife tourism management should be such so as not to disturb the breeding behaviour and breeding success by careful supervision, monitoring and control. There is a dire need to remove some of the stresses caused by high concentration of tourist inflow by introducing ecotourism in these fragile areas. The change in the lifestyle and culture of the communities living in and around tourist spots is an invisible threat to the local culture and lifestyle of the people.

## REFERENCES

- Acharya, B.K. (2008) Bird communities and their distribution pattern along the elevation gradient of Teesta Valley, Sikkim. Ph. D. Thesis. Bharathiar University, Coimbatore, India.
- Anderson, E. (1952) *Plants, Man and Life*. University of California Press, Berkeley.
- Arrowsmith, C. and R. Inbakaran (2002) Estimating environmental resiliency for the Grampian National Park, Victoria, Australia: A quantitative approach. *Tourism Manage.*, **23**: 295-309.
- Babu, S. (2010) Ecotourism in the mudamalai wild life sanctuary. *Southern Ecotourists*, Bangalore, India.
- Ballantyne, R. and J. Packer (2009) Future Directions for Research in Free-Choice Environmental Learning. In Falk, J., J. Heimlich and S. Foutz (Eds.), *Free-Choice Learning and the Environment*. Lanham, MD: AltaMira Press. Pp: 157-170
- Ballantyne, R., J. Packer, K. Hughes and L. Dierking (2007) Conservation learning in wildlife tourism settings: Lessons from research in zoos and aquariums. *Environ. Educat. Res.*, **13**: 367-383.
- Barnes, J., J. Burgess and D. Pearce (1992) Wildlife Tourism. In Swanson, T.M. and E.B. Barbier (Eds.), *Economics for the Wilds: Wildlife, Wild Lands, Diversity and Development*. London: Earth Scan Publications. pp:136-150
- Benjamin, K., G. Domon and A. Bouchard (2005) Vegetation composition and succession of abandoned farmland: effects of ecological, historical and spatial factors. *Landsc. Ecol.*, **20**: 627-647.
- Berwick, E.J.H. (1969) The international union of conservation of nature and natural resources: Current activities and situation. *Biolog. Conservat.*, **3**: 191-199.
- Black, J.G., 2007. Neo tropical forest bird communities: A comparison of species richness and composition at local and regional scales. *Condor*, **109**: 237-255.
- Blamey, R.K. (1995) The nature of ecotourism. Occasional paper No. 21. ACT: Bureau of the Tourism Research, Canberra,.
- Blangy, S. and T. Neilson, 1993. Ecotourism and minimum impact policy. *Ann. Tourists Res.*, **20**: 357-360.
- Boo, E. (1990) *Ecotourism: The Potentials and Pitfalls*, Washington, DC; World Wildlife Fund, pp: 85
- Borge, L., W.C. Nelson, J.A. Leitch and F.L. Leistritz (1991) Economic impact of wildlife-based tourism in Northern Botswana. Agricultural Economics Report No. 262. Agriculture Experiment Station, North Dakota University, North Dakota.
- Bowler, P.J. (1993) *The Norton History of Environmental Sciences*, New York: W.W. Norton.
- Boyle, S.A. and F.B. Samson, 1985. Effects of non-consumptive recreation on wildlife: A review. *Wildlife Soc. Bull.*, **13**: 110-116.
- Brandon, K. (1996) Ecotourism and conservation: A review of key issues, environment department paper No. 23. The World Bank, Washington, DC., USA.
- Bridge, G. (2009) Natural resources. *International Encyclopaedia of Human Geography*, pp: 261-268.
- Britton, R.A. (1977) Making tourism more supportive of small state development. The case of St. Vincent. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **4**: 268-278.
- Brohman, J. (1996) New directions in tourism for third world development. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **23**: 48-70.
- Buckley, R. (2002) Tourism and biodiversity in North and South. *Tourism Recreat. Res.*, **27**: 43-51.
- Buckley, R.C. (1999) *Perspective in Environmental Management*. Berlin: Springer.

- Buckley, R.C., C.M. Pickering and J. Warken (2000) Environment Management of Alpine Tourism and Resort in Australian, In: Doode, P., F.M. Price and F.M. Zimmermann (Eds.), *Tourism and Development in Mountain Regions*, New York: CABI, 27-45.
- Burger, J. and M. Gochfield (1993) Tourism and short term behavioural responses of nesting masked red-footed and blue footed boobies in the Galapagos. *Environ. Conservat.*, **20**: 255-259.
- Burnie, D. (1994) Ecotourists to paradise. *New Scientist*, 142: 23-25.
- Burton, R. (1991) *Travel Geography*. London: Pitman Publishing.
- Butler, R.W. (1990) Alternative tourism: Peons hope or Trojan Horse?. *Journal of Travel Research*, **28**: 40-45.
- Caletrio, J. (2011) Tourism, landscape change and critical thresholds. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **38**: 313-316
- Ceballos-Lascurain, H. (1996) Tourism, ecotourism and protected areas: The State of nature-based tourism around the world and guidelines for its development. The World Conservation Union, Gland, Switzerland, pp: 301
- Chettri, N., E. Sharma and D.C. Deb. (2001) Bird community structure along a trekking corridor of Sikkim Himalaya: A conservation perspective. *Biolog. Conservat.*, **102**: 1-16.
- Cincotta, R.P., Y. Zhang and X. Zhou (1992) Transhumant alpine pastoralism in North-Eastern Qinghai Province: An evaluation of livestock population response China's agrarian economic reform. *Nomad Peoples*, **30**: 3-26.
- Clamen, E. and E. Rossier (1991) Animal tourism and leisure in rural areas. *Equ'idee Bull. Inform. Equides*, **2**: 42-49.
- Cohen, E. (1978) The impact of tourism on the physical environment. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **5**: 215-237.
- Colchester, M. (1997) Salvaging Nature: Indigenous People and Protected Areas. In: Chimire, K.B. and M.P. Pimbert (Eds.), *Editors, Social Change and Conservation*, Earth Scan, London. 97-130.
- Constantine, R. and L. Bejder (2007) Managing the Whale and Dolphin-Watching Industry: Time for a Paradigm Shift. In Higham, J. and M. Luck (Eds.), *Marine Wildlife and Tourism Management: Insights from the Natural and Social Sciences*, (pp. 321-333). Wallingford, Oxfordshire: CABI.
- Cooper, C. (1995) Strategic planning for sustainable tourism: The case study of the offshore islands of UK. *J. Sustainable Tourism*, **3**: 191-209.
- Craik, J. (1995) Are there cultural limits to tourism?. *J. Sustainable Tourism*, **3**: 87-98.
- Creaco, S. and G. Querini (2003) The role of tourism in sustainable economic development. Proceedings of the 43<sup>rd</sup> Congress of the European Regional Science Association, 27-30 Aug. (2003). Jyväskylä Finland, pp: 1-26
- Crittendon, A. (1975) Tourism's terrible toll. *Int. Wildlife*, **5**: 4-12.
- Croll, E. and D. Parkin (1992) Anthropology, the Environment and Development. In *Bush Base: Forest Farm-Culture, Environment and Development*, Croll, E. and D. Parkin (Eds.), pp. 3-10. London: Routledge.
- Cullen, P. (1992) Management of Water Quality in the Australian Alps. In: Good, R.B. and P. Ghenier (Eds.), *The Australian Alps. Revue of Geographic Alpine 53*, Institute of Geographic Alpine, University Joseph Fourier. Grenoble, France, pp:425-449.
- Davies, M. (1990) Wildlife as a tourism attraction. *Environments*, **20**: 74-77.
- Davies, T. and S. Cahill (2000) Environmental implications of the tourist industry. Discussion Paper, Washington, DC., USA pp: 9.
- Dearden, P. and R. Rollins (1993) The Times They are a Changing. in Dearden, P. and R. Rollins (Eds.), *Parks and Protected Areas in Canada: Planning and Management*, Toronto: Oxford University Press. Pp:416
- Digance, J. and R.H. Norris (1999) Environmental impact of tourism in the Australian Alps: The thredbo River valley. *Pacific Tourism Rev.*, **3**: 37-48.
- Duffus, D.A. and P. Dearden, (1990) Non-consumptive wildlife oriented recreation: A conceptual framework. *Biolog. Conservat.*, **53**, 213-231.
- Duffus, D.A. and K.J. Wipond (1992) A review of the institutionalization of wildlife viewing in B.C. Canada. *Northwestern Environ. J.*, **8**: 325-345.
- Erismann, H.M. (1983) Tourism and cultural dependency in the West Indies. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **10**: 337-361.
- Fennell, D.A. (1998) Ecotourism in Canada. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **25**: 231-234.
- Fennell, D.A. (2003) *Ecotourism: An Introduction*. (2nd edition). Routledge, Taylor and Francis group. London and New York. 2-25.
- Fennell, D.A. and P.F.J. Eagles (1990) Ecotourism in Costa Rica: A conceptual framework. *J. Park and recreation Administration*, **8**: 23-34.
- Frost, J.E. and S.F. McCool (1988) Can visitor regulations enhance recreation experiences? *Environ. Manage.*, **12**: 5-9.
- Gooch, P. (1992) Transhumant pastoralism in Northern India: The Gujar case. *Nomad Peoples*, **30**: 84-97.

- Good, R.B. and P. Grenier (1994) *Some environmental impacts of recreation in the Australian Alps*. Australian Parks and Recreation.
- Goodwin, H. (1996) In pursuit of ecotourism. *Biodiversity Conservat.*, **5**: 277-291.
- Goodwin, H., I. Kent, K. Parker and M. Walpole (1998) *Tourism, conservation and sustainable development*. IIED Wildlife and Development Series No. 12.
- Green, R.J. and M. Giese, (2004) Negative Effects of Wildlife Tourism on Wildlife. In Higginbottom, K. (Ed.), *Wildlife Tourism: Impacts, Management and Planning*, (pp. 81-97). Australia: Common Ground Publishing
- Green, R.J. and K. Higginbottom (2001) *Negative effects of wildlife tourism on wildlife*. Wildlife tourism research report no. 5. Status assessment of wildlife tourism in Australia series. CRC for Sustainable Tourism, Gold Coast, Queensland.
- Greenpeace (2009) *Destruction a toda costa: Informe 2009*. Greenpeace, Madrid
- Griffith, M. and C.P. Van Schaik (1993) The impact of human traffic on the abundance and activity periods of Sumatran rain forest wildlife. *Conservat. Biol.*, **7**: 623-626.
- Ghimire, K.B. and M.P. Pimbert (1997) *Social Change and Conservation: Environmental Politics and Impacts of National Park and Protected Areas*, London: Earth Scan, pp: 342
- Groom, M.J., R.O. Poldosky and C.A. Munn (1991) *Tourism as a Sustained use of Wildlife: A Case Study of Madre de Dios, South-Eastern Peru*. In: Robinson, J. G. and K.H. Redford (Eds.), *Neotropical Wildlife use and Conservation*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press. Pp: 393-412, USA
- Growcock, A.J. (1999) *Ski Industry development in Kosciuszko National Park*. Graduate Diploma Thesis, Canberra: Australian National University.
- Gutzwiller, K.J. (1995) *Recreational Disturbance and Wildlife Communities*. In Knight, R.L. and K.J. Gutzwiller (Eds.), *Wildlife and Recreationists: Coexistence Through Management and Research*, 169-181. Washington: Island Press.
- Hammitt, W.E. and D.C. Cole. (1987) *Wild Land Recreation: Ecology and Management*, New York, John Wiley.
- Hammitt, W.E., J.N. Dulin and G.R. Wells (1993) *Determinants of quality wildlife viewing in Great Smokey Mountains National Park*. *Wildlife Soc. Bull.*, **21**: 21-30.
- Hanna, N. and S. Wells (1992) *Sea sickness*. *Focus Tourism Concern*, **5**: 4-6.
- Hardy, A., R.J.S. Beeton and L. Pearson (2002) *Sustainable tourism: An overview of the concept and its position in relation to conceptualisations of tourism*. *J. Sustainable Tourism*, **10**: 475-496.
- Harlan, J. (1975) *Crops and Man*. American Society of Agronomy, Madison, Wisconsin. R.P., USA., pp: 295
- Harrington, I. (1971) *The trouble with tourism unlimited*. *New Statesman*, **82**: 176-176.
- Hawkes, S. and P. Williams (1993) *The GREENING of Tourism, from Principles to Practice: A Casebook of Best Environmental Practice in Tourism*. Centre for Tourism Policy and Research, UK., Pp: 104
- Haysmith, L. and J.D. Hunt (1995) *Nature Tourism: Impacts and Management*. In Knight, R.L. and K.J. Gutzwiller (Eds.), *Wildlife and Recreationists: Coexistence Through Management and Research*: 203-219. Washington: Island Press
- Hazbar, A.M.H.A. and D. Anand (2009) *Economic and environmental impacts of tourism on Socotra Island*. *Southern Econ.*, **48**: 21-27.
- Hetzer, N.D. (1965) *Environment, tourism, culture*. UNNS, *Reported Ecosphere*, pp: 1-3.
- Higginbottom, K., C.L. Northrope and R.J. Green, (2001) *Positive effects of wildlife tourism on wildlife*. Wildlife tourism research report No. 6. Status assessment of wildlife tourism in Australia series. CRC for Sustainable Tourism, Gold Coast, Queensland.
- Higgins, B.R. (1996) *The global structure of the nature tourism industry: Ecotourists, tour operators and local businesses*. *Journal of travel Research*, **35**: 11-18.
- Higham, J. and M. Luck (2002) *Urban ecotourism: A contradiction in terms?*. *J. Ecotourism*, **1**: 36-51.
- Hjortso, C.N., S. Steffen and H. Finn (2006) *Applying multi-criteria decision-making to protected areas and buffer zone management: A case study in the Royal Chitwan National Park*. *Nepal J. For Econ.*, **12**: 91-108.
- Honey, M. (2008) *Ecotourism and Sustainable Development: Who Owns Paradise?* 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Washington, DC: Island press. 55.
- Hope, K.R. (1980) *The Caribbean Tourism sector: Recent performance and trends*. *Tourism Manage.*, **1**: 175-183.
- Hough, J.L. (1988) *Obstacles to effective management of conflicts between national parks and surroundings human communities in developing countries*. *Environ. Conservat.*, **15**: 129136
- Hunter, C.J. (1995) *On the need to re-conceptualize sustainable tourism development*. *J. Sustainable Tourism*, **3**: 155-165.
- Hvenegaard, G.T. (1994) *Ecotourism: A status report and conceptual framework*. *J. Tourism Stud.*, **5**: 24-35.

- Ingold, P., B. Huber, P. Neuhaus, B. Mainini, H. Marbacher, R. Schinidrig-Petrig and R. Zeller (1993) Tourism and sports in the alps a serious problem for wildlife?. *Rev. Suisse. Zool.*, **100**: 529–545.
- Ingold, T. (1996) Hunting and Gathering as Ways of Perceiving the Environment. *In Redefining Nature: Ecology, Culture and Domestication*, Fukai, R. (Ed.), pp:117-155. Oxford: Berg.
- Jones, H. (1972) Gozo: The living show piece. *Geograp. Magazine*, **45**: 53-57.
- Kaechele, H. and S. Dabbert, 2002. Kaechele and Dabbert, An economic approach for a better understanding of conflicts between farmers and nature conservationists: An application of the decision support system MODAM to the Lower Odra Valley National Park. *Agric. Syst.*, **74**: 241-255.
- Kattan, G.H. and P. Franco, 2004. Bird diversity along devotional gradients in the Andes Colombia area and mass effect. *Global Ecol. Biogeograp.*, **13**: 451-458
- Keast, A., 1990. Biogeography and Ecology of Forest Bird Communities. SPB Academic Publishing BV, The Netherlands. Pp:410
- Khan, J.A., D.N. Khan and A. Ahmed, 1993. Preliminary investigation of bird community structure of Aligarh, India. *Trop. Ecol.*, **34**: 217-225.
- Krippendorf, J., 1982. Towards new tourism policies. *Tourism Manage.*, **3**: 135-148.
- Kuznar, L.A., 1994. Transhumant pastoralism in the high Sierra of the south central Andes: Human response to environmental and social security. *Nomad Peoples*, **28**: 93-105.
- Kusler, J.A., 1991. Ecotourism and Resource Conservation: Introduction to Issues, in Kuslers, J.A. (Ed.), *Ecotourism and Resource Conservation: A Collection of Papers*, Volume 1. Madison, WI: Omnipress. Pp: 885
- Kutay, K., 1989. The new ethic in adventure travel. *Buzz Worm. Environ. J.*, **1**: 31-34.
- Laarman, J.G. and P.B. Durst, 1987. Nature travel and tropical forests. PPEI working paper series. South-Eastern Centre for Forest Economics Research, New Caroline State University, Raleigh.
- Latta, S.C., C.C. Rimmer and K.P. Mcfarland, 2003. Winter bird communities in four habitats along an elevational gradient on Hispanida. *The Condor*, **105**: 179 - 197.
- Leech, M., R. Mearns and I. Scoones, 1997. Environmental entitlements: A framework for understanding the institutional dynamics of environment change. Institute of Development Studies, Sussex, UK.
- Lindsay, K., J. Craig and M. Low, 2008. Tourism and conservation: The effects of track proximity on avian reproductive success and nest selection in an open Sanctuary. *Tourism Manage.*, **29**:730–739.
- Lovejoy, T., 1992. Looking to the next millnum. National Parks, pp: 41-44.
- Lukashina, N., M. Amirkhanov, V. Anisimov and A. Trunav, 1996. Tourism and environmental degradation in Sochi Russia. *Annals of tourism Research*, **23**: 654-665.
- Mani, M.S., 1974. Ecology and Biogeography in India. W. Junk Publishers, USA.,Pp: 773
- Marston, F. and G. Yapp, 1992. A selected annotated Bibliography of Recreation water quality in alpine areas. CSIRO Institute of Natural Resources and Environment, Canberra.
- Mason, P., 2003. Tourism Impact: Planning and Management. Oxford: Butler – worth-Heinmann., pp: 195
- Mathiesion, A. and G. Wall, 1982. Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts. Longman, New York, USA., pp: 208.
- Mathur, P. and N.R. Chaudhary, 1999. Environmental degradation at Pushkar valley (India): Restrain tourism or promote tourism. *Biologica*, **37**: 117-123.
- McCorkle, C.M., 1992. Plants, Animals and People: Agropastoral Systems Research. West View, Boulder. USA Pp: 196
- Michener, V.J., 1998. The participatory approach: Contradiction and co-option in Burkina Faso. *World Develop.*, **26**: 2015-2118.
- Mittermeier, R.A., P.R. Gill, M. Hoffman, J. Pilgrim and T. Brooks <I>et al</I>., 2005. Hotspots Revisited: Earth's Biologically Richest and Most Endangered Terrestrial Ecoregions. CEMEX, UK., pp: 391
- Moscardo, G. and R. Saltzer, 2004. Understanding Wildlife Tourism Markets. In Higginbottom, K. (Ed.), *Wildlife Tourism: Impacts, Management and Planning*, Common Ground Publishing, USA., pp. 167-186.
- Mu, B., L. Yang and M. Zhou, 2007. Research progress in eco-Tourism in nature reserves in China. *J. Fujjian For. Sci. Technol.*, **3**: 241-247.
- Muir, F., 1993. Managing tourism to a sea-bird nesting island. *Tourism Manage.*, **14**: 99-105.
- Muller, K.R., 1989. Planning National Parties for Ecodevelopment: Methods and Cases from Latin America, Washington, DC: Peace Corps. USA
- Myers, N., R.A. Mittermeier, C.G. Mittermeier, G.A.B. da Fonseca and J. Kent, 2000. Biodiversity hotspots for conservation properties. *Nature*, **403**: 853-858.
- Nautiyal, S., 1998. Ecosystem function of buffer zone villages of Nanda Devi Biosphere Reserve. M.Sc. Thesis,



H.N.B. Garhwal University Srinagar, Garhwal, Uttaranchal, India.

Nautiyal, S. and H. Kaechele, 2007. Adverse impacts of pasture abandonment in Himalayan protected areas: Testing the efficiency of a natural resource management plan (NRMP). *Environ. Impact Assessment Rev.*, **27**: 109-125.

Naylon, J., 1967. Tourism: Spain's most important industry. *Geography*, **52**: 23-40.

Negi, J., 1990. Tourism and Travel-Concept and Principles. Gitanjali Publications House, New Delhi.

Nelson, J.G., 1994. The spread of ecotourism: Some planning implications. *Environ. Conservation*, **21**: 248-256

Newsome, D., S.A. Moore and R.K. Dowling, 2002. Natural Area Tourism: Ecology, Impacts and Management. Channel View Publications, Clevedon, UK

Orams, M.B., 1996. A conceptual model of tourist-wildlife interaction: The case of education as the management Strategy. *Austr. Geographer*, **27**: 39-51.

Orams, M.B., 1995. Development and management of a wild dolphin feeding program at Tangalooma, Australia. *Aquatic Mammals*, **21**: 39-51.

Pearce, D., 1989. *Tourist Development*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edn., Longman **Publisher**, Harlow, England.

Pearce, D.G., 1985. Tourism and environmental research: a Review, *International journal of Environmental Studies*, **25**: 247-255.

Pearce, D.G., 1991. *Tourism Development*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.

Pearce, P.L., 1982. *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behaviour*. Pergamon Press, Oxford.

Pickering, C.M., S. Johnston, K. Green and G. Enders, 2001. People on the Roof: Impacts of Tourism on the Alpine Area of Mt. Kosciuszko. *Nature Tourism and the Environment*, Qucklay, R. (Ed.). Australian Academy of Science, Canberra.

Pimbert, M.P. and J.N. Pretty, 1997. Parks, Peoples and Professionals: Putting Participation into Protected Area Management. *Social Change and Conservation*, K.B. Chimire and M.P. Pimbert (Eds.). Earthscan, London, pp: 297-330.

Plumaron, A., 1992. Course and effect: Golf tourism in Thailand. *Ecologist*, **22**: 104-110.

Price, T., J. Zee, K. Jamdar and N. Jamdar, 2003. Bird species diversity along the Himalaya: A comparison of Himachal Pradesh with Kashmir. *J. Bombay Nat. Hist. Soc.*, **100**: 394-409.

Rao, K.S. and K.G. Saxena, 1994. Effect on land use on *Dendrocalamus hamiltonii* nees and Arn. *Ex.*

munro regeneration during early secondary successional stage in north east India. *J. Trop. Sci.*, **7**: 347-354.

Maikhuri, R.K., S. Nautiyal, K.S. Rao and K.G. Saxena, **2001**. Conservation policy and people conflicts: A case study from Nanda Devi biosphere reserve (a World Heritage Site), India. *For. Policy Econ.*, **2**: 355-365.

Ramakrishnan, P.S., 2000. Biodiversity, Land Use and Traditional Ecological Knowledge: The Context. Mountain Biodiversity, Land Use Dynamics and Traditional Ecological Knowledge, Ramakrishnan, P.S., U.M. Chandrashekar, C.Z. Guilamoto, R.K. Maikhuri, K.S. Rao and K.G. Saxena (Eds.). Oxford and IBH Publication, New Delhi, India, pp: 3-13.

Raman, T.R.S., G.S. Rawat and A.J.T. Johnsingh, 1998. Recovery of tropical rainforest avifauna in relation vegetation succession following shifting cultivation in Mizoram, Northeast India. *J. Applied Ecol.*, **35**: 214-231.

Ramphal, S., 1993. How Protected Area can Meet Society's Needs: The Social Economic and Political Issues. *Parks and Progress*, Barzetti, V. (Ed.). IUCN, Cambridge, pp:1-33.

Reynolds, P.C. and D. Braithwaite, 2001. Towards a conceptual frame for wildlife tourism. *Tourism Manage.*, **22**: 31-42.

Ritzer, G. and A. Liska, 1997. McDisneyization and Post-Tourism: Complementary Perspectives on Contemporary Tourism. *Touring Cultures: Transformations of Travel and Theory*, Rojek, C. and J. Urry (Eds.). Routledge, London, pp: 96-109

Robinson, W.D., J.D. Brawn and S.K. Robinson, 2000. Forest bird community structure in central Panama, influence of special scale and biogeography. *Ecol. Monographs*, **70**: 209-235.

Romeril, M., 1985. Tourism and the environment-towards a symbolic relationship. *Int. J. Environ. Stud.*, **25**: 215-218.

Romeril, M., 1998. Tourism and the environment: Accord or discord. *Tourism Manage.*, **12**: 76-77.

Ryan, C., 1998. Saltwater crocodiles as tourist attractions. *J. Sustainable Tourism*, **6**: 314-327.

Shafiq, T., S. Javed and J.A. Khan, 1997. Bird community structure of middle altitude oak forest in Kumaon Himalayas, India: A preliminary investigation. *Int. J. Ecol. Environ. Sci.*, **23**: 389-400.

Sebele, L.S., 2010. Community-based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama rhino sanctuary trust, central district, Botswana. *Tourism Manage.*, **31**: 136-146.

Semwal, N. and P. Akolkar, 2006. Water quality Assessment of sacred Himalayan Rivers of Uttaranchal. *Current service*, **91**: 486-496.

- Shackelford, P., 1985. The world tourism organization-30 years of commitment to environmental protection. *Int. J. Environ. Stud.*, **25**: 257-264.
- Shackley, M., 1996. *Wildlife Tourism*. International Thompson Business Press, London.
- Singh, S.P., D. Pathak and R. Singh, 2002. Hydrobiological studies of two ponds of satna (M.P.) India. *Econ. Environ. Cons.*, **8**: 289-292.
- Stattersfield, A.J., M.J. Crosby, A.J. Long and D.C. Wege, 1998. *Endemic Bird Areas of the World: Priorities for Biodiversity Conservation*. Bird Life International, Cambridge. U.K
- Sultana, A. and J.A. Khan, 1999. Avian Community in the Kumaon Himalayan, India-A preliminary study. *Int. J. Ecol. Environ. Sci.*, **25**: 167-176.
- Sultana, A., M.S. Hussain and J.A. Khan, 2007. Birds communities of the proposed Nabia and Pindari wildlife sanctuaries in the Kumaon Himalaya, Uttarakhand, India. *J. Bombay Nat. Hist. Soc.*, **104**: 19-29.
- Terborgh, J., S.K. Robinson, T.A. Parker, C.A. Munn and N. Pierpont, 1990. Structure and organization of an Amazonian forest bird community. *Ecol. Monographs*, **60**: 213 – 238.
- Thiollay, J.M., 1994. Structure, density and rarity in an Amazonian rainforest bird community. *J. Trop. Ecol.*, **10**: 449-481.
- Thompson, P., 1995. The errant e-word: Putting ecotourism back on track. *Explore* **73**: 62-72.
- Tisdell, C. and C. Wilson, 2005. Perceived impacts of ecotourism on environmental learning and conservation: Turtle watching as a case study. *Environ. Dev. Sustainability*, **7**: 291-302.
- Tosun, C., 2006. Expected nature of community participation in tourism development. *Tourism Manage.*, **27**: 493-504.
- Travis, A.S., 1982. Physical impact: Trends affecting tourism. *Tourism Manage.*, **3**: 256-262.
- Tribe, J., X. Font, N. Griffiths, R. Vickery and K. Yale, 2000. *Environmental Management for Rural Tourism and Recreation*, Cassell, London, ISBN-13: 9780304706938
- UNEP/WTO, 2002. Quebec declaration on ecotourism: <http://www.gdrc.org/uem/eco-tour/quebec-declaration.pdf>
- Urry, J., 1990. *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. London: Sage.
- Urry, J., 1995. *Consuming Places*. London: Routledge.
- Valentine, P.S., 1993. Ecotourism and nature conservation: A definition with some recent developments in Micronesia. *Tourism Manage.*, **14**: 107-115.
- Van der Merve, C., 1996. How it all began: The man who Coined ecotourism tells us what it means. *Afr. Wildl.*, **50**: 7-8.
- Viskovic, N., 1993. *Zootourism*. Turizam, **41**: 23-25.
- Vorlauffer, K., 1997. Conservation, Local Communities and Tourism in Africa. Conflicts, Symbiosis, Sustainable Development. In *Tourism and Sustainable Development* Hein, W. (Ed.). pp. 53–123. Hamburg: Schriften des Deutschen U bersee-Instituts 41.
- Wall, G., 1994. Ecotourism: Old wine in new bottles? *Trends*, **31**:4-9
- Wallace, G.N. and S.M. Pierce, 1996. An evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil. *Ann. Tourism Res.*, **23**: 843-873.
- Wallace, G.N. and K. Lindberg, 1993. Visitor Management: Lessons from Galapagos National Park. In Lindberg, K. and D.E. Hawkins (Eds.). *Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners and Managers*. Colorado: The Ecotourism Society.
- Wang, Z. and X. Hao, 1988. The study on the variation of environmental quality and counter measures in Zhang Jia-Jie-National forest park. *Chin. Environ. Sci.*, **8(4)**: 45-48.
- Western, D., 1993. *Defining Ecotourism* in K. Lindberg and D.E Hawkins (Eds) *ecotourism: A guide for planners and managers*, North Bennington, VT: The Ecotourism society.
- Wight, P.A., 1993. Sustainable ecotourism: Balancing economic, environmental and social goals within an ethics framework. *J. Tourism Stud.*, **4**: 54-66.
- Wilson, C. and C. Tisdell, 2001. Sea turtles as a non-consumptive tourism resource especially in Australia. *Tourism Manage.*, **22**: 279-288.
- Woodley, A., 1993. *Tourism and Sustainable Development: The Community Perspective*. In Nelson, J.G., R. Butler and G. Wall (Eds.). *Tourism and sustainable Development: Monitoring, Planning, Managing*, 135-147. University of Waterloo, Heritage Resources Centre. Waterloo, ISBN-13: 9780921083443
- WorldBank, (1998). Think Tank Group and World Tourism Organization. *Examine Role of Tourism in Development*. News Release No. 98/1853/S, 25 June 1998.
- WWF, 1995. Ecotourism: Conservation tool or threat? *Conserv. Issues*, **2**: 1-10.
- Yang, Y. and C. Ding, 2003. Impact on ecological environment to develop tourism in the West China. *Econ. Social Dev.*, **1**: 25-28.
- Zacharias, S., J. Manadel, M.C. Jose and A. Salam, 2008. Back water Tourism in Kerala: Challenges and opportunities. Proceedings of the Conference on Tourism in India Challenges Ahead, May 15-17, IIMK., pp: 524-529

Zeppel, H. and S. Muloin, 2007. Marine Wildlife Tours: Benefits for Participants. In Higham, J. and M. Luck (Eds.). *Marine Wildlife and Tourism Management: Insights from the Natural and Social Sciences* (pp: 19-48). Wallingford, Oxfordshire: CABI.

Ziffer, K., 1989. Ecotourism: The uneasy Alliance. Working Paper No. 1, Conservation International, Washington, DC.