Environmental Design and Land Use

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As a very important aspect of the supply side of tourism, environmental development, including the landscape and built environment, is a comparatively new topic of research. In the past, planners, designers and owners relied more on skill, tradition, and experience than upon research for land design and use decisions. Increased concern over the built environment has come from more discriminating tourists, narrower margins of financial returns from tourism businesses, increased competition for land, and greater awareness of tourism's impact on the physical and esthetic environment. The future portends even greater emphasis on issues of better environmental planning, design and land use for tourism.

A fundamental peculiar to tourism is that it is anchored to place. Therefore, how environments are used and how places are designed are critical tourism issues. Placeness is a tourism fact of life with many very important ramifications. As described by Vivien Stewart (1990), "Our perception of the landscape is based, not just on what we see, but what we know to be there." No industry or social activity has as great a relationship to land--the givens of resources and the cultural modifications made by man. All other production industries distribute products to customers quite some distance from the origin. Most consumers have no notion whatsoever regarding the source location of the vegetables they eat or the clothing they wear. The reverse, the absolutism of the placeness of the tourism product, is extremely powerful--the very heart of tourism. The enticement of traveling to some place away from home and the satisfactions derived from being in that other place are
basic to all tourism. Therefore, how places are identified, planned, and designed for tourism is vital to the best fit with resources and all other land uses, as well as to the success of tourism.

When tourism’s impact on the environment is placed in proper perspective as related to other land development, it pales by comparison. Worldwide, it is not tourism but other development that has been the major cause of environmental damage, as well documented by the 1991 *Report of Progress Toward a Sustainable Society*, produced by the Worldwatch Institute. Since the first Earth Day in 1970, as many as 200 million hectares of tree cover have been lost. (Brown 1991). Deserts have expanded some 120 million hectares, usurping more land than is currently planted to crops in China. Water pollution continues to threaten all animal life. Farmers have lost an estimated 480 billion tons of topsoil. Carbon dioxide, the main greenhouse gas in the atmosphere, is now rising 0.4 percent a year. Air pollution is of health-threatening levels in hundreds of cities. The atmospheric ozone layer continues to thin; the number of plant and animal species is diminishing and damage from acid rain is seen on every continent.

But, dealing with these issues and tourism’s contribution to environmental stress are the responsibility of everyone, including tourism’s developers and managers. Because qualities of places mean everything to tourism’s success, environmental degradation must be of concern to everyone involved in tourism. Fortunately, new policies, new planning concepts, and new management principles hold promise of developing tourism in a more rational and responsible manner. It is toward these goals that this chapter is directed. The major topics discussed are sustainable development, environmental design criteria and planning and design concepts and processes.

**SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

The term "sustainable development" is now replacing the older term, conservation. This new concept implies that development and resource protection are compatible. It has been defined by Rees (1989) as:
Sustainable development is positive socioeconomic change that does not undermine the ecological and social systems upon which communities and society are dependent. Its successful implementation requires integrated policy, planning, and social learning processes; its political viability depends on the full support of the people it affects through their governments, their social institutions, and their private activities.

APPLICATION TO TOURISM

Improved sustainable tourism may result from policies of better quality rather than growth. Many destinations contain sites with obsolescent or obsolete uses that could be converted to attractions with creative design and management. Taylor (1991,29) goes so far as to advocate that "a concept of demarketing may have to be developed as it becomes necessary to reduce rather than increase the number of visitors in an area." Another answer to environmental problems from mass tourism is better behavior by providers and their visitors. As an example, all of the nature tour operators in the Queen Charlotte Islands in northern British Columbia and Alaska have agreed to a binding code of ethics (Falco
er 1991,21). This self-regulation covers: etiquette; wildlife observation; visiting archeological and historic sites; food gathering; garbage disposal; camping; and local cooperation.

Stanley (1991) in a summary of a conference on sustainable development for tourism concluded no one should expect to exercise rigid standards. Instead, he identified seven different threads for its accomplishment. First, sustainable development is determined largely by what the stakeholders want it to be--a wilderness or a resort. Second, it can be accomplished only when people have found mechanisms for working together. Third, environmental impact results from many forms of tourism other than only visiting natural resources requiring special planning for each tourism use. Fourth, because most tourism businesses are small they are unable to obtain the research results needed. Therefore, much education on sustainable development is needed. Fifth, research can demonstrate that sustainable development pays. Sixth, economic measures, such as willingness to pay and contingent value can demonstrate the real value of sustainable development. And, finally, a
review of cases where sustainable development is being achieved can be of help to other areas seeking this objective.

Sustainable development is achieved best not by governmental regulation but by developers who understand it is essential to their success. Today, a more sophisticated market is demanding clean air, water fit for recreation, non-eroded and scenic landscapes, abundant wildlife, protected and restored historic sites, and safe environments for their visits. It is not so much altruism as simple tourism economics that should encourage all tourism developers to advocate and practice sustainable tourism development.

LOW VERSUS HIGH-IMPACT TOURISM

In the past, governments, investors and developers have tended to favor high-intensity and high-impact tourism development. For some time, this scale of development has met with reasonable success. It provided a large enough critical mass of visitors to make air access profitable. It concentrated infrastructure for greater efficiency. It met the needs of certain market segments. This type of development continues to have merit where the previous destination image was low.

However, experience has demonstrated several negative impacts from high-impact tourism. For one, the local cultural shock may be intense, especially where the norms of the visitors differ greatly from those of the local hosts. Second, concentrations of masses of visitors have frequently eroded the values and mores of the host areas, destroying ethnic integrity and tradition. Third, unplanned mass tourism development has often damaged local natural resources—soil erosion, reduction of wildlife through habitat destruction, pollution of swimming beaches, elimination of native vegetation, and pollution of air from too many vehicles. Fourth, promises of economic improvement have not been realized because officials gave away tax incentives and outside multinational firms made the investment and imported management and staff. Finally, for underdeveloped countries, high-impact tourism has been disruptive of a traditional agricultural economy. Although many of these impacts can be reduced or ameliorated, high-impact tourism may need to be balanced with low-impact
development.

By low-impact is meant a slower and more adaptive tourism development policy that is less disruptive of the local environment and economy. Each increment of growth can be evaluated and used as an experience foundation for a next step. Social, environmental, and economic costs can be assessed by the local population so that any negative tendencies can be dealt with before they grow into major issues. Native populations have the opportunity to choose tourist volumes depending on how they cope with tourism’s impact. When tourist attractions and business are planned, owned, and managed by local people, they can respond more rapidly than outsiders to pending negative impacts. Finally, market trends are showing that there is a strong travel market segment seeking less glitter and congestion and more quality of experience in travel destinations. But, low-impact tourism development still demands long-range planning so that each increment can become integrated into tourism as a whole.

ECOTOURISM

One current expression of sustainable tourism development is called "ecotourism," again implying that resource protection and tourism development can be compatible. The groundswell of environmentalism has fostered a strong market segment interested in experiences at destinations important for their natural and cultural resources. And, it has been used as a marketing ploy to cash in on a popular trend. Ecotourism is defined in several ways, ranging from low-volume use by highly specialized environmental travelers to larger volumes of tourists, often led by tour guides, interested in interpretive visitor centers near important resource areas. Again, resource protection is an essential planning and design criterion.

Stewart et al. (1990) emphasize the political environment relationship within ecotourism, "comprehensive ecosystem management implies some degree of mutual understanding and reciprocity across multiple sociopolitical systems." They state further that ecotourism planning and development requires: "(1) integration of non-financial objectives,"
and (2) a planning process which encourages decision making encompassing entrepreneurs, land managers, host community, and interested tourists or visitors."

Ecotourism offers opportunity for financial support for resource protection from the proceeds of tourism (Ziffer 1989). Provided they are not diverted to general funds, visitor revenues in protected areas can be used to increase resource management. Entrance fees, donations, taxes on ancillary services or products, private investment, and land leases can be used to aid conservation.

Wight (1992) cites several cases in which ecotourism is stimulating greater collaborative interaction. The Association of Independent Tour Operators (AITD) has taken a joint initiative with Green Flag International to promote ecotourism and sustainable tourism development. She describes the case of Sobek Expeditions as providing a remarkably high amount of its proceeds (7.6-10%) to local conservation groups. Wight has identified important principles that should underlie the concept of ecotourism:

* better understanding of the linkage and potentially symbiotic relationship between conservation and marketing;
* balance between environmental or "green" marketing, and industry commitment to environmentally responsible action;
* taking a supply management perspective which acknowledges resource values, and accepts resource constraints and limits, as well as seizing resource-based opportunities;
* development of understanding and partnerships between host communities, governments, non governmental organizations, and the industry;
* greater discrimination in client selection by identifying market segments which better match the range of ecotourism products;
* development of formal or informal product and performance standards; and
* promotion and acceptance of a tourist and operator code of ethics, and guidelines for responsible travel practices and behavior.

A classic example of ecotourism is the profitmaking Maho Bay Camps, located within the U.S. Virgin Islands National Park. This nature resort is designed with minimum intrusion to the native landscape and offers visitors intimate contact with local flora and
fauna. According to the owner (Selengut 1992) the land rent for 1990, contributed to the national park for its use, was $217,000, even after netting a profit of 20 percent on the investment.

Ecotourism is demonstrating a new trend in low-key planning and design for a burgeoning travel market interested in the special qualities of place.

ENVIRONMENTAL DESIGN CRITERIA

If environments of the supply side of tourism are to be planned and designed to meet the needs of visitors, support public and private development, and yet perpetuate resource assets, what criteria must be followed? The following discussion identifies some of the main criteria that experience has demonstrated are important. These should offer the many developers and mangers of tourism new opportunities for success as well as to avoid environmental pitfalls.

FUNCTIONAL PLANNING AND DESIGN

For both developers and travelers, tourism should be planned and designed to function. But, such functioning has many dimensions, especially the following four.

First of all, tourism must function as a system. The only one who cuts across the results of decisions on tourism supply is the traveler. Perhaps, in some instances, all the hundreds of separate developments function well together but mostly this is by chance, not by design. Because development is created and managed by such a great number of diverse public and private entities, needed are mechanisms for cooperation and even collaboration on decision making. All components of supply--attractions, services, transportation, information, promotion--must be integrated for tourism to function well for both visitors and developers.

All design must meet structural criteria. In an age of space shuttles and high technology, it seems redundant to stress the need for basic structural stability, and yet drives
do erode, bridges do collapse, and sometimes hotel structural failures cause loss of life. Although the incidence of these problems is very low, these examples do point up the need for concern over structural functionalism. Legislation may be less in need than greater precision, professionalism, and conscientious responsibility on the part of all involved in environmental design. By and large, research and testing as well as tightened regulation now offer little excuse for error in structural design. Buildings, drainage systems, drives, walks, and landscapes must be designed and maintained to withstand wear and tear as well as climatic conditions that would cause structural failure or shorten the life.

Another measure of design is that of physical function. By this is meant the capability of the designed environment, indoors and outdoors, to meet the physical needs of people, animals, automobiles, or any other units that will need to use the environment. For people-environments, designers need to be aware of the physical dimensions of the human body and how the various parts function (including the disabled and handicapped).

In spite of the availability of design reference data books, generally derived from research, designers still give tourists noisy and uncomfortable heat and cooling, airline seats with unreachable controls, signs and directions on highways and in buildings that are illegible or misleading, and lockers that cannot be reached by groups of short stature. In the landscape, the changing physical requirements of compact cars, recreation vehicles, tour buses, and large trucks must be considered in the site planning for overnight accommodations and food services for travelers. Owners and developers must continually insist upon efficient physical functional design for all their environments.

But environments can meet criteria of structural and physical needs and yet not fully satisfy the demands of tourism. How often one sees adjectives such as "comfortable," "pleasant," "beautiful," "luxurious," and "sparkling" in tourist promotional literature. These point up the need for a fourth category of criteria that all environments must meet—an esthetic or cultural function. Drab, institutional, plain, and unexciting landscapes and buildings are not acceptable even though sometimes more economical to build.

For tourist appreciation, understanding, and enjoyment, architects, engineers, and landscape architects must design buildings, walks, drives and overlooks with sensitivity to natural vistas and beauty. Sidestepping the engagement of creative and talented designers
may appear to save money only to discover later that tourists patronize the better-designed competition. Some businesses, fearing decline in popularity of their design, regularly schedule remodeling of all exteriors and interiors.

Managers and designers of tourist environments need to consider all four functions—systematic, structural, physical, esthetic—then developing new or remodeling older lands and buildings for tourists.

MARKET ACCEPTANCE

Environmental design and land use for tourism has a market side as well as a resource side. Land use is a social attribution as well as an activity based on physical assets. What visitors want to see and do—and they are not all alike in their tastes and interests—makes a difference. The sorting out of market diversity and translating it into appropriately created environments is no easy task. It is complicated by several factors.

First, there is a great difference in preference of destination activities between travelers. Studies variously classify travelers by whether they like active physical challenge or passive spectatorism, historic sites or natural resource areas, entertainment or solitude, and many other ways of sorting out the activity interests. This is further complicated by the difference in trip purpose and different interest by the tourist at different times.

Second, fad and fashion are powerful variables and can boom or break destinations. The capricious nature of some markets creates a volatile design and planning problem. Tourism activities grow out of culture’s leisure patterns and therefore are extremely dynamic, not static. Early on, research of trends may be able to predict important "ins" or "outs" of travel trade.

Third, the vagaries of transportation technology and cost greatly influence the design and planning of destinations. Areas dependent upon automobile travel are subject to fluctuations of fuel cost, costs of vehicles, and changes of highways. They may also be affected by competitive fares of airlines, car rentals, and bus tours. Research of the comparative influence of transportation modes on travel can be valuable for all tourism
destination management.

Fourth, some areas are blessed with natural resource assets in support of special activities much preferred by markets. No matter how much market analysis may suggest demand for winter sports, southern climes have difficulty in meeting this demand. Conversely, no matter how attractive some northern beaches may be, they cannot meet market demands for warm water, extended periods of sunshine, and high temperatures. Research of physical resource assets can assist managers in design and planning issues.

In addition to the above factors of market acceptance of designed tourism development, there is a temporal problem. For tourism, in which the product is fixed to place and has relatively high capital investment, this may mean a short life. Does the designer intentionally create flimsy environments that are to be flushed away after their usable life span? Can environments be designed with built-in flexibility that anticipates decline and therefore incorporates a chance for remodeling to meet new needs? Research has not yet provided adequate answers to these questions, but all managers must be aware of the anticipated life of built environments and have contingency plans available for meeting the new needs. Many older resorts are meeting today’s market needs with innovative programs and renovation.

OWNER REWARDS

Both public and private owners expect certain rewards from their ownership and management and resist modifications for someone else’s objectives. Those groups standing outside owners, such as advocates of greater environmental protection, must be able to translate their ideologies through the existing system of land ownership and development.

For the public sector in tourism, the greatest role as an owner-developer is that of holding and managing vast acreage of resource assets, functioning primarily as attractions. In the United States, federal agencies alone own and manage 85 percent of all outdoor recreation lands (Domestic Tourism 1973, p.9), but considerable internal policy stress has developed because none of the agencies was originally given tourism as a significant function.
The rewards to the U.S. National Park Service are two-fold: providing visitor experiences for many millions of visitors each year and protecting outstanding natural resource assets for the national long-range welfare. Fulfilling these objectives influences greatly its policies on design and land use. Throughout its history, much controversy has centered on the extent of providing for visitors and at the same time protecting the resource. This has resulted in much vacillation in land use planning for the Service.

When one adds some 90 or more federal agencies to the hundreds of state, county, and city jurisdictions over lands used by tourists, the magnitude of governmental involvement in land development and use can be appreciated. How well cities have managed their infrastructure (water supply, waste disposal, streets, police, fire protection) can influence citizens willingness to pay taxes for public services.

Rewards to the private non-profit sector are prescribed by their individual organizational policies. For example, owners of the Alamo and Williamsburg seek to inspire in visitors a sense of national heritage understanding and pride as well as to restore and preserve important elements of national history. Much of the restoration of urban historic areas is motivated by altruistic rewards while greatly influencing the storehouse of development, land use, and profit to local tourism businesses.

Rewards to the free enterprise sector are commonly considered to be profitmaking, but those in business quickly point out that this is not an exclusive reward. Much social responsibility is felt and carried out, not merely for altruistic objectives but in order to function properly as a business. According to Drucker (1975):

There is no conflict between 'profit' and 'social responsibility'. To earn enough to cover the genuine costs which only the so-called 'profit' can cover, is economic and social responsibility--indeed it is the special social and economic responsibility of business. It is not the business that earns a profit adequate to its genuine costs of capital, to the risks of tomorrow and the needs of tomorrow's worker and pensioner that 'rips off' society. It is the business that fails to do so.

Profits cannot be an isolated goal, removed from service to tourists, protection of resources, or concern over social issues.

Regarding land use, all sectors are acting as brokers between visitors (with their preferences) and resources (with their intrinsic developable qualities). The more that research
demonstrates the linkage between visitors and resources, the more that a closer balance between resource protection and use can be accomplished by all sectors. Their rewards are derived as much from visitor satisfactions as from other goals of the enterprise, public or private.

RELEVANCE TO TRANSPORTATION

An important criterion of environmental design for tourism—obvious but not well understood—is that of the relevance of transportation. This must be approached not only through the perception of the managers of the several modes (air, auto, rail, ship) but also through the perspective of the traveler. Research is demonstrating time and again that travelers do not stray very far from main thoroughfares. Even wilderness users have been found to congregate primarily at points of access penetration. Instead of citing this as a frailty of visitors, managers would do well to accept it as a principle and adapt destination design and planning thereto.

This does not mean that strip development is inevitable. It merely means that a transportation system that provides convenient, dependable, and affordable linkage between access and all points of interest to the tourist is important. Modern home-to-destination modes are dominantly automobile, tour bus, RV, and plane. (Cruise ships today are more destination resorts than modes of transportation.)

At all exchange points (freeway exits, airports, bus depots), interconnecting modes—personal car, car rental, tour bus, tour ferry—become very important. At these points of intermodal connection, greater concern over integrated land use and information systems is needed. Research is showing that mastery of today’s complicated regional airports is not for the infirm or faint-hearted.

The planning and development of future destinations should depend more heavily on studies of passenger transportation preferences and behavior than they have in the past.
RESOURCE PROTECTION

Polarized advocacy positions between resource protectionists—even "preservationists"—and developers has clouded the issue of environmental protection and tourism. Environmentalism, and now sustainable development, have fostered greater awareness of the finite limits of natural resources.

Poorly understood is the overwhelming dependence of tourism upon natural and cultural resource assets. Instead of opposing moves for resource protection, tourism managers could well lend their support not only for the long-range goals of society but also for their own self-interest.

Natural resource foundations for tourism include water and waterlife, vegetative cover, wildlife, topographic change, soils and geology, and climate and atmosphere. An essential part of any tourism planning is research of the distribution, size, quality, and management trends governing these resources.

Of increasing importance are culture resources. For planning purposes, these can be identified as: prehistory and archeological sites, historic sites and events, shrines, major works, lore and legends, arts and crafts, ethnic and national customs, industries, institutions, and settlements.

Critical is the design of places such that masses of visitors can be accommodated without erosion of these valuable and finite assets. Properly planned, tourism can foster the clarification and perpetuation of traditions and customs of special populations.

Much of the gap between tourist business management and resource protection is the lack of product definition. Hoteliers, for example, do not only provide lodging and food. They provide a facility so that travelers can see and do something in the area. The attractions, largely depending on resource protection, are part of their product and deserve their support and protection for business success as well as long-range value to society.

COMMUNITY GOALS

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Too often tourism is taken out of the context of basic community interest, activity, and goal-seeking. Since so much of tourism is directed to destination communities (even those resource assets in remote settings are served by local communities), it is necessary for tourism management to link all its efforts with the society, government, and traditions of cities. A polarized position such as that of Garland (1981, p. 19), "Tourism is a spinoff industry….It should never be permitted to influence land use in any fundamental way," forecloses constructive environmental design and planning for the good of the community as well as for tourism.

Behind the obvious facade of tourism businesses--hotels, gas stations, airlines--lies the infrastructure of tourism. Because most development for tourism takes place at cities, research study of the economic input-output regarding infrastructure is needed. Expanded tourism brings in new revenues but it also requires more water, electricity, gas, waste disposal, streets, policing, fire protection, and even medical care. Communities should have knowledge of added infrastructure costs as well as added returns before deciding on a positive or negative tourism development policy.

Because cities are where most people live, it is well for tourism management to be aware of what environmental development policies are important to local citizens. People value their cities because of their amenities.

Coincidentally, most of these are the same elements that attract visitors and provide them with satisfactions. Therefore, essential is the careful design, planning, and management that reduces conflict between visitor and resident as each competes for the same amenities. Much of this may be resolved if the tourism interests (chambers of commerce, hoteliers, restaurateurs) communicate with city councils and citizen organizations when urban decisions are being made. A proactive stance by tourism has greater opportunities than the present reactive position in most communities. While environmental designers and planners extol the virtue of diversity for all groups they also recognize the need for constant managerial interplay that maintains diversity with a minimum of conflict.

ENVIRONMENTAL DECISION-MAKERS
This discussion of environmental design and land use would not be complete without reference to the decision-makers. Popularly, professional planners and designers are considered to have a major role. They do in many instances, but research of this subject shows the important influence of several other segments. In fact, in today's complex environmental development process, it is not always easy to identify the true decision-makers—those who most directly influence how land is to be used and how final development is to appear. Therefore, it is equally difficult to identify present policy, to guide better future policy, and to guide future research.

Certainly, owners do have a major influence, whether they be hotel corporations, marina entrepreneurs, historical societies, national resource management agencies, or the individual with a cottage. For all land owners, public and private, certain owner objectives are very critical—speculation, specific business use, quasi-business use, tax reduction, social welfare, personal home. What actually is developed for tourists depends heavily upon the owner's intent, not only for the type of use but also the quality and quantity of use. For government agencies, most are bound to their legal administrative mandates but exercise considerable freedom in their own land use policies within such mandates.

Today, moneylenders have a very strong influence on land use of tourism. Public and private financial sources have their own policies regarding land uses that they will and will not support. Moneylenders have great power and in many instances have stopped or changed drastically an owner's intended use of land. Private finance is often very restrictive, especially for what is conceived as "high risk" development, such as for resorts and theme parks. Outside investors, while stimulating a local economy, frequently ignore local interests, resource values and traditions, and culture norms. When out of control, this can be devastating to resource foundations and societies, especially rural areas and small towns.

The land development and construction industry has a critical role in tourism land use. New methods and technology have reduced many limitations on environmental manipulation and building. But a most important control is the cost of construction. Many final decisions on uses of land and building design are dictated by how much the development would cost. Some land has never been developed for tourism because of this single factor. Especially in periods of inflation and recession, the availability and cost of labor and construction materials
can dramatically influence decisions.

The *manager* of tourist lands frequently has an after-the-fact rather than a planning role in decision making on land use. Managers of parks, hotels, airports, campgrounds, and other tourist establishments have important design knowledge based upon experience. Frequently, however, they are brought into an active role only after most decisions on land use and design and even construction have been made by others. Hence, they face the dilemma of doing the best they can with the opportunities and constraints handed to them.

Perhaps the above review has shown that *Designers and planners* do not have quite as much influence on decision making on land use as popularly believed. While it is true that professional designers and planners (architects, engineers, landscape architects, interior designers, urban planners) produce the concepts, sketch plans and working drawings and specifications for actual development of land, their freedom of choice is severely limited by other factors. Still, new environmental form and function, structure or landscape, is the realm of the creative designer.

One area of the designer-owner relationship needs to be emphasized. In most projects today there is often a gap between the owner’s land and the designer’s understanding of what is to be done with the land. The designer, whose last few projects likely were entirely different, expects information on what is to be done to come from the owner. On the other hand, the owner, believing that he is hiring the expert to design his land, relies on the designer. Neither one fully realizes the need for deeper research of the problem—a study of how many people, what level of market stratification, what seasons of intensity, tourism interests now and predicted, and many other program needs. The filling of this gap is becoming an important role of research by consulting firms.

Another important role of research, not being done very much today, is evaluation of design success after construction and use. Seldom are designers brought back in a research role to determine if the design really worked.

Finally, *publics* have entered into the process of land use decision making in several ways. Many agencies and private organizations, either because of legislation or voluntarily, use public involvement during the land use planning stage. Some publics have created specific organizations or worked through existing ones to lobby for legislation on land use.
Many new rules and regulations on land use have been developed in recent years, from local to national levels, due to increased activity by private groups. An important public is the total of tourist users of developed land. Theirs is really the ultimate deciding factor regarding the success of design and land use.

Recently, greater emphasis in planning has been placed on clarifying commitments and objectives in earlier stages of tourism planning. Because tourism actors and stakeholders are so diverse and because of potential impact on local citizens, such public involvement, although essential, is very difficult to obtain. It is essential, right at the start of any tourism planning, that all constituency groups are involved.

Two processes that have proven helpful are "brainstorming" and Nominal Group Technique (NGT) (Crompton and Watt 1990). Brainstorming is an open meeting dialog among interested parties whereas NGT ideas are generated individually without oral interaction. In both, the purpose is not to resolve problems but to bring many constituencies, even dissidents, into a common forum in order to generate ideas and give priority to concerns.

For example, in order to obtain information on the perceived role of the San Antonio Convention and Visitors Bureau, the NGT process involved 22 representatives of diverse interests in the city (Watt and Stribling 1990). The fields represented were:

- banking
- telephone service
- biomedical research
- electrical power
- uniform, towel service
- library
- international relation official
- women's chamber of commerce
- CVB advisory committee
- water supplier
- shopping center
- Hispanic chamber of commerce
- property management
- hospital
- consultants, accountants
- small business advocate

This resulted in identifying as top roles: promotion, business growth, hospitality education, coordinate bookings, and image-building. This process is equally applicable to planning for future tourism growth.

This review of decision making and decision-makers in design and land use is intended merely to suggest the need for more and better research information on both improvement in the process and in the role of each sector.
PROCESSES

Throughout the discussion of environmental planning, design and land use thus far, many solutions have been hinted at, even suggested. If better tourism environmental solutions are to be accomplished, what are some of the processes that can be employed? It is one thing to have noble goals, proper criteria, and decision-makers with the right policies for environmental design and land use; it is quite another to make them work. The complexity of tourism, as described above, suggests some of the problems of implementing desirable improvements in tourism development. But, progress is being made, both on the research side and the environmental design side.

Two aspects of environmental planning and design are especially critical. First, the so-called "elitist" approach, performed solely by professionals, is giving way to integrated planning. By integration is meant a cooperative approach involving many constituencies, particularly local citizens and professionals. Even the traditional plan-implementation sequence is being replaced by introducing implementation factors at the very beginning of tourism planning. Unless there is an organization, agency, or individual committed to implementation at the very start, there is little likelihood of plans being acted upon.

For all tourism planning, representatives of all three sectors—government, nonprofit organizations, commercial enterprise—should be involved from the start. Other representatives of the area also should be involved. If, for example, environmentalists are not involved from the beginning, they may become polarized in opposition no matter how valuable and sustainable tourism may be if properly planned and managed. Often the weight of opinion is heavier than factual documentation. Conflicts of opinion should be resolved early so that they do not escalate into bitter issues preventing planning progress.

Second, essential to all tourism planning is fact-finding research on fundamentals of tourism development. Cursory knowledge of tourism planning can lead to conflict, degradation of resources, and disappointing tourism results. No matter whether at the regional, destination, or site scale, two sets of information should be obtained as foundation for planning—characteristics of travel markets and facts about the supply side. Unless these
are well understood before expansion plans are laid, major errors can take place.

An example was the preventing of a major resort intrusion of the island of Moorea, Tahiti. A task force, sponsored by the Pacific Asia Travel Association and French Polynesia, studied market data and supply side development of the island (Moorea 1990). It was concluded that the relatively low resort hotel occupancy (50%) and market needs would not be met by allowing a major resort-golf complex to be established. Such a proposal would be damaging to the fragile environment of Opunohu Valley’s natural and cultural (ancient Polynesian) resources. Instead, recommended were: placing the mountain and several beaches in national park status, adding visitor interpretive centers (cultural and natural), central sewage system, tours and events based on resources, and tapping the growing ecotourism markets. These recommendations generally have been accepted and the large resort-golf complex has been denied by a vote of the residents.

Nations, regions, destinations, and sites intended for tourism development need the early integration of all stakeholders and complete descriptive analysis of present resources and tourism status before major plans are created.

REGIONAL SCALE

Even though the planning steps for all scales--regional, destination, site--are similar, the processes at the macro scale need special emphasis. A project at the regional (national, state, provincial) scale should accomplish these objectives:

* identification of destination zones of potential
* solutions to constraints and issues
* policies, organizational structures
* integration with destination and site plans

Such a project can best be accomplished by a task force representing the public and private sectors and planning consultants. Generally, the following steps would be followed:

1. Setting Goals and Objectives. The best plans can be accomplished considering four overall goals: increased visitor satisfactions, improved business and economy, protection of
resources, and integration into destination and local economy and quality of life. Specific objectives usually include guidelines for action, responsibilities of action organizations, and action strategies.

2. Research. Several sets of factors need to be studied. A description of market characteristics—preferences, segments, trends—is needed. A description of existing supply components is required: attractions, transportation, services, information and guidance, and promotion. This research step should also identify constraints and issues relevant to tourism development. Finally, a description of agencies and organizations and their roles in tourism should be completed. If this regional study is to identify zones of development potential, research of geographical factors that can be mapped will be required. (Refer to Tourism Planning, 2nd ed., 1988a, Gunn, for details of computer analysis.)

3. Synthesis. Before concepts and recommendations are prepared, the results of the research step need to be synthesized for their meaning. This step should involve all Task Force members to derive important conclusions as foundations for further steps.

4. Concepts. This is an ideation step whereby new concepts are presented, primarily by the professional planners but described for all constituencies to review. The model, illustrated in Figure 1, reduces the complicated makeup of a region into major planning components: circulation corridors, destination zones, access and relationship to markets. Computerized GIS overlay systems, as illustrated in Figure 2, can aid in the discovery of destination zones with potential for tourism (Gunn and Larsen 1988). Figure 3 illustrates such zones for a portion of South Carolina (Gunn 1990).

5. Recommendations. The final step is the result of the earlier findings and concepts. Recommendation topics vary but the following would be desirable:

   a. Policy
   b. Physical Development
   c. Program Development
   d. Objectives, Strategies. Responsibilities

   a. Policy Recommendations at the regional scale would encompass primarily the governmental role. This should include: promotion, interagency cooperation, public-private cooperation, private sector incentives, and needed regulatory action. New policy statements
and agreements among private sector tourism organizations would be desirable, such as goals of environmental planning, management and protection.

b. Physical Development recommendations would include identification of zones of tourism potential and guidelines for their implementation. Based on the extent present supply meets market demand and resource support, new kinds of development would be identified, especially for attractions, services, and transportation. Recommendations for physical development at the regional scale would be generalized because plans will be executed primarily at the destination and site scales.

c. Program Development recommendations would include those needed to meet market needs—festivals, events, information and guidance, and promotion.

d. Objectives, strategies, Responsibilities. This final step defines specific objectives that need to be acted upon in order to correct deficiencies and expand tourism development throughout the region. For each objective, strategies for action required and the logical implementing agency to accept responsibility would be specified. Some of these recommendations would be specific at the regional level, implemented primarily by government whereas generalized recommendations would be offered for further consideration at the destination and site scales.

DESTINATION SCALE

Although the term, destination, has many meanings, it is defined here as a travel target area, serviced by one or several communities, and containing several attraction complexes. For environmental planning purposes, a destination zone could be modeled as illustrated in Figure 4. The principal elements needing planning and development attention are: attraction complexes, community, linkage between community and attractions, and access from markets.

If potential destination zones were derived through regional study, they will have been influenced greatly by key geographic factors. This means that they will likely include many governmental jurisdictions. For example, in the United States, a zone would likely encompass
several counties, townships, as well as cities and villages.

In many instances, cooperation and even collaboration on planning and development among several destination zones is required. Travel market patterns are of two types. Some market segments travel directly from place of origin to a single destination where all activity interests are fulfilled. The traditional resort vacation is typical of this pattern. Today, a very large segment of travel is directed toward a series of destinations in a touring circuit. For example, travelers interested in history may visit several communities and their historic sites on a tour. The physical and program planning required for touring-circuit versus long-stay at done destination is quite different.

The steps in a destination planning process are similar to those at the regional scale but are much more definitive. Following is a suggest sequence of planning steps for planning tourist destinations.

1. *Focusing Commitment.* Especially important at the destination scale is obtaining consensus and leadership for tourism planning and development. Unless a clear commitment to the goals and objectives of tourism development is made at the start, professional plans and guidelines are not likely to be implemented. As in the earlier discussion of processes, many constituency groups, not just primary tourist businesses, must work together for the betterment of tourism.

An example of formalizing planning at this level is the creation of a "Tourism Action Committee," as recommended in the *Community Tourism Action Plan Manual* (1988) developed in Alberta, Canada. Suggested members of the Committee include representatives of:

- Chamber of commerce
- Hotel/motel operators
- Restaurant operators
- Service clubs
- Tourist zone representatives
- Recreation board
- Economic Development Board
- Service station operators
- Historical society
- Sport groups
- Municipal administration
- Tourist attractions
- Tourist event organizers

Others, such as schools, industries, environmentalists, tour agencies, campground operators, youth and church organizations could add valuable input to all future tourism destination
planning. The purpose is to safeguard social, economic, and environmental qualities at the same time tourism is expanded or improved. In addition, the Committee needs to engage planning professionals for overall guidance and execution of plans.

3. Analyzing Markets. Destination market analysis is a refinement of generalized regional market studies. Both secondary data and new surveys should be utilized to obtain information on existing and potential travel markets. Helpful is discovery of these characteristics: activity interests, origins, seasonality, and classification of market segments.

4. Analyzing Supply Side. For most communities and their surrounding areas, little has been done to identify what has been developed on the tourism supply side and what resources have potential for further development. Key items of supply to be studied regarding present status as well as potential include:

   Services--hotels, motels, restaurants, shops  
   Transportation--all modes, intermodal coordination  
   Attractions--physical developments, events  
   Information--descriptive literature, maps  
   Promotion--programs, effectiveness  
   Resource Base--natural and cultural resources

5. Identifying Organizations, Roles. This step identifies the many public and private organizations and agencies that influence or have a role in planning, development and management of tourism. Included should be:

   Governmental agencies for parks, reserves, historic sites  
   Nonprofit organizations for parks, reserves, historic sites  
   Private travel, tourism and hospitality organizations  
   Financial institutions, programs  
   Governmental planning and regulatory agencies

6. Identifying Constraints, Issues, Needs. By means of public forums, brainstorming sessions or applications of NGT, all constraints inhibiting tourism should be identified. The need for enhancing tourism quality as well as quantity should be stressed. It is from these public input processes that capacity concerns would be identified such as: limits to water supply, waste disposal; street capacity limits; park and recreation capacities; resource base limitations; financial constraints; obsolete or overlapping regulations; transportation limitations; and others.

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7. Concepts for Supply Development. In conjunction with professional consultants (planners, landscape architects, tourism specialists), the Committee should develop some basic concepts for each of the supply side components. This step would reflect market segment demand and the special resource qualities of the destination. Concepts should be developed for each of the following:

- attractions
- services
- transportation
- information
- promotion

8. Recommendations. This final step encompasses the action needed to implement the concepts that have emerged from all of the earlier planning steps. What should be done, by whom, where, and when (short-range versus long-range)? Encompassed in these recommendations should be the following:

a. Integration of Action. It is essential that tourism is integrated into all of the community and surrounding areas plans for social, economic and environmental development. Tourism must not be treated superficially as only an overlay without incorporation into the life and breadth of the entire destination area.

b. Solution to "Gaps" Between Market Demand and Supply. Specific recommendations need to be made to identify changes in all supply side development to meet travel market trends.

c. Solution to Constraints and Limitations. Detailed recommendations on solutions to capacity, environmental, societal, regulatory, organizational, financial, or other constraints must be offered.

d. Policies on Growth and Sustainable Development. The Committee should prepare policy statements that could be adopted by all public and private stakeholders in tourism. Such policy statements would identify roles, responsibilities, growth, resource protection, human resources, and integration with all facets of the community and surrounding areas.

e. Implementation Followup. Built into all tourism planning must be clear identification of an implementation timetable and who is responsible for each step. Generally, priority should be given to the easier and least costly items that also demonstrate
visible results. All new development should be made on an incremental basis to avoid stressful impact from change.

SITE SCALE

Today, with new understandings of tourism as a system, planning and design at the site scale can no longer be confined to an individual property. Planning decisions for hotels, restaurants, resorts, marinas, theme parks, visitor interpretive centers, and park areas have an external as well as an internal dimension. Each site influences, and is influenced by, many other sites. When this principle is practiced by owners-developers of sites, they will be more successful, not less. Developers can no longer ignore their impact on the environment, society, and economy of the area around their development. Conversely, when cooperating with external tourism decisionmakers, they can benefit because their "product" is not provided only on the site. Motloch (1991) has described this important relationship as follows:

By focusing on the piece, we make it more difficult to understand and apply ecological, physiological, and psychological interrelatedness to the management and design of systems. In the process, we create even larger crises, symptoms of the increased system breakdown that occurs because the elements that we design aggregate over time to create systems that are not sustainable. (269)

Most desirable for site developers and planners would be the situation whereby regional and destination plans and planning processes are already in place. A regional plan would have identified destination zones of greatest potential. Destination plans would have identified the needed improvement (on sites) in order to match market demand and utilize resource advantages. With this framework in place, site decisions already have considerable guidance. Sites can then be planned knowing that environmental capacities have been considered, access and transportation have been planned, public utilities (water supply, waste disposal, power) have been planned for tourism expansion, and that the site is in proper geographical context for best success.
PROCESS

The site planning process, while similar to regional and destination scales, requires specific steps for best development for tourism. The steps could be generalized as the following five.

1. *Program agreement.* By means of discussion between the owner (client) and professional planners/designers (landscape architects, architects, engineers) an agreement is reached on what is to be designed. This is a critical step because misunderstandings at this stage will prove detrimental throughout the process. For tourism sites, much discussion must take place to obtain not only the client's statements of intended development but also characteristics of the tourist market segment likely to visit the site. As stated by designer Motloch (1991), this is a cyclical process between client and designer.

2. *Site criteria, selection, and analysis.* A common failure at this point is not to engage the designer in site selection. Certainly, the owner-developer must consider cost, availability, and other criteria but the designer can assist by considering landform, buildability, and adjacent site context. Certainly, as many alternate sites as possible should be considered. At this stage generalized reactions to the suitability of the site for purposes intended can be obtained and discussed between designer and client.

A site analysis results in a detailed description and assessment of the physical characteristics of the site. Included are: topography, soil, geology, drainage, weather conditions, vegetation, and views. Existing development is identified: structures, pavements, sewage systems and electrical power. Influences surrounding the site are described: shadowing from high-rise, access, adjacent land use, and visual and odor considerations. (See Landphair and Motloch, 1985, *Site Reconnaissance and Engineering: An Introduction for Architects, Landscape Architects and Planners.)*

3. *Functional relationships.* With an understanding of site conditions, the designer collaborates with the client in discussing the needed functional relationships—which land use functions should go where and their interrelationships. This is an organizational spatial stage. The designer often uses sketch diagrams to model these relationships—building masses, circulation, plant masses, vistas, access. After much experimentation and discussion between
client and designer consensus is reached on a final composite relationship diagram.

It must be emphasized here that because this step forms the very foundation for the site design, external functional factors must be included. If it is to be a hotel, how will it relate to traveler activities in the area, how will it fit related development for visitor service (food, shopping, medical, touring), and how will it impact the environment? These and other external factors are as critical to success and resource protection as internal operation. The designer can act as catalyst for bringing the client into agreement with outside public and private interests.

4. Design concepts. At this stage, the collective talent, training and experience of the designers and client are introduced. This is an ideation and creative stage. While observation of similar projects may help, there is a temptation by owners to copy too literally, resulting in homogenized tourism development. Instead, the unique characteristics of the site should be integrated with the program for a special design concept. Motloch (1991) calls this "the coming together of idea, symbol, and sense of place."

5. Plans. Upon consensus of the design concept, detailed plans, specifications, and construction contract are prepared. These are the legal and detailed documents that assure the project will be constructed exactly as visualized by client and designer. In today’s context, this final stage produces not only what the client desired but also what best fits the immediate and broader environmental setting.

OTHER ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

LAND USE REGULATION

When governments cannot rely upon voluntary compliance with land use guidelines or when land use trends change, it may be necessary for governments to enact legislation, such as zoning regulations, and building codes. Zoning action in the United States is vested in the power of government to intervene for protection of public health, safety, and welfare. Official governmental planning has been done primarily at the community level, and of five
types: comprehensive (land use), system (water, transportation), area (waterfronts, industrial districts), subsystems (sewer line), and site (fire station, park). (So 1988, 15)

Detailed controls, such as building codes and zoning ordinances must be preceded by a comprehensive plan that performs these functions:

--The plan is an expression of what a community wants. It is a statement of goals, a listing of objectives, and a vision of what might be.
--The plan, once prepared, serves as a guide to decisionmaking. It provides the means for guiding and influencing the many public and private decisions that create the future of the community.
--The plan in some cases may represent the fulfillment of a legal requirement. It may be a necessary obligation. Such a mandated plan can, of course, still fulfill the first two functions, but the fact that it is required adds a distinctive dimension to the planning process. (So 1988).

Environmental concerns in recent years have given rise to governmental requirements of environmental impact statements (EIS), directed primarily to governmentally-funded and directed projects. Thus far, in spite of documented accomplishments, the EIS process has not been incorporated into planning processes. Therefore, it is often seen by business as another bureaucratic obstacle. Wight (1991) recommends stronger integration of environmental assessment early in the planning and design process. She identifies these aspects:

--building sound environmental principles into each stage of project design, from the outset;
--early lead-in time for initiating assessment so that environmental management is integral to development; and
--assessment of project acceptability versus simply incorporating mitigation into project design.

CLUSTERING

A quick managerial response to increased wear-and-tear from too many visitors in one spot is dispersal. But now the problems of dispersal are beginning to show. Dispersal denies all the advantages of clustering, which is more functional from the standpoint of both visitors and services. As Balmer et al (1977, p. 3) have described, clustering has merit from several perspectives.

From a development perspective. The necessary infrastructure is much more
efficient and certainly less costly in a developed area or where several developments are being planned. The viability of a new commercial tourism plant increases with the degree of travel and the size of the resident market. Experience has shown the marketing advantages of motels being located near other motels, food services near others, and other like groupings. Several developments from the same sector can create or ensure efficient use of necessary support services. For example, the California coast plan "encourages the concentration of new development in those places that are already developed, so as to minimize resource damage, economize on public facilities and make nonautomobile transportation possible" (Healy 1976, p. 221).

From an economic perspective. Longer stays in the area, generated by a variety of attractions, boost revenues in accommodation and food service sectors of the local economy. Diversity, both within the tourism industry and as tourism complements existing industry, increases the economic stability of the community. A large and mixed tourism development will gradually create a skilled and reliable local labor pool. The more complete the local service (both to the tourist and to the services) the smaller the possibility of "leakage". The benefits (direct and indirect through the multiplier effect) to the "primary impact area" increase with the size and diversity of local tourism.

From a social perspective. The opportunity for increased interaction between the resident and the tourist is enhanced by greater concentration. Traditional customs may be reinforced in an area. Many facilities, even though designed for the tourists, will be available to the resident population (specialty restaurants, convention centers, museums, theme parks).

From an environmental perspective. Expansion of currently viable urban areas in tourism service centers is likely to alter rural and natural environments less than new development in those environments. Planners can become skilled in the direction of tourism to ensure that unique and sensitive areas are protected, that adequate design standards are maintained, and that all necessary support services have been planned for and provided. Intensive site development and use is easier to control and manage with consequent protection and preservation of secondary impact areas. Clustering prevents sprawl and general visual pollution of key natural features (primary attractions in themselves).

From a promotional perspective. The potential for "packaging" of diverse but
complementary opportunities increases with the scale of local tourism investment. The possibilities of "themeing" to better convey the appeal of the area to the potential visitor are enhanced when a larger number of attractions and services exist. The synergistic effect of several attractions creates a natural ability to draw tourists over relatively large distances, thus increasing the market potential for each.

Clustering is an important principle for coastal tourism, very important in the United States and many other countries. The term "coast" implies a uniform linearity for great distances along the water’s edge. Coastal tourism, however, functions primarily at nodes (see Lewis 1964 and Gunn 1988). By designing for mass concentrations (meeting market needs for gregarious waterfront uses: beaches, festivals, marinas), better management, better control, and better guest satisfactions can be derived. Such concentration relieves the pressure on remote areas and provides greater solitude for the market segment desiring it.

CAUTIONS

While the principle of clustering has environmental design advantages for tourism, it can be abused.

The location of development clusters requires care in planning. As historic districts become more popular the need for travel services increases. Clustering these services too close to the historic area can damage the image of a revered landscape and reduce its attraction value. Clustering of services too close to natural resource areas also creates problems. Frequently, resort hotels have been built too close to beaches that are subject to hurricanes and erosion. New service clusters should not be placed directly upon or too close to special natural resources features, such as has happened in national parks. It is better planning to place such clusters some distance away and shuttle people to the resource area where visitor use can be controlled. Certainly, this principle protects the esthetic integrity of resource areas.

Planning of clusters must consider capacity. Although tourism planning must be dynamic and adjust to change, it must also recognize capacity limits. Regular monitoring is
shops (books, crafts, souvenirs)
theater (pageants)
staff offices
Area: trails for guided, self-guided tours
outdoor exhibit areas
special features--overlook towers

CONCLUSIONS

With greater taste discrimination of travelers and greater recognition of the role and limits of resources, environmental design and land use have increased greatly in managerial concern. What was viewed as a simple and private function of a market economy is now known to be much more complex. It involves characteristics of places, markets, transportation, owners, local citizens, and many other aspects of community and national life.

Research does not adequately prove what must be one of the most profound truths of tourism--placeness, and all the characteristics inherent in the location and development of tourism places. In many ways, tourism, the environment, and places are synonymous. All are important to tourists, to governments, to businesses, and to those concerned with perpetuating quality resource assets. The development and the promotion of the individuality of places may be tourism's greatest opportunity.

A few conclusions regarding environmental design and land use:

Planning tourism requires research. Reliance only on past tourism experience is insufficient foundation for today's planning and design needs. Communities, areas, and nations must have greater factual information upon which to make development decisions. Research is especially needed in market trends and resource (natural and cultural) characteristics.

Tourism planning succeeds only with commitment. Environmental planning for tourism requires full commitment before plans are laid. At the regional and destination scales, many constituencies are involved, all of whom must be committed to tourism planning. Such planning need not always be for growth but often for improved quality or for coordination with other planning and plans.
necessary to stimulate incremental planning that recognizes dangers of overuse. Three types of capacity levels need planning attention. Environmental capacity refers to the limits to which development begins to be destructive of environmental assets. Social capacity refers to the level at which people begin to feel uncomfortable among masses of visitors and begin to react to overcrowding. (This is not the same as density--to see only a few others on a wilderness trail may be considered over capacity whereas thousands of others on a beach may be considered desirable by visitors.) Managerial capacity is critical. Too great a concentration of visitors in one area may be difficult to control and may introduce thieving, litter, vandalism, and public disturbance. Public and private sector developers need to plan only for a capacity for which they have funding and staff to manage.

Although clustering as a principle has merit, quality planning demands care and judgment in its application to each situation.

INTERPRETIVE VISITOR CENTERS

A current planning solution to much of the environmental problem of mass visitors to natural and cultural resource areas is increased use of interpretive visitor centers. Already, museums, aquariums, and zoos are demonstrating the value of designing a major facility that interprets the resource but is not located directly upon it. Such a facility meets both market demand and need for protecting rare, fragile, and limited capacity resources.

Conceptually, a major interpretive facility for either cultural or natural resource function can serve as a surrogate attraction. It can be designed for mass use, providing visitor satisfaction without disturbing the resource.

Functional design features of a major interpretive visitor center would include:

- Parking for cars, buses, RVs
- Center building: lobby, restrooms
- Information desk
- Exhibit rooms, interpretive displays
- Auditorium for videos, lectures
- Library, study rooms
- Food service

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Environmental planning for tourism depends heavily on the private sector. Because success of the commercial sector is highly dependent upon tourists attracted by natural and cultural resource activities, environmental protection is in its self-interest. Needed are stronger voluntary organizational and individual movements and advocacy to resolve environmental issues.

Governmental roles need to be clarified. Although the tourism economy is derived primarily through the private commercial sector, governments are heavily involved everywhere. For effective planning, these governmental roles must be clarified—interagency coordination, prevention of overlap of functions (especially promotion), excessive regulation, support for research and education, and public-private cooperation.

Public involvement is essential to environmental planning for tourism. All constituencies, both those involved in tourism development and those impacted by it, must have input into planning at all stages. Professional designers and planners can make valuable input but action takes place only by others. Various techniques—workshops, meetings, brainstorming, NGT—need to be employed at all planning stages. Only in this manner will plans be implemented and the several objectives accomplished with least social, environmental, and economic stress.

Planning for tourism requires integration of regional, destination and site plans. Especially important for individual success and sustainable use of the environment is site development (hotels, parks, transportation) that is planned in relation to destinations and the entire region. Integration of planning at all levels, even though difficult, holds promise of fulfilling all tourism development goals and extending environmental values.

Environmental design and planning for tourism is cyclical. Best planning is incremental, with each new phase building on the last. All tourism development is in flux at all times. Both short and long-range plans need to be placed in this context of dynamic change. Physical development tends to be more permanent but is always under the influence of changing markets and other supply changes around it.

The best tourism planning involves innovation and creativity. Tourism planning processes require inspiration as well as information. Results from research should be
incorporated in plans, but experience has already demonstrated that no amount of facts can
guarantee good planning and design. Local citizens as well as designers have a wealth of
ideas that must be unleashed and on a regular basis if tourism is to adapt continuously to new
conditions and new needs. All inhibitors to such creativity and innovation must be replaced
by opportunities to freely investigate and experiment with new ideas and approaches.

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**FIGURE 1** Conceptual model of a tourism region, illustrating spatial components of destination zones, circulation corridor, access and relationship to markets. Source: Gunn 1988b, p.71.

**FIGURE 2** Map overlays used to produce composite maps illustrating potential destination zones based on natural and cultural resources.

**FIGURE 3** Potential destination zone interpretations for six counties in northwestern South Carolina. Map shows zones based on natural resources, cultural resources, and their combination.

**FIGURE 4** Model of geographic components of a destination zone: attraction complexes, community, linkage corridor between community and attractions, and access from major circulation corridor. Source: Gunn 1988b, p.57.