

Research Space

PhD Thesis

**The challenges of rural ecotourism: a case study of NorthEast
Thailand**

Titiyawadee Punmanee

**THE CHALLENGES OF RURAL ECOTOURISM:
A CASE STUDY OF NORTHEAST THAILAND**

by

Titiyawadee Punmanee

Canterbury Christ Church University

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

2022

Titiyawadee Punmanee

**THE CHALLENGES OF RURAL ECOTOURISM:
A CASE STUDY OF NORTHEAST THAILAND**

ABSTRACT

This thesis explores Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences, in the context of recent tourism growth. It investigates who are the Thai rural ecotourism stakeholders. Furthermore, it examines not only how do the Thai ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism but also what are Thai ecotourism stakeholders' views on managing ecotourism at the local level.

The three tourism destinations in Chaiyaphum province — Prang Ku, Ban Khwao and Pa Hin Ngam national park — were selected for the case studies. This research was conducted with the help of a variety of participants: government authorities, non-government agencies, tourism operators, domestic tourists, international tourists, and local communities. The key methods comprise interviews, focus groups, questionnaires and research diaries. Data was obtained from 32 interviews, 6 focus groups and 502 questionnaires.

The thesis findings illustrated the fact that Thai ecotourism stakeholders in rural areas affect the practices and the strength of relationship with the stakeholders, as well as the personal relationships within the same organisation.

The thesis findings ascertained that Thai ecotourism is tourism which involves the preservation, conservation and maintenance of natural, cultural and heritage values, that also benefits local communities.

The study of the stakeholders and their corporations in relation to ecotourism not only provided an understanding of the network structure, but also constitutes an original perspective from which to view multi-stakeholder networks in the ecotourism areas. In empirical terms, the thesis successfully obtained rich data and insights into the roles, responsibilities and relationships as a result of an intensive and extensive process of focus groups, interviews, questionnaires and research diaries. It is hoped that this thesis will be used in future research for observing stakeholders and their networks, both in Thailand and other countries.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I dedicate this study to people who lost their love ones from Cancer. This thesis is for them!

This study would not have been completed without the support of many people and organisations. I owe my deepest gratitude to all of them.

I wish to express my appreciation and sincere thanks to Dr. Jim Butcher, the best supervisor you could ever wish for, for guiding, pushing, supporting, encouraging, being patient and understanding me through each phase of my study. In addition, I also would like to thank Dr. Marion Stuart-Hoyle, the CCCU postgraduate teams and all the research participants, without their help and invaluable information, friendship, and sincerity, this thesis would have been completed.

Special thanks go to all of my families and friends in Thailand, Australia (Chandler's family) and the United Kingdom (Wheway family and Maureen Standhope), who have contributed to pleasant experiences, support and patience during my research.

Last, but not least, I would like to express my enormous appreciation to Dr. Craig Wheway, my beloved husband and best-friend, for reading my work and giving feedback, supporting and encouraging, as well as loving and believing in me — I owe you a lot for these things. Many thanks for everything!

Further, where would I be without my parents? I owe special gratitude to Mr Suraphan Phanmanee, for always commenting and sharing his valuable information on my thesis, as well as helping me to collect my data and driving me around my case study locations. Mrs Surang Phanmanee, I thank you for always listening to my complaints and frustrations, as well as helping and supporting me with all of your energy during my fieldwork and throughout my entire lifetime. Thank you again 'Mum and Dad' for always

being with me—both through happiness and tears and financially supporting me throughout my studies. And, last but certainly not least, Mr. Phillip and Mrs Myrna Chandler, for always supporting, loving, caring and encouraging me through every situation—thank you for always believing in me and always being there: ‘My Aussie Mum and Dad’.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF PHOTOS	xv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xvi
CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION	1—19

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Research Questions and Objectives	2
1.3	Research Rationale	3
1.4	Study Areas	5
1.5	Contested Terms	8
1.5.1	Ecotourism	8
1.5.2	Tourists	10
1.5.3	Sustainable Development	11
1.5.4	Technocratic Government System (top-down approach) and Neopopulism (bottom-up approach)	14
1.5.5	Cultural Heritage	14
1.5.6	Community	15

1.6	Thesis Structure	16
1.7	Conclusion	19

CHAPTER 2

ECOTOURISM CONSTRUCTIONS AND IMPACTS 20-43

2.1	Introduction	20
2.2	The Construction of Ecotourism	20
2.3	The Effects of Ecotourism in the Developing World	31
2.3.1	Land Price Increases	37
2.3.2	Sociocultural Problems	38
2.3.3	Environmental Impacts	39
2.4	Conclusion	42

CHAPTER 3

ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS AND THEIR EXPERIENCES 44-71

3.1	Introduction	44
3.2.	Ecotourism Stakeholders: Views and Implementation	44
3.2.1	Governmental Organisations	47
3.2.2	Ecotourism Operators	51
3.2.3	Ecotourists	52
3.2.4	Local Communities	53
3.3	Factors that Impacts on Ecotourism Development	55
3.3.1	Power	56

3.3.2	Politics	67
3.4	Conclusion	70

CHAPTER 4

THE INTRODUCTION OF THAI ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

4.1	Introduction	72
4.2	Central Administrative Organisation (CAO)	77
4.2.1	Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS)	78
4.2.2	Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE)	81
4.2.3	Ministry of Culture (MOC)	82
4.2.4	Ministry of Interior (MOI)	83
4.2.5	Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)	85
4.3	Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO)	87
4.4	Local Administrative Organisations (LAO)	89
4.5	The Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA)	91
4.6	Tourism Operators	91
4.6.1	National Tourism Operators	93
4.7	Tourists	94
4.8.	Local communities	96
4.9	Conclusion	98

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

103-135

5.1	Introduction	103
5.2	Setting the Theoretical Context: Social Construction	103
5.3	Case Studies	104
5.3.1	Criteria for Selection	105
5.3.2	Selections	107
5.3.2.1	The Siam Tulip (Kra Jaew) Field	107
5.3.2.2	Ban Khwao	108
5.3.2.3	Prang Ku	109
5.4	Research Methods	110
5.5	Data Collection	112
5.6	Permission and Access to the Sites	114
5.7	Semi-structured Interviews: Governmental Organisations, Nongovernmental Agencies and Tourism Operators	118
5.7.1	Governmental Organisations	119
5.7.2	Nongovernmental Agencies	120
5.7.3	Tourism Operators	121
5.8	Focus Groups: Local Communities	123
5.8.1	Representation of Respondents	124
5.9	Open-Ended Questionnaires: Domestic and International Tourists	127
5.10	Research Diary	130
5.11	Data Processing: Transcription and Translation	131

5.12	Ethical Issues	133
5.13	Conclusion	134

CHAPTET 6

THE CONSTRUCTION OF ECOTOURISM BY THAI ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

6.1	Introduction	136
6.2	The Construction of Definitions of Ecotourism of the Various Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders	138
6.2.1	Nature in the Construction of Ecotourism	138
6.2.1.1	The Views of the Ecotourism Actors	139
6.2.1.2	Connectivity between Environment and People, Economics and Social Issues	148
6.2.2	Economy in the Construction of Ecotourism	155
6.2.3	Culture in the Construction of Ecotourism	166
6.2.4	Heritage and Archaeological Sites in the Construction of Ecotourism	176
6.2.4.1	Connectivity Among Heritage, Archaeology, Humans, Economics and Social Issues	180
6.3	Conclusion	183

CHAPTER 7

THAI ENGAGEMENT OF THAI ECOTOURISM 185-246

STAKEHOLDERS IN RURAL AREAS: LOCAL

STAKEHOLDERS AND ENGAGEMENT DISCONNECT

7.1	Introduction	185
7.2	The Engagement of Governmental Organisations Through Ecotourism	188
7.2.1	The Engagement of Central Administrative Organisations (CAO)	188
7.2.1.1	The Engagement of Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS)	189
7.2.1.2	The Engagement of Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE)	194
7.2.1.3	The Engagement of Ministry of Culture (MOC)	197
7.2.1.4	The Engagement of Ministry of Interior (MOI)	199
7.2.1.5	The Engagement of Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)	202
7.2.2	The Engagement of Regional Administrative Organisations (PAO)	204
7.2.3	The Engagement of Local Administrative Organisations (LAO)	205
7.3	The Engagement of Different Stakeholders Through the Governmental Organisations (Central, Regional and Local)	205

7.4	The Engagement of Nongovernmental Agency (NGA) Through Ecotourism	219
7.5	The Engagement of Tourism Operators Through Ecotourism	222
7.6	The Engagement of Tourists Through Ecotourism	228
7.7	The Engagement of Local Communities Through Ecotourism	239
7.8	Conclusion	244

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS 247-270

8.1	Introduction	247
8.2	The Research Questions Re-examined	247
8.2.1	Who Are the Thai Rural Ecotourism Stakeholders? (Research Question 1)	248
8.2.2	How do the Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders Construct the Concept of Ecotourism? (Research Question 2)	250
8.2.3	What are Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders' Views on Managing Ecotourism at the Local Level? (Research Question 3)	256
8.2.3.1	The Views of Governmental Organisations	257
8.2.3.2	The Views of Nongovernmental Agency	258
8.2.3.3	The Views of Tourism Operators	259
8.2.3.4	The Views of Tourists	260
8.2.3.5	The Views of Local Communities	261

8.2.3.6	The Conflicts from Top-Down (Technocratic Government) 263 to Bottom-Up Approaches (Neopopulism)	
8.2.3.7	Power	263
8.3	Contribution of This Thesis	267
8.4	Limitations and Future Research	268
8.5	Conclusion	270
APPENDICES		271-323
Appendix 1	The Environmental Impacts Through Ecotourism Activities	271
Appendix 2	The Implementations of Ecotourism in Developed and Developing Countries	274
Appendix 3	Permission Letter (Thai version)	279
Appendix 4	Participant/Conductor's Consent Forms (Thai version)	280
Appendix 5	Interviews: Governmental Organisations and Nongovernmental Agencies	281
Appendix 6	Interviews: Tourism Operators	285
Appendix 7	Focus Group: Local Communities	289
Appendix 8	Questionnaire (International tourists)	291
Appendix 9	Questionnaire (Thai version)	298
Appendix 10	The Evolution of Ecotourism's Meanings	306
Appendix 11	The Categories of Ecotourism Definitions	318
BIBLIOGRAPHY		324-428

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1		
	Framework of the Impacts of Ecotourism on Local Communities	64
Table 4.1		
	Ecotourism Management Stakeholders (Thailand)	75
Table 4.2		
	The Summary of Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders	100-102
Table 5.1		
	Data Collection periods 2014 – 2018	112
Table 5.2		
	Interview Follow-up Periods 2014–2018	116
Table 5.3		
	The List of Government Organisations’ Participants and Their Interview Codes	120
Table 5.4		
	The List of Nongovernmental Agency’s Participants and Their Interview Codes	121
Table 5.5		
	The List of Tourism Operators’ Participants and Their Interview Codes	122
Table 5.6		
	The List of Focus Groups’ Participants and Their Codes	125
Table 5.7		
	The List of Open-Ended Questionnaire Participants	128

Table 6.1		
	Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Nature	139
Table 6.2		
	Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Economics	156
Table 6.3		
	Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Culture	167
Table 6.4		
	Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Heritage and Archaeology	176
Table 7.1		
	The Abbreviations Used for Stakeholders’ and Their Data-Collection Periods	187
Table 8.1		
	Combined Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Nature, Economics, Culture, and Heritage and Archaeology	251
Table 8.2		
	Thailand and Its Framework of Empowerment	266

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1		
Chaiphum province map		8
Figure 3.1		
First Dimension of Power		57
Figure 3.2		
Second Dimension of Power		58
Figure 3.3		
Third Dimension of Power		58
Figure 4.1		
Stakeholder Scheme		74
Figure 4.2		
Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders		76
Figure 4.3		
Statistics of International Tourists and Domestic Tourists Changes		85
Figure 4.4		
Number of International and Domestic tourists in Thailand from 2017 to 2019		95
Figure 6.1		
The Summary of Data Collection periods from 2014 – 2018		137

LIST OF PHOTOS

Photo 4.1

Prang Ku

80

Photo 5.1

Siam Tulip Field

108

Photo 5.2

Thai Mat Mi Silk in Ban Khwao

109

Photo 5.3

Prang Ku

110

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAO	Central Administrative Organisations
DNP	Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation
FAD	Fine Arts Department
GBP	Pound Sterling
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
LAO	Local Administrative Organisations
MNRE	Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment
MOC	Ministry of Culture
MOI	Ministry of Interior
MOTS	Ministry of Tourism and Sports
NESDP	National Economic and Social Development Plan
NGA	Non-Government Agencies
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
ONEP	Office of Natural Resources and Environmental Policy
OTOP	One Tambon One Product
RAO	Regional Administrative Organisations
SAO	Subdistrict Administrative Organisations
TAT	Tourism Authority of Thailand
BAHT	Thai Baht
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNWTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

For Suraphan and Surang Phanmanee

**THE CHALLENGES OF RURAL ECOTOURISM:
A CASE STUDY OF THAILAND**

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This thesis examines Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences in the context of recent tourism growth in rural areas. Since ecotourism has expanded around the world, many developing countries have begun to adopt it as an approach to increasing their economic output (Butcher, 2007; Ocampo, 2020; WorldBank, 2020) and, at the same time, sustaining the flora and fauna within local areas, in the name of sustainable tourism. For example, in some Asian countries (e.g. Cambodia, Indonesia and Thailand), government agencies have adopted ecotourism as a means to help the country deal with the harmful environmental and social problems that mass tourism causes.

Homklin (2020) suggests that many local governments implement ecotourism as a way to compensate for a significant drop in the number of international tourist arrivals. Furthermore, they use ecotourism as a way to address the structural problems of the national economy, such as the relative decline of agricultural exports, e.g. rice (O'Neill, 2002; Punmanee and Wheway, 2017), and hunting (Stronza, 2007). For example, the increasing number of countries selling rice as an export product and declining agricultural prices worldwide have led to the loss of manufacturers to developing countries, such as Vietnam. Therefore, developing countries look to invest in higher-value industries, and the shift towards considering more niche tourism (e.g. ecotourism and volunteer tourism) fits with the current rationale emanating from developing nation-states.

While ecotourism has gained momentum, especially in rural areas, problems have nevertheless begun to emerge. For example, increasing changes in animal behaviour (Muehlenbein *et al.*, 2010), conflicts between local residents and government officers (Stone

and Nyaupane, 2016; Khanal, 2019), and tourism operators' inappropriate selling of ecotourism excursions (Kry *et al.*, 2020) have raised concerns regarding the negative consequences of ecotourism. Do the tourists alone cause negative impacts? Is the lack of ecotourism planning and management the issue? Or do local residents lack knowledge on implementing ecotourism?

This chapter will introduce the structure of the thesis's five sections: the research questions and objectives, the thesis rationales, an outline of the study area, a clarification of the contested terms and, finally, the thesis structure.

1.2 Research Questions and Objectives

The aim of this study is to explore Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences, in the context of recent tourism growth. Meeting this aim will progress through the following objectives:

1. Who are the Thai rural ecotourism stakeholders?
2. How do the Thai ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism?
3. What are Thai ecotourism stakeholders' views on managing ecotourism at the local level?

In this thesis, the research questions and objectives prevent taking the stakeholders' voices for granted because different stakeholders construct and practice ecotourism differently. Moreover, their shared knowledge also provides details of how the stakeholders' view of the world varies with the geographical areas in which they live and the hierarchy of their jobs and positions within Thai society. The next section illustrates the research rationale.

1.3 Research Rationale

Tourism is one of the most vital economic sectors across 185 countries and 25 geographical regions (WTTC, 2021). It has widely attracted the attention of policy makers, tourism operators and researchers. The developing countries are sites for many tourism studies. Most focus on the environment, social and economic implications. The problem of unsustainable forms of tourism has led to an emphasis on seeking a sustainable approach to help create mutual benefits for both local people and natural resources (e.g. ecotourism and volunteer tourism).

From this imperative, ecotourism emerged as a key branch of tourism studies in the 1990s (Butcher, 2007). Academics (e.g. Boo, 1990; Buckley, 1994; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Honey, 2008; Fennell, 2014), international organisations (e.g. Wight, 1993; TISTR, 1997; UNWTO/UNEP, 2000) and the regional agencies (e.g. PATA, 1992) formulated their own definitions of ecotourism, and there is not one single, universally accepted definition.

The definitions of ecotourism have tended to focus on natural areas (see Valentine, 1993; Lindberg and Johnson, 1994; Fennell, 2014). However, some academics (see Ziffer, 1989; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Honey, 2008) argue for the involvement, to a greater or lesser degree, of different aspects, such as culture, education and indigenous people. For example, developing countries have adopted ecotourism to increase the quality of life for local communities (Gautam *et al.*, 2020) and provide the funds for research to safeguard flora and fauna (e.g. the Ecuadorian Government-Charles Darwin Foundation conservation programme and the Elephant Hospital and Research Foundation).

Since the worldwide adoption of the term 'ecotourism', concerns have arisen as to whether and how to include ecotourism in each country's national development plans. Where they have added ecotourism to the national plans, governments' involvement has mainly

focused on place-based promotion, rather than setting up the planning, regulations and training for ecotourism stakeholders to utilise (Kaur, 2006; JICA, 2010; MOTAC, 2020).

With these weaknesses of government involvement, ecotourism researchers have started to change their emphasis, from defining ecotourism, towards the impacts of ecotourism and community-based ecotourism in different places around the world. For example, Fennell (2001) addresses the issue of a definition from an academic perspective, employing content analysis to help the Canadian Government, industry and academia to establish an ecotourism strategic plan and regulations for Alberta's communities to utilise. Even though the literature includes numerous ecotourism studies, a dearth of studies focuses on competing interpretations of ecotourism, its implementation and issues around cooperation between the stakeholders in the developing countries (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Dorjsuren and Palmer, 2018; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020).

Recently, ecotourism studies have widened their scope, shifting from a focus on ecotourism destinations in developed countries, to a wide plethora of ecotourism in rural areas within developing countries (Pleumarom, 2001; O'Neill, 2002). Research set within developed countries mainly focuses on ecotourism, emphasising the positive and negative impacts within local settings and landscapes, flora and fauna and local communities' economics (see Koens, Dieperink and Miranda, 2009; Pathmasiri and Bandara, 2019; Pathak *et al.*, 2020; Zhang and Zhang, 2020). Yet, there is still a dearth of research examining the ecotourism stakeholders; instead, the focus is on tourists' experience (Tran and Walter, 2014; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018; Diamantis, 2018; Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018; Ashraf and Sibi, 2020). The aim of this thesis is to contribute to widening the lens of enquiry, from tourists to the views of stakeholders dependent on ecotourism, adding to a broader debate concerning ecotourism and the perceptions of its stakeholders in rural areas (Butcher, 2007). The next section outlines the study areas.

1.4 Study Areas

Thailand is the study area, for several reasons. Within Thailand, tourism is one of the country's six largest¹ and most intensive economic sectors (NESDB, 2017). Moreover, tourism has played a fundamental role in the Thai national development plans for more than four decades. In addition, the World Tourism Organisation notes that Thailand's tourism sector ranks among those in the top ten countries in the world, placing second in Southeast Asia behind Malaysia (UNWTO, 2019). Moreover, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) reported that Thai tourism generated Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of nearly THB 0.11 billion in 2019 (GBP £3.60 billion²) and created nearly one million jobs, 21.4% of all Thai employment (WTTC, 2019).

As mentioned above, the Thai government has adopted and utilised ecotourism as a way to help increase the number of niche tourists visiting Thailand. Unfortunately, even though the Thai government claims that ecotourism should create less harm than mass tourism, it has underestimated the challenges of implementing ecotourism in more marginal, rural areas.

However, the problematisation of ecotourism still occurs, in two ways. The first relates to how state and non-state-related stakeholders employ the term. In defining ecotourism, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) emphasises tourism's role in sustaining ecology (Bangkokbiznews, 2020), while the Thai tourism operators believe ecotourism should principally involve local economic development (ThaiSmile, 2019; ThailandInsider, 2020). Thai academics have generally paid attention to themes relating to helping and sustaining the natural resources and local cultures (Khemthong, 2012). This point illustrates that the ecotourism definition is still a 'buzz word' in Thailand, which different stakeholders still define and redefine. Second, problems have arisen from the complexity of ecotourism

¹ Automotive industry, electronics and electric appliances, food industry, agricultural products, tourism and health services.

² Exchange rate on February 11, 2021, 1 GBP = THB 38.54 (Marksandspencer, 2021).

stakeholders and their management. Thus, the adoption of ecotourism by Thai communities has caused complications for local residents and other relevant ecotourism stakeholders applying and utilising ecotourism, in terms of planning and managing within their local areas. For example, in the 1990s, the TAT defined ecotourism as a form of tourism that focuses on creating environmental awareness within local areas and applying it in the tourism communities as an approach to helping local communities live in harmony with nature. Unfortunately, since the introduction of Thai ecotourism, some local residents have found it problematic because they have experienced rapid changes in their local environments and societies, due to the influx of tourists and the growth of national infrastructures (e.g. roads, airports, water supply, telecommunication) (Peleggi, 2002; Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen and Anuwat, 2015). For example, promised roads are incomplete (Thairath, 2021), and some airports serve tourists rather than local people who cannot afford the tickets (Sitikarn, 2004).

Referring to the expansion of ecotourism in Thailand, Thai studies have mainly focused on prominent tourism destinations, such as Chiang Mai, Chiang Rai and the islands that include Phuket (see Hvenegaard and Dearden, 1998a; 1998b; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004a; Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen and Anuwat, 2014; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Meemana and Zhang, 2019) rather than rural areas, such as the Northeast of Thailand. However, in the late 1990s, the Thai government agencies started to introduce ecotourism and cultural programmes into this untouched area of Thailand. This is partly because one-third of Thailand's total national park area is in the Northeast region, leading government authorities to see it as an opportunity to introduce ecotourism into rural areas. Moreover, local settlements are a combination of a significant cluster of Khmer ancient cultures, many archaeological sites and numerous traditional festivals that differ from other parts of Thailand.

This Northeast region is the poorest region in Thailand (Punmanee and Wheway, 2017) and the last region to which the Thai government has paid attention regarding

implementing and supporting industrial, transportation, technology and tourism sectors within Thailand. Perhaps this is the case because of the relative lack of tourists, tourism services, stakeholder involvement and transportation facilities and the long distance between settlements (Janssen, 2015; Punmanee and Wheway, 2017). Even though the Northeast is the largest region in Thailand with more than a quarter of all Thai provinces (20), its economy relies on agriculture (specifically, cattle, buffalos, chickens and ducks) and crops (including rice, sugar canes, tapioca, rubber, vegetables, Maize and fruits), as well as fishing. For example, in 2018, the Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council reported that the Northeast Gross Regional Product per capita was the lowest of all Thai regions (THB 83,856 per year or GBP 2,176 per year), 6.07 times lower than that of the leading Eastern region (NESDC, 2020)—one reason this thesis pays attention to the Northeast region as its study area.

As mentioned, the Northeast region has a large concentration of national parks. The research focuses on the most popular national park, which has provided ecotourism programming within the Northeast region. The research illustrates the study area and the research procedures by using secondary information, in the form of journal articles, books and relevant organisation websites, and primary information gathered via 32 interviews and six focus groups. The researcher collected 502 questionnaires (from both international and domestic tourists), mostly from three case studies in Chaiyaphum province (see **Chapter 4, Methodology**). As **Figure 1.1** shows, they are Prang Ku in Chaiyaphum town, Ban Khwao in Ban Khwao District and Pa Hin Ngam National Park in Thep Sathit District.

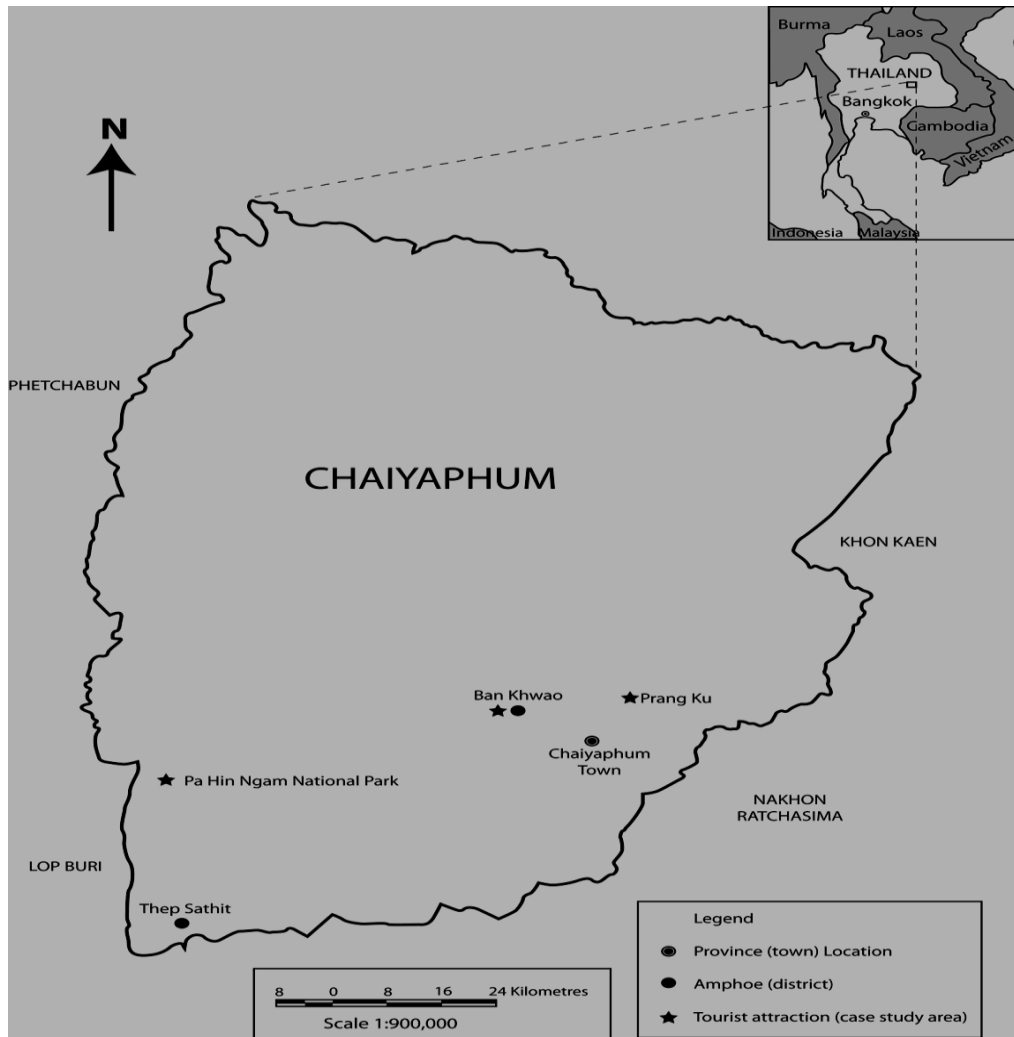


Figure 1.1: Chaiyaphum province map (Author's figure)

1.5 Contested Terms

Several terms within this thesis require formal definition: 'ecotourism', 'tourists', 'sustainable development', 'Technocratic Government System (top-down approach) and Neopopulism (bottom-up approach)', 'cultural heritage' and 'community'.

1.5.1 Ecotourism

Ceballos-Lascurain first established the term 'ecotourism' in 1987, and that definition remains the most widely known in the field:

“Travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestation (both past and present) found in these areas”.

(Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987)

Since then, the number of definitions of ecotourism has expanded significantly. Many researchers continue to think of ecotourism principally as a way of helping to sustain nature (Backman, Wright and Backman, 1994; Wall, 1994; Fennell, 2014). Others place more emphasis on culture, including helping to protect indigenous communities and their cultures (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987; Ziffer, 1989; Honey, 2008). Ecotourism can also be a process of development (Ziffer, 1989; Kutay, 1992; Weaver, 2002; Fennell, 2014) or a form of responsible tourism (Richardson, 1993; Place, 1995; Fennell, 2014). Individual or organisational interests sometimes shape contested definitions. **Chapter 2** discusses this debate.

As mentioned, ecotourism refers to various forms (e.g. community-based tourism, alternative tourism, nature tourism), but the most common themes concern minimising the negative impacts occurring within natural areas, returning economic benefits to the host countries and communities and developing a “consciousness and knowledge of the natural environment among the tourists as well as the hosts” (Boo, 1990, p. 2).

Budowski (1976) divides the relationships that involve tourism and nature in three ways. First, this relationship represents ‘conflict’, often due to conservationists focusing narrowly on the environmental problems tourism causes rather than benefit accrual. Second, the relationship is ‘coexistence’, where environmental and development goals are logically or spatially separate. Finally is the possibility of ‘symbiosis’, viewing conservation and

development goods as mutually reinforcing a ‘win-win’ scenario (Christensen, 2004; USAID, 2004; Chaigneau and Brown, 2016).

Hence the view of ecotourism is dependent on geographical space, human choices, culture and politics. Often, what we consider ‘nature’ is the product of humans and the shape of the society (Macnaghten and Urry, 1998). Referring to ecotourism often engenders confusion about the kinds of nature that people in the local communities must sustain. Different stakeholders have different interests, with some biased towards preserving nature (e.g. NGOs) and others who may have vested interests in preserving the existing mass-tourist infrastructure, including hotels, restaurants and entertainment facilities, perhaps just because different people may think and value nature in differently. Within Thailand, the definition of ecotourism is strongly focused on nature. This has ultimately raised concerns within some tourism destinations in Thailand, especially in the areas with indigenous people who once lived inside the park or destination (see Chankorm, 2021; Pinkaoew, 2021).

1.5.2 Tourists

Tourists are one of the four main stakeholders within the tourism industry (along with residents, tourism operators and government authorities) (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2005). ‘Tourist’ also signifies “the person who travels outside the usual environment (excluding trips within the areas of usual residence and also the regular, routine trips, such as to workplace) for a specified period of time and whose main purpose of travel is other than exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited” (UNWTO, 1991, n.p.). Chadwick (1994, p. 66) further adds that the “purpose of travel should exclude those migrating for long-term periods or living in the host countries, as well as those who migrate for work that is not temporary”. Additionally, UNWTO/UNSTAT (1994) suggests that to acquire the ‘tourist’ label, a person

should travel at least 160 km (99.42 miles) from home and stay there for at least one day but less than a year.

The UNWTO (1991) assigns tourists to two categories: international and domestic tourists. First, an international tourist is “a visitor who travels to a country other than that in which he/she has his/her usual residence for at least one night but not more than one year; and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited” (WTO, 1991, n.p.). Second, domestic tourists are those “. . .who travel away from the residential environment for at least one night but no more than 6 months within his/her home country” (WTO, 1991, n.p.; UN, 1994, n.p.).

This research will focus on both international and domestic tourists. More detail on this subject appears in **Chapter 5: Methodology**.

1.5.3 Sustainable Development

The thesis considers sustainable development in three ways: via its evolution, definition, and socially constructed nature.

Sustainable development has its roots in the debates over limiting growth during the 1970s (Donovan, 2009) and the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in 1972 in Stockholm (Macnaghten and Urry, 1998). Additionally, in response to an increasing environmental problem around the world, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Wide Fund for Nature Malaysia decided to create the World Conservation Strategy, aiming to provide the living resource conservation policies for humans to follow, in the face of global development (IUCN, 1980).

In 1987, the Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) decided to extend sustainable development beyond the World Conservation Strategy, via the Brundtland Report. The Brundtland vision for sustainable development later gained universal recognition as an

important moment in the development of the sustainability agenda, due to its highlighting three key components of what became characteristic sustainable development. First was the environment in which humanity should conserve, by changing how development takes place, through the adoption of environmental technologies. Second, nation-states must be able to meet their basic needs (i.e. employment opportunities, food, energy, water and basic sanitation). Third, economic growth should not come at the expense of sustainable development; developing nations should be able to access with greater equity the economic growth that developed economies have traditionally experienced.

In 1992, the Rio Earth Summit extended the Brundtland definition from focusing on safeguarding the environment to allowing national governments to join and set up their local action plans. This illustrated that the integration of sustainability and development had changed focus, from pure government intervention towards considering obligations to local communities.

The definition of sustainable development refers to “development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987, n.p.). Macnaghten and Urry (1998, p. 213) suggest that sustainable development often shares the common ideas: “Both definition share the underlying believe that economic and social change is only sustainable and thereby beneficial in the long term when it safeguards the natural resources upon which all development depends”. Despite these common beliefs, different organisations and nations often misinterpret sustainable development. Some organisations and investors apply sustainable development within their management decisions but only focus on the economic impacts rather than community outputs (Eccles and Klimenko, 2019)

If nations articulated the concept of sustainable development in a similar vein, sustainable development could create cooperative-relationship (symbiotic) situations for each

nation, in terms of its environment, society and economy. However, this situation is highly optimistic; most developed countries turn into leaders for the environmental controllers while less developed countries end up as followers.

According to the definition of sustainable development above, its keen focus is on improving benefits in the long term, to help create a balanced relationship between nature, economy and society. In terms of its socially constructed nature, Demertitt (2002) noted how the environment and nature have increasingly become intertwined with the ‘self-image’ of contemporary geography.

Regarding the construction of ‘nature’, Macnaghten and Urry (1998) illustrate three different yet influential viewpoints. A first view focuses only on the scientific knowledge of nature (often by conservationists). This group pays less attention to the human and social impacts within the natural settings, a doctrine that can conflict with community priorities. A second viewpoint often sees nature through “identifying, critiquing and realising various values which underpin or relate to the character, sense and quality of nature. Such values held by people about the nature and the environment are treated as underlying, stable and consistent” (Macnaghten and Urry, 1998, p. 1). Often, this group values nature differently, depending on its personal interests. Some only concern changing nature without compromising the experiences of human societies, while other groups may articulate the value of nature by seeing nature and societies as intertwined. Finally, the third viewpoint mainly concerns not only nature and the impacts that human activities cause but also the transformation of nature through the changes in the global-local society, through which space-time compression enables travel across the globe with ease.

According to the discussion above on the social construction of nature, how people value/conserves nature is often unclear, and what people think about nature may not be nature. Thus, the word ‘nature’ links to sustainable development, yet it becomes even vaguer.

1.5.4 Technocratic Government System (top-down approach) and Neopopulism (bottom-up approach)

The technocratic government system has its roots in a ‘top-down’ approach. Its main participants are normally elite people, politicians and civil servants. In terms of their practices, we often realise that the government authorities are the controllers and enforcers, while the ordinary people are followers (Priscoli, 2001; Cvitanovic *et al.*, 2015).

Neopopulism has its roots in populist ideas. First identified in the late eighteenth century as an emphasis on ‘the people’ (Butcher, 2007, Conniff, 2020), populism and neopopulism mainly refer to the ordinary people in society (e.g. local people, hill tribes, feminine groups). For example, in participatory bottom-up development, local people have the opportunity to control their destiny by respective governance structures giving them a ‘voice’.

The 1980s saw a shift from government-based development to ‘community-based development’. This emphasis on community-based participation is the definition of neopopulism. It mostly refers to rural communities (see Chambers, 1983), small scale, environmental sustainability and community empowerment (see Butcher, 2007).

Butcher (2007, p. 32) even stretches the idea of neopopulism further, explaining it as “development in the sense of being ‘what people do for themselves’ as opposed to ‘what is done to them’”. Thus, participants in neopopulism are part of a ‘bottom-up’ approach.

1.5.5 Cultural Heritage

Cultural heritage results from human, rather than biophysical processes and activities. These include either productive or material activities, and non-material activities, as well as values that are more difficult to define, such as religious, social, artistic, traditional and iconic values (Aplin, 2002).

Aplin (2002) divides cultural heritage into three main categories: movable heritage, immovable heritage (archaeological sites and historical buildings), and non-material heritage (dance, folk stories, craftworks). Thai cultural heritage is largely indigenous rather than externally imposed, as Thailand has retained its independence through the colonial period between the sixteenth and the mid twentieth centuries (Aplin, 2002), the reason “over 90% of the Thais are Theravada Buddhists” (Aplin, 2002, p. 330). It shapes religious architecture, a large inventory of built heritage sites, whilst other styles, such as Khmer (Cambodian cultural heritage styles) influenced other Thai cultural heritage sites. This architectural heritage spans the Northeast region, represented by the Khmer temple in Phimai, Nakorn Rachasima province (Aplin, 2002) and evident in and around ecotourism sites. Using the popular definition by Ceballos-Lascurain (1987), cultural heritage sites also fit within the definition of ecotourism.

1.5.6 Community

Community is often recognisable as a group of people who share common experiences and a sense of place, culture and history. Community became a significant element in development thinking in the 1970s, due to the perceived negative impacts of modern development (Banks and Carpenter, 2017). It has become a vital focus for improving and balancing the quality of peoples’ lives in the poorest/rural areas. Researchers must focus on the neglect of rural community development issues that a Technocratic Government System (top-down approach) and Neopopulism (bottom-up approach) have caused (Chambers, 1983).

Additionally, Butcher (2007) illustrates that the definition of community has narrowly focused on local communities, neglecting regional, national and international aspects of community. No community exists economically or culturally in isolation from these wider parameters. So, ‘community’, like ‘nature’, in an important sense, is a constructed category.

1.6 Thesis Structure

The thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 2: Ecotourism Constructions and Impacts

This chapter provides a critical review of the literature, forming the conceptual backbone of the study. It illustrates the meaning of ecotourism by describing what influences its definition. It also concentrates on the impacts of ecotourism in developing countries.

Chapter 3: Ecotourism Stakeholders and Their Experiences

This chapter develops the discussion from the previous chapter, moving on to ecotourism stakeholders and their experiences with ecotourism implementation in developed and developing countries. Later, it focuses on the various factors that hinder/encourage the success of ecotourism. This thesis pays attention to two key elements: power and politics.

Chapter 4: The Introduction of Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders

Inskip (1991) suggests that ecotourism is not a project that one party can undertake; ecotourism incorporates factors including people, money, service, surroundings and sustainable development. He argues that to ensure sustainable ecotourism, we must pay attention to the variety of stakeholders involved in the different aspects of ecotourism.

This chapter's objective is to address the first research question the thesis poses: 'Who are the Thai ecotourism stakeholders?' The researcher uses Chaiyaphum as a case study, but many of the key representatives are from surrounding regions or nationally situated in Thailand. The seven different stakeholder types are: Central Administrative Organisation (CAO), Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO), Local Administrative Organisations (LAO), Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA), tour operators, tourists and local communities.

Chapter 5: Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodologies used in this thesis, starting with semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaires to ascertain the definitions of ecotourism from Thai stakeholders. Focus groups also aid in understanding the perceptions of ecotourism. Moreover, semi-structured interviews and research diaries also helped to ascertain problems within different sectors, including national, regional and local organisations, nongovernmental agencies, tourism businesses, tourists and local people.

Chapter 6: The Construction of Ecotourism by Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders

The objective of this chapter is to answer the second research question: ‘How do Thailand’s ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism in terms of natural, economic, cultural, heritage and archaeology factors?’ To answer this question, the chapter aims to identify how different people define ecotourism and describe the connectivity between humans and nature, culture, and heritage; then, summarises the chapter’s overall findings. This chapter strives to convey an understanding of Thai ecotourism and what it means to different stakeholders connected to ecotourism. In this chapter, data come from focus groups, semi-structured interviews, open-ended questionnaires, research diaries and secondary data, to assess multiple stakeholders through their perceptions of environment, culture and heritage.

These analyses are distinctive and original. Few existing studies assess ecotourism’s meaning through the understandings of multiple stakeholders within the ecotourism arena (Goodwin, 1996; Fennell, 2001, Liu and Li, 2020).

Chapter 7: The Engagement of Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders in Rural Areas: Local Stakeholders and Engagement Disconnect

This chapter aims to answer the third research question: ‘What are Thai ecotourism stakeholders’ views on managing ecotourism at the local level?’ To answer this question, the chapter first aims to explain how each stakeholder perceives the roles of each stakeholder group. Second, it examines the stakeholders’ experiences of managing ecotourism within ecotourism destinations. Finally, it considers whether collaborations among all ecotourism stakeholders could help to manage ecotourism destinations in rural areas. Data in this chapter come from focus groups, semi-structured interviews, open-ended questionnaires, research diaries, personal experiences and secondary data.

The analyses in this thesis are distinct from previous studies that focus on a few groups of ecotourism stakeholders. Instead, I attempt to cover the key governance structures and the rest of the tourism stakeholders involved in the many different aspects of ecotourism. Currently, only a small body of existing research focuses on understanding the roles, responsibilities and engaging experiences of the stakeholders within the ecotourism field.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

The final chapter attempts to re-examine the review and critique of the stakeholders’ understandings of ecotourism and explore how these understandings of different actors could ultimately contribute to influencing stakeholders’ actions and the outcomes for ecotourism destinations. The study discusses the available opportunities for the Thai population, in terms of helping to sustain the geographical landscapes of tourism, i.e. natural, cultural, heritage and archaeology sites. The chapter finally highlights possibilities for further studies.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the content of the thesis, demonstrating ecotourism as an instrument for helping Thai societies to sustain their natural and cultural areas and boosting their economies. However, to do this, all stakeholders (government authorities, nongovernmental agencies, tourism operators, domestic and international tourists and communities) must understand what ecotourism is, as well as ways to interpret this knowledge and apply it in practice.

The next chapter discusses the background details of ecotourism studies, focuses on the relevant definitions, considers the meaning of ecotourism and its drawbacks and raises concerns over the implementation of ecotourism around the world.

CHAPTER 2

ECOTOURISM CONSTRUCTIONS AND IMPACTS

2.1 Introduction

This thesis examines how Thai stakeholders experience ecotourism in rural areas, in the more general context of the recent growth of tourism in Thailand. As **Chapter 1** sets out, the thesis looks at how stakeholders construct the definition of ecotourism and how key stakeholders apply it in Northeast Thailand. This chapter has two sections, comprising the construction and the impacts of ecotourism.

2.2 The Construction of Ecotourism

Ecotourism has had great resonance within the tourism industry for around twenty years, relatively recently becoming known as the fastest growing tourism segment in the world (Hawkins and Lamoureux, 2001; Fennell and Dowling, 2003; WTTC, 2004; Fennell, 2014). However, the definition of ecotourism still lacks clarity. As with other fields in the social sciences, debates about conceptual boundaries are commonplace, and tourism studies experiences this with regard to ecotourism. For example, Ceballos-Lascurain (1996, p. 2) supports this idea by mentioning that “a lingering problem in any discussion on ecotourism is that the concept of ecotourism is not well understood, and therefore, it is often confused with other types of tourism development”. This subsequently led to the contention amongst academics (Mowforth, 1992; Hvenegaard, 1994; Bjork, 2000; Blamey, 2001; Honey, 2008), corporations, NGOs and governments that employing the term ecotourism suits different personal beliefs and experiences, to fit national self-interests and utilisation as a political tool (e.g. Chuamuangphan, 2009; Fletcher, 2019).

Historically, the definition of ecotourism in its early stages focused on the issues of ‘conservation and enjoyment of nature’ (Bragg, 1990; Wight, 1993; WTTERC, 1993; Orams, 1995). According to this view, researchers often construct the word ‘nature’ through the view of conservationists (see **Chapter 1, section 1.5.3**). Thus, academics often tend to pay more attention to nature and natural resources than to viewing nature as entwined with humanity (Chambers, 1983).

A key definition of ecotourism that Ceballos-Lascurain developed illustrates this:

“Travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestation (both past and present) found in these areas. . . . The person who practices ecotourism has the opportunity to immersing himself/herself in nature in a manner generally not available in the urban environment”.

(Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991, n.p.)

The central issues of this definition mainly focus on natural areas, education and sustainable development (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987; Laarman and Dust, 1987; Wearing, McDonald and Ponting, 2005). Moreover, this definition also suggests that the method of creating sustainable ecotourism is to have “strict guidelines, regulations and management plans that will enhance the sustainable operations” (Diamantis, 1999, p. 96). However, Wondirad, Tolkach and King (2020) critique one of principal issues that Ceballos-Lascurain’s ecotourism definition had overlooked, namely, economic contributions. Wondirad, Tolkach and King (2020) believe that ecotourism should benefit not only natural areas but also local

people living within its sites. The local people must make a living to help sustain and protect the environment.

Around the 1980s, a general shift towards community-based development occurred in the neopopulist tradition (see **Chapter 1, section 1.5.4**). Accordingly, Murphy's work included a change in the definition of ecotourism—for example, Murphy (2008) defines ecotourism as tours that primarily focus on local community not only as a product, but as the principal stakeholder and interest group.

The rise of sustainability in development thinking, from the Brundtland Report of 1987 and the Rio Conference of 1992, marked a watershed. The idea of sustainable development became entwined with ecotourism. Ecotourism appeared able to combine development with conservation—the key tenet of sustainable development. One of the definitions of ecotourism that Kinnaird and O'Brien develop illustrated this:

“Ecotourism or nature tourism is implicitly assumed to have little or no impact on the environment . . . appears to be an ideal solution for combining goals of development and conservation”.

(Kinnaird and O'Brien, 1996, p. 65)

Whilst Ceballos-Lascurain (1987) neglects the economy in his definition of ecotourism, he still recognises that a definition of ecotourism should include not only nature but also culture and indigenous people within its remit because these aspects, nature and culture, intertwine. Humans have constructed the meaning of nature in many ways. Some note that nature should only focus on its value of nature rather than its meaning. However, others argue that what people think of as constituting nature may not be nature (Butcher, 2007). For instance, in the national park, has the flora and fauna existed prior to the establishment of the

park or did human activity introduce it? Accordingly, many ecotourism definitions focus on nature and culture. For example, Farrell and Runyan (1991) and Alampay (2005) note that ecotourism is a recognised way of helping and protecting nature and culture. Others (Boeger, 1991; Grenier *et al.*, 1993; Scace, Grifone and Usher, 1992; UNWTO, 1995) also mention that while ecotourism minimises the impacts on host communities, ecotourists also must pay respect to other cultures as well. Shores (1992) also points out that the definition of ecotourism, as Ceballos-Lascurain defines it, is incomplete and requires including the impacts of cultural and biodiversity areas within ecotourism sites. For example, in such Asian countries as China, Laos, Thailand and Vietnam, ecotourism sites contain cultural and heritage sites; focusing solely on nature would not represent the diversity of ecotourism sites around the globe (Zhang *et al.*, 2017).

In 1989, even though Kutay (1989) and Ziffer (1989) also defined ecotourism in a similar way to the concepts of Ceballos-Lascurain, they were also the first researchers who paid serious attention to the concept of ‘development’ within ecotourism, i.e. the economic benefit to the host countries as well as local residents. For example:

“A form of tourism inspired primarily by the natural history of an area, including its Indigenous cultures. The ecotourist visits relatively undeveloped areas in the spirit of appreciation, participation and sensitivity. The ecotourist practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and contributes to the visited area through labour or financial means aimed at directly benefiting the conservation of the site and the economic well-being of the local residents. The visit should strengthen the ecotourist’s appreciation and dedication to conservation issues in general, and to the specific needs to the locale. Ecotourism also implies a managed approach by the host country or

region which commits itself to establishing and maintaining the sites with the participation of local residents, marketing them appropriately, enforcing regulations, and using the proceeds of the enterprise to fund the area's land management as well as community development".

(Ziffer, 1989, p. 6)

This latter point is key, focusing not on the benefits of natural areas alone but actually involving the topics of development and economics (see Ziffer, 1989; Diamantis, 1999; Higham, 2007). This new emphasis, often referred to as 'community development', initially became recognised in development thinking via the work of Chambers (1983) (see **Chapter 1**), who argues for a need to focus on community.

Cooke and Kothari (2001) argue that the results of development within the community might not come from community engagement but, instead, through the participation of certain dominant interest groups, namely, those campaigning for and supporting the development and construction of particular facilities they perceive as needed within local communities. Butcher (2007) notices that communities could not avoid community development. Governments provide/market national priority projects, including electrification, airports and roads, to cater to the basic needs of people and improve well-being, particularly in rural areas where such infrastructure is lacking, as in Thailand. However, such infrastructure projects oppose what constitutes ecotourism, the idea of sustainable tourism development that preserves natural environments and habitats and limits the excesses of mass tourism development.

Thomlinson and Getz (1996), Butler (1999), Ryan, Hughes and Chirgwin (2000), and Butcher (2007) also mention that the development aspect of ecotourism should occur on a small-scale. There are many differing views regarding scale. Some, such as Butler (1999), argue that only small-scale development can be compatible with sustainable development.

This approach limits the growth of ecotourism businesses, which helps to preserve the environment. Marshall (1996, cited in Alampay, 2005) notes that ecotourism is a form of tourism that helps to conserve nature as well as maximise the host community, to improve its own social, economic and environmental well-being. This seems appealing but, again, suffers from the need to attract a narrower, wealthy (and educated) pool of tourists who could not inject the same level of capital into local communities as mainstream mass tourism.

Others argue for giving greater priority to development and growth (see Kutay, 1989; Butler 1999; Ryan, Hughes and Chirgwin, 2000; Butcher, 2007). Small-scale development attracts upwardly mobile ecotourists, but local communities must realise some material benefit from adopting different working methods and management practices.

King (2010) even suggests that economic development and natural resource conservation are compatible goals in ecotourism theory. For example, countries in Southeast Asia, such as Laos, Thailand and Vietnam, have already faced problems of how to utilise the concept of sustainable development to meet national development goals whilst conserving the environment and earning income in tandem (Calgaro and Lloyd, 2008; Cohen, Smith and Mitchell, 2008; Socialist Republic of Vietnam, 2012; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021). Similar discussions/conflicts between the environment and the economy have occurred in other parts of Asia and Africa (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Nicholas, Thapa and Ko, 2009; Das, 2017).

During the early 1990s, the definition of ecotourism still widely focused on the natural resources, local communities and the economy (Ross and Wall, 1999a). Valentine (1993) suggests that ecotourism definitions also must include 'effective management plans' to help and benefit the areas a programme implements. If the management plans already exist, then following them would be easier for all types of stakeholders. Thus, Valentine calls ecotourism:

“a new form of tourism . . . especially concerned with the appreciation of nature as the primary motive to participate, but with an essential element of zero negative impacts . . . based on relatively undisturbed natural areas, non-damaging, non-degrading, ecologically sustainable, a direct contributor to the continued protection and management of the natural areas used, subject to an adequate and appropriate management regime”.

(Valentine, 1993, pp. 108-109)

However, Boo (1990) argues that including strict management plans within the definition of ecotourism as Valentine suggests, with the hope that it would benefit the host countries in a sustainable way, is not enough. She argues that ecotourism plans must be part of wider regional and national plans.

Other views in the early 1990s paid attention to cultural heritage. For example, Figgis (1993, p. 8) defined ecotourism as “travel to remote or natural areas which aims to enhance understanding and appreciation of natural environment and cultural heritage, while avoiding damaging or deterioration of the environment and the experience for others”. Figgis (1993) notes that cultural heritage is equal in importance to natural resources. Some of the cultural heritage that lies within natural areas is old, intangible and high-value, as are the natural resources (Weaver, 2005). For example, ancient dances and language are always visible but present in the people who inhabit cultural heritage sites, and changes brought about by modernity have diminished some of these cultural forms (Lovell and Stuart-Hoyle, 2006), indicating the difficulty of managing cultural heritage (Landorf, 2009).

Since the late 1990s, the meaning of ecotourism has increasingly incorporated concerns regarding management and ethics (Honey, 2008; Fennell, 2014). Fennell (2014)

pioneered the application of ethical principles to ecotourism, although, as the quotation below makes clear, primarily with a clear focus on the construction of nature:

“A sustainable form of natural resource-based tourism that focuses primarily on experiencing and learning about nature, and is ethically managed to be low-impact, non-consumptive, and locally oriented (control, benefit, and scale). It typically occurs in natural areas and should contribute to the conservation or preservation of such areas”.

(Fennell, 2014, p. 43)

Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, ecotourism has tended to focus on the relationship between tourism, environment, sustainable development, local citizens, education, ethics and economics (Cock and Pfueller, 2000; Ryan, Hughes and Chirgwin, 2000; Weaver, 2001; UNWTO/UNEP, 2000). Cultural heritage has not received consideration to the same extent in the ecotourism literature. Robinson and Boniface argue that people normally do not realise that “the environment intrusions of tourism industry are frequently cultural intrusion” (Robinson and Boniface, 1999, p. 14), and this applies to ecotourism. However, in contention with this view, Fennell (2014) mentions that ecotourism should involve less focus on cultural heritage because including cultural concerns within the definition of ecotourism waters down the definition, and different forms of tourism bleed into each other. Ecotourism loses its distinctiveness, its focus on environmental conservation. Moreover, Dowling (1996) and Fennell (2014) also argue that culture is only a niche issue within the meaning of ecotourism. Therefore, if cultural heritage becomes a principal concept like nature, then it becomes ‘cultural tourism’ (Fennell, 2014).

However, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) points out that ecotourism seems to involve cultural and rural tourism more (Wood, 1991). Accordingly, the WTO has tried to balance practices between natural and cultural areas. For example, the WTO has created a World Tourism Day to help to ‘provide opportunities for all, transforming lives and protecting the cultural heritage that makes us human’ (UNWTO, 2020).

Moreover, in the context of ecotourism in Southeast Asian countries, Dowling (1996) mentions that there are plentiful examples of cultural heritage within those countries, but their governments still prefer to exclude cultural heritage and geological sites from the definition of ecotourism. This is the case despite finding cultural-heritage sites often ‘embedded’ within ecotourism destinations. Also, ecotourism destinations are mainly in the rural areas of developing and developed countries (Butcher, 2011; Snyman, 2014; Cobbinah *et al.*, 2017). However, the definition of ecotourism has tended to exclude rural tourism (Choibamroong, 2011; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018), despite many ecotourism projects relying on rural communities for project sustainability.

On the other hand, Passmore (1974) illustrates that nature’s involvement with humankind includes not only its intricate link to human activities but also its involvement with culture. He even compares nature to a new-born baby and explains that this baby needs help from wildlife as well as humankind, because when he/she grows up, he/she needs this support to help him/her to survive and reproduce. Thus, culture, built-heritage and lifestyles also closely tie nature with humanity (Uzzell, 1989).

Since 2000, despite many ecotourism definitions, their main focus is on the impacts on their geographical sites and local communities (Butcher and Smith, 2015; Kishnani, 2019; Karmini, 2020). Some clarify that ecotourism should mainly focus on giving back to the communities rather than taking advantage of them (Arismayanti and Mananda, 2016). Others

focus on decentralisation and empowerment (Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, 2019; Cabral and Dhar, 2020).

Walter (2013, p. 26) decides to move even further and discuss the ‘pedagogies’ of ecotourism education, emphasising culture. This should include storytelling, dance, preparing food, eating, rituals and music, each conveying environmental, cultural and livelihood knowledge to visitors. In line with Walter’s explanation of the principles of ecotourism education, many academics have started to reintroduce ecotourism with a cultural focus (Zhang and Lei, 2012; Tran and Walter, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Khanal, 2019-20; Pathmasiri and Bandara, 2019; Cabral and Dhar, 2020). These cultural aspects of ecotourism apply to Thailand, whose many undiscovered communities would benefit from small-scale ecotourism.

Tourists have many varied motivations to travel to developing countries, including self-improvement, political motives and visiting friends and relatives. These new motivations have led to the demand for more authentic tourism experiences linked to the natural world as well as cultural resources. Tourism is no longer solely for pleasure (Rojek and Urry, 1997).

Expanded tourist numbers have influenced local construction and architectural styles. In other words, these constructions are often not authentic, in that they do not mirror the local, indigenous cultures. Moreover, McLaren (2003, p. 5) mentions that “Tourism has accentuated cross-cultural stereotypes, led to mutual distrust, and accelerated cultural change”. For example, in the northern part of Thailand, the hill tribe people have adopted a begging strategy to earn quick money from foreigners (Trupp, 2014). This has become a social issue for Thailand, prompting attempts to stop begging from both international and domestic tourists.

Additionally, Swarbrooke (1999) states that the process of social change has occurred in the rural areas through depopulation. In some places, a small cluster of indigenous culture

and local residents lives as modernity tends to undermine rural areas, in favour of the cities. This has led to many concerns over the rurally located cultural heritage (Thomas, Harvey and Hawkins, 2013), resulting in less attention to maintaining cultural-heritage sites, some of which suffer neglect or act as tourism ‘honey pots’ with questionable impacts on local culture.

Since cultural heritage and natural resources intertwine, especially within developing countries, the definition of ecotourism has started to acknowledge cultural heritage again, attracting interest from academics from Asian countries. For example, Zhang and Lei (2012) believe that ecotourism is a tool for enhancing quality of life, increasing opportunities for environmentally responsible economic development and conserving fragile natural resources, cultural heritage and landscapes. Sparse studies of ecotourism come from a purely Southeast Asian perspective.

Ross and Wall (1999b) claim that there has been much research on ecotourism projects. Noteworthy are frequent charges that ecotourism has failed to deliver, in terms of protecting and maintaining sensitive areas that include the natural resources and cultural heritage sites (Lyon and Wells, 2012; Hill, 2016; Adom, 2019; Sobhani *et al.*, 2022; Zhao, 2022). Some scholars argue that ecotourism is only a tactic to attract people to the green market (Ross and Wall, 1999a; McLaren, 2003). Wight states:

“There is no question that ‘green sells’. Almost any terms prefixed with the term “eco” will increase interest and sales. Thus, in the last few years there has been a proliferation of advertisements in the travel field with references such as ecotour, ecotravel, ecovacation, ecological sensitive adventures, eco(ad)ventures, ecocruise, ecosafari, ecoexpedition and, of course, ecotourism”.

(Wight, 1993, p. 4)

Indeed, many Asian countries and agencies around the world have recognised ecotourism as one of the fastest-growing sectors (Wearing and Neil, 1999; Blangy and Mehta, 2006; Honey, 2008; Balmford *et al.*, 2009), raising awareness of management practices as well as implications for ecotourism (Hall, 2004; Nicholas, Thapa and Ko, 2009; Diamantis, 2018; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021).

Bjork (2000) illustrates that ecotourism is not a type of activity-based tourism but a unique form of tourism that pays attention to improving management of natural resources as well as economic well-being. However, many countries—especially Southeast Asian nations—have focused their attention on adventure activities, such as mountain climbing, scuba diving and bird watching. Yet, many of these same countries have fallen behind in the protection of fragile areas, indigenous communities and cultural heritage (e.g. Ardis, 1996; TAT, 1997; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004a; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004b; Adom, 2019; Sobhani *et al.*, 2022). Development and management of ecotourism cannot grow to such a degree that it supports sustainable development, until the time each stakeholder (institutions, private sectors, tourists and tourism operators) has more clearly defined roles and practices. By chasing economic benefits, Southeast Asian countries have tended to neglect sound management of ecotourism sites.

Next, the discussion focuses on the effects of ecotourism in developing countries.

2.3 The Effects of Ecotourism in the Developing World

Ecotourism is one of the development strategies that governments within the developing countries, such as Malaysia (WWFNM, 1996) and Thailand (Sangpikul, 2020), have utilised as an approach to help boost their local economies. Some academics support the idea that ecotourism also helps to reduce the threat of the poverty trap in developing countries, especially in rural areas (Zeppel, 2006; Cobbinah, 2014; Palmer and

Chuamuangphan, 2018). However, Brown and Hall (2008, p. 841) argue “the consequences of tourism could also create the impacts similarly to those caused by oil and weaponry”.

The growth of ecotourism incomes within developing countries has brought these countries around 10% to 30% of global tourism spending and about 30% to 40% of the world’s tourists (Fritsch and Johannsen, 2004; Singh, 2010). Christ *et al.* (2003) and Flather and Cordell (1995) also point out that the number of ecotourists and/or other types of tourists will double by the end of 2020, a prediction that would have come true if not for COVID-19.

Considerable contention remains regarding how ecotourism is interpreted conceptually and its actual implementation through the various levels of government. As **Chapter 1** describes, ecotourism has linkages between tourism and nature. Budowski (1976) suggests that the best approach to promote close and long-term relationships between nature and ecotourism stakeholders is to ensure that all stakeholders mutually benefit from ecotourism—in other words, ‘symbiosis’ between nature and ecotourism management and promotion.

To benefit host communities means to improve their overall standard of living. This idea could refer to the term ‘development’, and developing countries want to harness the income from tourism, specifically ecotourism, to improve the lifestyles and economic independence of local people, particularly in rural and marginal communities where capital and investment trickling down from large investment elsewhere is difficult.

Development normally means to improve in a way that ultimately helps an aspect to become more advanced and stronger, or to have ‘more’ than it has today (Wallerstein, 1994). Some academics define development as a tool for helping—as well as guiding—the agencies or countries to meet the basic needs of populations and lift people out of poverty (Sachs, 1992).

After applying development to the ecotourism definition (Ziffer, 1989; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; McKercher, 2010; Jamaliah and Powell, 2018), some academics (Daly,

1990; Smith, 1993; Glasbergen and Blowers, 1995) raise concerns, especially over how to balance development and conservation. Bjork tries to explain what the ecotourism stakeholders should do:

“the authorities, the tourism industry, tourists and local people need to co-operate and make it possible for tourists to travel to genuine areas in order to admire, study and enjoy nature and culture in a way that does not exploit the resource, but contributes to sustainable development”.

(Bjork. 2000, pp. 196-197)

However, this approach seems more abstract than practical. Ferguson (1990) suggests that in order to balance these two aspects, development should not occur from a top-down perspective — i.e. by government authorities (see **Chapter 1, section 1.5.4**—Technocratic Government System)—for citizens to follow because it only focuses on “the economics and a neglect of cultural and environmental aspects of development” (Butcher, 2007, p. 33). Rather, it must provide people an opportunity to set their own rules and allow them to have their own right to speak (see **Chapter 1, section 1.5.4**—Neopopulism). Butcher (2007, p. 32) also agrees that both a technocratic government system (government-based development) and neopopulism (community-based development) are “often referred to as development in the sense of being ‘what people do for themselves’ as opposed to ‘what is done to them’”. As **Chapter 1** mentions, ecotourism impacts not only the local community but also sustainable development; thus, local communities should be able to run their own strategies and plans. Several successful case studies on community-based ecotourism have been documented in Alberta, Canada (see Herremans and Welsh, 2001), and Olango Island in the Philippines (Alampay, 2005, pp. 142-143). Ong also supports the idea, suggesting:

“We need to attend to how places in the non-West differently plan and envision the particular combinations of culture, capital and the nation-state, rather than assume that they are immature versions of some master western prototype”.

(Ong, 1999, p. 31)

Moreover, Reime and Hawkins also point out:

“To be successful, tourism-development must correspond to the inherent characteristics and needs of the regions, its society and the customers sought”.

(Reime and Hawkins, 1979, p. 68)

This quote is significant in the context of this thesis. During the era of mass tourism, little concern arose for consideration of regional and local cultures/norms. Despite some contention, developing countries still believe that ecotourism would ultimately help to provide benefits rather than create problems in their countries (de Haas, 2002; Fitzgerald and Stronza, 2016; Hunt, 2022). This is because ecotourism destinations as a whole have successfully brought infrastructure facilities, such as roads, transportation and electricity, to rural areas, which can benefit the wider population and rural hinterlands (Spenceley and Meyer, 2012; Saufi, O'Brien and Wilkins, 2014; Forje, Tchamba and Eno-Nku, 2021). However, some argue that this programme has failed to sustain the environment and cultural aspects. The works of Ndione make an interesting point that supports this argument, when he states:

“You are poor because you look at what you do not have. See what you possess, see what you are, and you will discover you are astonishingly rich’

(African proverb, quoted in Ndione, 1994, p. 37)

Consequently, development within tourism-related fields focuses not only on how to improve ecotourism programmes but also on how to advance the residents’ lifestyles from the traditional to the modern. Furthermore, the focus includes improving five different aspects: economics, social, political, cultural and technological (Goulet, 1989; Ionel, 2019). Pearce (1991), Oppermann and Chon (1997) and Sharpley and Telfer (2008) also suggest that development helps to create jobs and improve economies within the rural communities and the countries themselves. At the same time, development also creates security within the tourism destinations, as people in such communities or countries must ensure that tourists have peace and happiness whilst travelling (see Sharpley and Telfer, 2008; Sharma, Charak and Kumar, 2018; Bechmann Pedersen, 2020).

Development can sometimes mean moving towards modernity, replacing or superseding the older, traditional lifestyles. For example, the work of Bryceson (2002, pp. 726-727), Jongudomkarn and Camfield (2006, p. 504) and Leavy and Hossain (2014, p. 38) demonstrate the shift from agricultural lifestyles towards the process of deagrarianisation³:

“... farming is not a favoured option for the younger generation in rural areas of developing countries, even those in which agriculture remains the mainstay of livelihoods and the rural economy”.

(Leavy and Hossain, 2014, p. 38)

³ “Deagrarianisation is a process of agricultural society dominated by non-agricultural activities. For example, rural people are migrating to urban areas to seek higher incomes, and farmers are using new technologies on farming, such as using pesticides instead of organic fertiliser or tractors instead of buffaloes”. BRYCESON, D. 2002. The scramble in Africa: reorienting rural livelihood. *World Development*, 30 (5), 725-738.

This has caused concern for the developing countries' authorities and residents, as development has dramatically changed the ways in which developing countries' people live. For example, Rigg (2007) demonstrates that the way development has occurred in Thailand has now subsequently changed Thai lifestyles, with Thai people believing that "a happy man is a wealthy man—material goods have become symbols not only of success but also of happiness" (Rigg, 2007, p. 65). Within a generation, the acquisition of material goods has been a noticeable trend as incomes have increased.

There are two approaches to measuring the success of development projects. Firstly, development that uses the ideas of balancing and improving through a step-by-step approach (sufficiency economy⁴); and secondly, development that applies the idea of business tools by comparing which strategy is the most prudent course, via the use of benchmarking⁵ tools (Srinakharinwirot University, 1999). The popular approach of developing countries is 'benchmarking', which works as a quick and balanced process for 'solving problems' via measuring quantitative indicators. However, the Thai authorities argue that this process would not necessarily help to create a successful solution, as Thai residents are not ready for the new challenges that modernising economies presents (Srinakharinwirot University, 1999). Thus, I argue that local communities are still not ready to adapt to modern methods of performance management and key performance indicators that tracking the progress of projects often requires.

⁴ Sufficiency economy is 'a philosophy that stresses the middle path as the overriding principle for appropriate conduct and way of life by populace at all levels (individual, family and community). Its aims are to balance the development strategy within the nation as well as to develop in line with the forces of globalisation and shielding against inevitable shocks and excesses that may arise' (Sufficiency Economy NESDB, 2006).

⁵ Benchmarking is a process that focuses on how to improve the organisation via the ideas of finding the gaps within the organisation itself, by comparing and seeking ways to improve those gaps from case studies of the most successful organisations. After applying this process, the organisation itself would then eliminate those gaps and become successful later (Boonyamalik, 2005)

Since benchmarking's application by developing countries in the context of ecotourism, problems have occurred—notably, misunderstandings in relation to the definition of development itself between local communities—and the key issue becomes the object of benchmarking, i.e. what are the aims of development? This is why different perceptions of ecotourism are important to understand. Development itself, as well as ecotourism, is (re) constructed and contested.

A focus on 'process' rather than concrete action and implementation has been a key obstacle to enabling ecotourism to benefit local communities. Local communities and interest groups have seen the increased bureaucracy resulting from the processes of modernity as putting a 'block' on creating meaningful change on the ground within ecotourism sites.

The following section outlines some key impacts of ecotourism that the literature identifies. Some are the unintended consequences of promoting ecotourism in new locations.

2.3.1 Land Price Increases

Ecotourism generally functions as a driving force behind helping local people earn more household income (Almeyda *et al.*, 2010; Walter, 2013; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, 2019; Ashraf *et al.*, 2020). However, there are some drawbacks, especially when areas acquire recognition as tourist destinations. Cater (1993) states that ecotourism programmes have forced land prices up. She uses Belize as an example, pointing out that “the areas (proximate to Miami, Houston and New Orleans) cost around ‘US\$135,000 (in 1993)’ and probably now (in 1993), foreigners own all these areas” (Cater, 1993, p. 86). Moreover, Bosselman, Peterson and McCarthy (1999) also mention that most Belizeans could not afford to live in tourist regions because land values in Belize were extremely high. Similarly, in Honduras (Moreno, 2005), Costa Rica (Horton, 2009) and Cambodia (Walter, 2013), foreign investors forced the prices of properties close to ecotourism

sites upwards, and this has forced the local residents to live farther away from the places where they grew up. Almeyda *et al.* (2010) also mention that the arrival of ecotourism programmes in Costa Rica has led to increased land and food prices inside the country.

2.3.2 Sociocultural Problems

Since tourism has become established within the developing countries, such as Thailand and Nepal, the number of social and cultural problems has increased in four ways, namely, through “commodification, culture affecting social change, cultural knowledge and cultural patrimony” (Brandon, 1996, pp. 17-19). Specifically, these increase crime (Farr and Rogers, 1994; Mansperger, 1995; Pizam, 1999; Teye, Sirakaya and Sonmez, 2002; Tarlow, 2006; Howard, 2009; Mohammed and Sookram, 2015), dissatisfaction within the local population (Doxey, 1975; King, Pizam and Milman, 1993; Mansperger, 1995; Madan and Rawat, 2000; Mapes, 2009), cultural homogenisation (Cohen and Kennedy, 2000; Morrison and Maxim, 2021), displacement of local residents (Faulkenberry *et al.*, 2000; Green, 2000; Joseph and Kavoori, 2001; Jaurez, 2002; Neef, 2019) and prostitution and health-related problems (Ryan and Hall, 2001; Bauer, Chon and McKercher, 2003; Howard, 2009; Padilla *et al.*, 2010; Godovykh and Ridderstaat, 2020).

Dearden’s work uses Northern Thailand as a case study and demonstrates a significant sociocultural problem occurring within the unspoiled areas. Dearden (1991) states that the more international and domestic tourists arrive within the ethnic villages each year, the more signs of significant cultural changes emerge. For example, some ethnic people wearing T-shirts instead of their own ethnic dress (Coppock, 1977), costing them a significant sum of money. The highlands residents have become accustomed to the idea of earning quick money by becoming beggars (Cohen, 1979). Tourists interfere with the tribespeople by impacting their everyday lifestyles because tourists may enter into their homes at different times. And

the ethnic residents must invent new cultures and adopt the stereotype from Western behaviours to attract both international and domestic tourists (Stronza, 2001; Mahapatra, Pandey and Pradhan, 2012; Cabral and Dhar, 2020). This has become a kind of ‘performance’ for the tourists, to encourage economic benefits.

In addition, Duffy (2002) and Mowforth and Munt (2015) mention that ecotourism has simultaneously impacted the process of empowerment within the local communities and created fragmentation within their local families. For instance, in Vietnam, women have more opportunities to work than in the past, when they only did housework (Tran and Walter, 2014). Also, in Costa Rica, people must work long hours, due to the changes resulting from the influx of tourists and previously mentioned increases in land values and food prices, resulting in such family problems as divorce (Horton, 2009). Horton (2009) even notes that some women have become involved in prostitution, due to the presence of foreigners and the associated economic benefits. Furthermore, Honey (2009) illustrates some Maasai residents who have lost faith in their cultures, possibly because they see themselves as ‘humans in a zoo’, waiting for the tourists to come, see and experience them, a kind of exhibit. Honey cites an interviewee stating that “his classmates only wear the Maasi dress and behave like Maasi peoples when the tourists arrive, but, after the tourists left he just pretended to be someone else” (Honey, 2009, p. 50).

2.3.3 *Environmental Impacts*

In an ideal world, ecotourism works as a strategy to help nations to overcome problems from mass tourism. However, Jacobson and Lopez (1994, p. 415) question whether “ecotourism cannot be viewed as a benign, non-consumptive use of natural resources”. Dearden (1991, p. 409) agrees with Jacobson and Lopez and further contends, “Tourism is not

environmentally benign”. Ecotourism still involves relatively smaller numbers of tourists travelling great distances and requiring more money to partake.

Within the developing countries, these ecotourism problems mostly relate to the degradation of natural resources (Wiertsema, 1995; McKercher, 1998; Weaver, 1998; Chin *et al.*, 2000; Holden, 2009; Jouanjean, Tucker and te Velde, 2014; Afonso *et al.*, 2021; Ștefănică *et al.*, 2021) and the increases in pollution (Farrell and Marion, 2001; Kruger, 2005; Barman, Bera and Pradhan, 2015; Chowdhury and Maiti, 2016; Abris *et al.*, 2020). Karen and Mather (1985) further discuss the ecotourism problems around trekking within Nepal (e.g. deforestation and waste pollution). In a similar vein, ecotourism problems have also appeared among the Sea Kayaking community in Southern Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004a). The results in Thailand were not dissimilar to Nepal’s.

Gill and Satyanarayan (cited in Dowling, 1996) find more evidence of the impacts of introducing ecotourism into Thailand. They record reports of dead deer and elephants near the tourism sites; animals that consumed golf balls or fell off the cliffs whilst building road infrastructure and golf courses. Moreover, in Ecuador’s Galapagos Islands, the negative impacts linked to the large amount of tourist arrivals annually included erosion and plant and animal disturbance (Brandon, 1996; Powell and Ham, 2008; Mapes, 2009; Nash, 2009). Mathieson and Wall (1982) discuss further impacts of ecotourism within the Galapagos Islands, from the increasing number of plant and animal invaders. These incidents have reduced the native flora and fauna and increased breeding failure of coastal bird species (Nash, 2009).

The study of hoatzin chicks in the Amazonian rainforest by Mullner, Linsenmair and Wikelski (2004) also detects chicks standing lower chances of survival because of the disturbance from the size of tourist groups. Some academics note the increased risk of the transmission of diseases to the wild animals within ecotourism sites (Stone and Nyaupane,

2016; Bello, Lovelock and Carr, 2017; Khanal, 2019-20). Additionally, others cite tourist management to attract ecotourists that has caused direct impacts on animal behaviours (Long, 1991; Davis, 2015; Massingham, Fuller and Dean, 2019), including driving boats to make flamingos fly, allowing tourists to find frigatebird nesting areas (MacKinnon, MacKinnon and Thorsell, 1986), feed the animals (Mapes, 2009; Massingham, Fuller and Dean, 2019; Afonso *et al.*, 2021) and use flashlights and torches during turtle hatchings (Ballantyne, Packer and Hughes, 2009; Walter and Cronin, 2020).

Haysmith (1995) lists the environmental impacts that have occurred in different nations (see **Appendix 1**) — for example, poor water quality, disturbing breeding and wildlife that affects reproduction, trail erosion and disturbing vegetation and wildlife, soil compaction, sea-turtle nesting and reproduction (**Chapters 6 and 7** return to this aspect). In general, the impacts on nature result from different factors. For example, Weber (1993) states that the impacts within the African environment are due to the limited education of tour guides and tourist group sizes. Others (Haysmith, 1995; Kusler, 1991a; 1991b) mention that the impacts on nature depend on the visitors' activities and behaviours.

Despite numerous negative impacts of ecotourism in developing countries, this alone does not mean that the negative consequences of ecotourism should limit the introduction of ecotourism in different settings around the world. There are examples of cases where ecotourism has helped to conserve and protect the biodiversity of natural resources. For example, in Australia, ecotourism benefits the host communities by protecting the water supplies and nutrient cycling within biodiversity (Diamantis, 1999; Moskwa, 2008; Korosi, 2013). In Costa Rica, ecotourism has helped the country to reduce deforestation within the natural environments (Karwacki and Boyd, 1994; Horton, 2009; UNEP, 2019; Konyn, 2021). Moreover, in Central America, benefits to the local cultural and ecological sites include protecting the watershed (Courrau, 1995; Klak, 2007; Hunt and Stronza, 2011; Loperena,

2016). In Cambodia, ecotourism has helped the local residents to learn, value and maintain their traditional cultures, such as Khmer classical dance in Chambok, the use of ox carts for farming and harvesting and the traditional Khmer Water Festival, with boat racing and lantern floating (Walter, 2013; Sen and Walter, 2020). Finally, in Rwanda, ecotourism has helped to not only save numerous gorillas but also decrease the problems regarding regional politics (Verissimo *et al.*, 2009; Maekawa *et al.*, 2015; Sabuhoro *et al.*, 2021).

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter illustrates the numerous definitions and viewpoints of different groups regarding ecotourism. The meaning of ecotourism is associated with such key topics as natural areas, conservation, sustainable development, local communities, economics, education and welfare. For example, some academics question the definition of ecotourism relating to the indigenous residents, as well as cultural heritage. Fennell (2014) argues that ecotourism should only discuss and pay attention to natural environments because the word ecotourism originated from the terms ‘ecology’ and ‘tourism’. Including other aspects, such as culture, risked ‘diluting’ the meaning of ecotourism. However, others (Cronin, 1990; Honey, 2008) argue that culture cannot be independent of nature because people have created cultures and heritage.

Recently, ecotourism has become a niche in which people feel virtuous about how they can protect the environment and help other people to earn income. Furthermore, ecotourism also impacts the areas that have become the tourism destinations. For example, environmental degradation, crime and property values increase. This chapter makes increasingly evident that ecotourism is socially constructed, and differing constructions have emerged.

Helping to decrease the risk of problems means having well-managed ecotourism plans. However, the plan might not be enough if the residents in the countries fail to implement it. Such plans are the most important ways of helping ecotourism to become successful and minimising the impacts on natural and cultural heritage areas, as well as contributing income to local communities. We must first consider the relevant stakeholders and their understanding of the term 'ecotourism' and, second, understand the relationships between the relevant ecotourism stakeholders. Doing this would initially help the host countries to experience less severe consequences from ecotourism, due to promoting strong, resilient host communities.

How different stakeholders relate to the contested nature of ecotourism shapes how ecotourism happens in reality. This is where debates about nature, economy and culture come to the fore when examining Thai ecotourism. The importance of culture in Thai ecotourism emphasises the symbiotic connection between culture and nature that has developed through the emphasis on Buddhism. Whilst in Thailand the challenges of implementing ecotourism mirror other developing nations, understanding what motivates different stakeholders appears to influence the extent to which ecotourism can succeed in more remote, rural locations, where all stakeholders must work together.

The next chapter, attempts to demonstrate how different stakeholders experience ecotourism, especially on local scales of experience. It also pays attention to the factors that have shaped ecotourism.

CHAPTER 3

ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS AND THEIR EXPERIENCES

3.1 Introduction

As **Chapter 1** mentions, a key aim of this thesis is to explore Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences, in the context of recent growth of tourism in rural areas. The previous chapter discusses this in relation to the construction of ecotourism definitions and its impacts across developing countries. This chapter aims to extend the discussions from **Chapter 2**, to ecotourism and associated stakeholders' experiences, especially relating to the operation of ecotourism on the ground. In this thesis, stakeholders are "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, p. 46). Within the tourism literature, Byrd, Bosley and Dronberger (2009) and Goeldner and Ritchie (2005) divide tourism stakeholders into four main categories: tourists, tourism operators, host governments and local residents. Moreover, the thesis focuses on the various factors that hinder/aid the success of ecotourism in different countries around the globe, categorised here as 'power' and 'politics'. The chapter comprises two sections, namely, the views and implementation of ecotourism via the stakeholders and the associated impacts on ecotourism development.

3.2 Ecotourism Stakeholders: Views and Implementation

While ecotourism has existed as a concept globally for more than two decades, there is wide recognition of an 'implementation gap' (see Schoemann, 2002; Hall, 2008). This is due in part to the paucity of linkage and collaboration between the host residents and the ecotourism mediators (cf. Ashraf and Sibi, 2020; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020) and the scarcity of involvement of local residents in management and decision-making on ecotourism

management and practices (Nicholas, Thapa and Ko, 2009; Chia *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, Treuren and Lane (2003) highlight that organisations developing their own strategies and goals would help to minimise the problems and costs and maximise the benefits to host countries. However, Hall notes:

“If there are multiple agencies involved and/or private or non-government partners how will efforts be coordinated and how do we ensure that every party understand the goals in the same way?”.

(Hall, 2008, p. 244)

This quotation exemplifies the need in developing countries for sound strategies and plans, based on a shared understanding of ecotourism and factoring in local needs, to properly implement plans and benchmark performance and ensure reaching goals. If key goals are unmet, analysis to learn from mistakes and improve future policies must follow.

The strategy to help each nation to conserve the environment and the cultural heritage is to have well-managed ecotourism plans (Mieckowski, 1995; Stabler, 1997; Li, 2004) and good stakeholder collaboration (Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020). These are less often in evidence within developing countries (Schoemann, 2002). This thesis focuses on the national⁶ and the subnational⁷ scales because the national and the subnational scales of ecotourism implementation in developing countries are completely different from those in developed countries. For example, in Canada and Australia, a subnational ecotourism implementation plan is already in place, so processing and reaching successful ecotourism implementation is quicker there (Wight, 2002). In developing countries, the complexity and variable efficacy of national and subnational scales (e.g. cooperation mechanisms and allocation/sharing of

⁶National scale (i.e. National policy, Department policy).

⁷Subnational scale (i.e. Provinces, communes).

regulator responsibilities between different levels of governments) often delay implementation of ecotourism (Alampay, 2005; Asraf and Sibi, 2020).

Diamantis (2018) raises concerns regarding the problems facing ecotourism. He suggests that one of the most pressing problems is ‘stakeholder management’. Backman and Munanura (2015) and Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, (2019) agree with Diamantis, illustrating that the key drivers to make ecotourism live up to its environmentally friendly credentials are ‘the ecotourism stakeholders’— tourists, residents, entrepreneurs and government officials. Each stakeholder group comprises a diversity of views on dealing with the ecotourism challenge (Diamantis, 2018). Following this, Ziffer (1989) and Boo (1991) highlights why developing countries (or some developed countries) are still finding ecotourism a challenge, given the multiplicity of meanings and values involved. They state:

“The definition of ecotourism is multi-purpose; it attempts to describe an activity, set forth a philosophy, while at the same time espouse a model of development (Ziffer, 1989, p. 5). Nevertheless, ecotourism claimed to provide economic benefits through natural resources preservation, offering potential benefits to both conservation and development”

(Boo, 1991, p. 54)

Despite this challenge, the statement claims that ecotourism contributes benefits not only to ecotourists but also to those host nations and related tourism operators. Ecotourism is thus contentious, in relation to the idea of improving the standard of living within host countries. Development and economic approaches have influenced the growth of ecotourism, from conservation and preserving the natural sites to concentrating on the strategies for how

to improve economic incomes and provide new employment opportunities in local communities.

Host countries have now generated greater funding to deal with increases in the demands of tourists for tourism facilities, whilst ignoring the interest in protecting and sustaining the environment and culture (see **Chapter 2** for more detail). Donohoe and Needham (2006) also mention that this confusion surrounding the definition of ecotourism also led to concerns on how to implement ecotourism management with a plethora of different users, such as decision-makers, managers, planners and local residents.

The following sections offer some examples of influential stakeholders and their experiences with ecotourism programmes. It focuses first on government agencies, then on ecotourism operators, ecotourists themselves and, finally, local communities.

3.2.1 Governmental Organisations

Government has responsibilities to inform, support, assist and formulate and implement policy to serve and benefit the people. Gordon (1991, pp. 2-3) defines government as “a form of activity aiming to shape, guide, or affect the conduct of some person or persons — i.e. the conduct of conduct”. However, the roles of the government may ultimately vary, depending on locations and social norms on policy implementation. Within the field of ecotourism, Goeldner and Ritchie (2005, n.p.) note that government often views tourism as ‘a wealth factor in the economy of their jurisdiction’. This view applies in both developed and developing countries. According to Goeldner and Ritchie, the governments within Asia, South Africa and the Pacific Islands have also further applied ecotourism in their national plans as way of improving the economic restructuring in their countries (Schoemann, 2002; Dredge and Jenkins, 2007; Hall, 2008; Jenkins, Hall and Troughton, 1998). Moreno (2005) mentions

that by 1990, nearly every developing country had developed an ecotourism programme within its national plan.

However, implementation of ecotourism differs in developed countries (see **Appendix 2**). For example, Australia (Tisdell and Wilson, 2002) and Canada (Wight, 2002) follow a more decentralised model, based on the needs of their local communities. Additionally, Pearce (2001, p. 351) notes that because the developed countries often have “a happy juxtaposition of the right people and the right skills and a sympathetic council” with which to work, they can spread good practice in ecotourism site management down to the community level. By contrast, developing countries’ governments only tend to implement some of the above, tending to suit the needs of those who implement such policy rather than those who utilise it (Fennell and Dowling, 2003; Hall, 2008; Honey, 2009). Additionally, as Fletcher (2009, p. 272) points out, “many elements of ecotourism discourse are likely to be quite alien to members of the rural communities in less-developed and non-Western societies where ecotourism is promoted”. To enable ecotourism to succeed, the Good Governance Advisory Group demonstrates:

“Good governance depends on the actors and groups involved in the network, their aspirations and values, and the decisions they make about issues such as accountability, transparency, participation, communication, knowledge-sharing, efficiency and equity’. Developing countries’ context — and Thailand — can and do lack these factors”.

(Good Governance Advisory Group, 2004, cited in Beaumont and Dredge, 2010, p. 8)

Although developing governments have strategies in terms of implementing ecotourism programmes within their national plans, this does not mean that the way they

practise and define the term 'ecotourism' would effectively support sustainable ecotourism. Developing governments have still forgotten to focus on 'coordination' with other relevant stakeholders (Schoemann, 2002) or otherwise 'put people back into their networks' (Rhodes, 2002), a recognised significant approach to helping the nations improve their tourism programmes, especially in terms of implementing planning and policy (Allmendinger, Barker and Stead, 2002; Gunn and Var, 2002; Swart, 2005; Hall, 2008). This also sheds light on the disadvantages of top-down national development plans (see **Chapter 2**), which do not account for locally specific circumstances. These national development plans also tend to originate from urban-focused government officials with little experience of the social and economic challenges that rural communities face. For example, governance in developing countries tends to be directed from the capital of each country, where policy makers often come from elite families with little connection or understanding of rural communities or the rural economy that dominates employment in such countries as Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand and Vietnam (Sidel, 2005; Marie Stur, 2019).

For example, the Thai government tends to allocate/share the policies and regulations, mostly creations by the main staff in the relevant authorities, from the capital of Thailand, Bangkok. Thus, the policies and regulations sometimes do not suit the needs of the local people within rural areas. Often, they are not that easy for the rural authorities and people living in those areas to follow.

Furthermore, Stein, Clark and Rickards (2003) mention that to implement the ecotourism policies, the collaboration between sectors is not enough when creating effective ecotourism planning that also requires a focus on the relationships within organisations. Additionally, Anyaoku and Martin (2003) further suggest that to make ecotourism programmes a success, the residents and the rest of the ecotourism stakeholders must have good relationships while working with each other. McKercher and Ritchie (1997) and

Nunkoo (2015) also note that if the tourism officers lack expertise and skills in the tourism fields, the results would be less than satisfactory. The Good Governance Advisory Group (2004, cited in Beaumont and Dredge, 2010, p. 8) suggests that the ability to make ecotourism achieve its aims requires government involvement in “the network, their aspirations and values, and the decisions they make about issues such as accountability, transparency, participation, communication, knowledge-sharing, efficiency and equity”. Key to this is having staff with expertise and experience in tourism management.

Additionally, Schoeman (2002) demonstrates that the ecotourism approaches sometimes may not see implementation if a significant number of changes occur within both local and national governments. Schoeman (2002) highlights the example of Qwa-Qwa national park in South Africa, where the park management officers submitted the request to government authorities and asked for permission to build the new resorts inside the national park. The national park officers received several answers from many political government officers, with one respondent rejecting the request while another accepted it. Whilst the accepted request continued through relevant processes, the political governance changed again and, thus, the park management officers, not having heard anything from the incoming government, were still unsure of the request’s status. In the end, the Qwa-Qwa national park officers had to chase the document from the new government and, at the same time, resubmit the request. Changes in governance on local, regional and national levels can severely inhibit basic requests and tasks without the rare suitable handover of responsibilities. Moreover, a similar situation also occurred in Thailand, due to poor and slow cooperation between different levels of governments. However, in the case of Thailand, it not only caused severe problems in the delivery process; it also led to the loss of international market to other countries nearby (see Punmanee and Wheway, 2017).

In light of the problems of governance within the Qwa-Qwa national park, Wight (2002) illustrates the opposite of such governance problems. In Alberta, Canada, projects had received positive feedback on ecotourism strategies, owing to having consulted ecotourism actors (e.g. government sectors, ecotourism industries and local residents), to enrol support for exchange and encourage the activities of ecotourism through different stakeholders.

In the case of Cambodia (Nyaupane, Lew and Tatsugawa, 2014; Toko, 2018; Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018), transparency and accountability are also important in establishing credibility and trust from the local residents. Wight (2002) suggests that transparency responsibility from each ecotourism actor in applying ecotourism within specific areas is essential, but Wight (2002) notes that locations and marketing within sites/destinations are the first ecotourism need on which government must focus in creating the ecotourism programme.

3.2.2 Ecotourism Operators

As one of the fastest growing tourism sectors in the world, the creation of a large number of ecotourism operators has occurred in recent years, but without the required planning to develop tourism and spread the benefits to local communities. Normally, ecotourism operators see ecotourism as a product for making business profits. They tend to make sure to provide the best ecotourism facilities, leading to ecotourist satisfaction with their ecotourism operators.

Thus, Weaver, Glenn and Rounds (1996) note that whilst there are plenty of ecotourism entrepreneurs, they still lack experience working in ecotourism. Some ecotourism operators prefer to create good support and rapport with the host communities (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Weaver, Glenn and Rounds 1996; Ross and Wall, 1999a). Weaver, Glenn and Rounds (1996) and Hillary (2000) state that those ecotourism suppliers cooperating and coordinating with only the host communities is not enough. They also need the support from

government agencies to help the ecotourism operators overcome the problems of lacking access to information and, at the same time, to allow them freedom to form their opinions whilst attending local community meetings. In a similar vein, Wall (1997) suggests that ecotourists also play a key role in fostering an effective ecotourism industry, as the people who place demands on the ecotourism marketing areas.

3.2.3 *Ecotourists*

Ecotourists place increasing demands on the infrastructure and the number of tourist destinations within the host countries (see Wang *et al.*, 2014). Some scholars, such as Chin *et al.* (2000), mention that the various types of tourists do not differ from each other as users within tourist destinations, sharing the same facilities, such as toilets, roads, bins, and natural and cultural-heritage areas.

The literature shows that coverage of the barriers to helping to improve ecotourism implementation, in terms of effectiveness, remains limited, especially regarding stakeholder relationships. Many references in the ecotourism literature focus on tourists' attitudes in different parts of the world.

Chin *et al.* (2000) argue that the way to help tourists understand ecotourism and, at the same time, decrease the number of negative impacts is to educate tourists and implement regulations for them to follow (see Tisdell and Wilson, 2005). However, Lucas (1990) argues that education may not be the right approach for all areas, depending on the culture within the host countries. Some academics (Smith and Alderdice, 1979; Littlejohn, 2000; Miller, Dickinson and Pearlman-Houghie, 2001) also argue that creating activities within the tourist destinations could be one approach to helping to sustain tourist areas, including bird watching, wildlife reserves, picnicking and hiking (Angus-Reid-Group, 1993; Miller, Dickinson and Pearlman-Houghie, 2001; Deng, 2004; Huang *et al.*, 2008). They mention that

various activities, such as power-boating, hunting, skiing, golfing and gambling, are unrelated to ecotourism activities and can be damaging (Angus-Reid-Group, 1993; Miller, Dickinson and Pearlman-Houghie, 2001; Deng, 2004).

3.2.4 *Local Communities*

Local residents are one of the essential groups of ecotourism stakeholders (see **Chapter 1**) because they are crucial to helping tourists experience and learn about the nature and culture within the host community (Stronza, Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2019). Moreover, local residents are the first ecotourism stakeholders, with the principal interest in the protection of nature and culture (e.g. Stem *et al.*, 2003; Hunt and Stronza, 2011) and strengthening engagement with local communities (e.g. Snyman, 2013; Marcinek and Hunt, 2015; Romero-Brito, Buckley and Byrne, 2016). Neth (2008) suggests that inappropriate management could gradually lead to conflicts between local communities. Backman and Munanura, (2015) argue that the essential key players creating sustainable ecotourism are the local stakeholders.

Notably little information is available concerning local communities' perception of ecotourism in developing countries, especially in Asia (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Krüger, 2005; Dorjsuren and Palmer, 2018; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018). Reviewing the literature must first focus on local residents' attitudes⁸ throughout the world, to expand understanding of ecotourism in marginal rural communities globally (Becker *et al.*, 2005; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005; Lai and Nepal, 2006; Tsaur, Lin and Lin, 2006; Bruyere, Beh and Lelenguyah, 2009).

Although studies of local residents' attitudes are important, this research does not provide tools for measuring local residents' attitudes. Its purpose is to focus on these aspects: the cooperation of local residents and other relevant stakeholders (Kutay, 1992; Wells and

⁸ Attitude is 'a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour and disfavour' (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993, p. 1).

Brandon, 1993; Campbell, 1999; Mehta and Heinen, 2001; Phillips, 2003; Li, 2006) and the empowerment of local communities to make decisions within ecotourism development plans in their localities (Brandon, 1993; Newmark and Hough, 2000; Sofield, 2003; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018). For local people, ecotourism does not necessarily represent an opportunity for economic development, particularly if there is already a lack of trust in local and national governmental structures that emphasise a top-down approach (see **Chapter 1**).

Moreover, Oikonomou and Dikou (2008) demonstrate that without trust between local residents and other ecotourism stakeholders, the ways of improving or integrating conservation and development in destinations would be complicated by a lack of local residential support. Furthermore, Jones (2005), Stronza and Gordillo (2008) and Tran and Walter (2014) believe that trust is vital for improving the local residents' behaviours and encouraging them to be environmentally responsible. However, Pipinos and Fokiali (2009) and Pagliara, Mauriello and Russo (2020) argue that the stress of implementation and planning of the ecotourism venture would improve if knowledge of ecotourism or conservation were in place (e.g. Greece and Italy). Moreover, participation, cooperation and communication could be tools to help host countries control and influence future effective ecotourism implementation.

Koens, Dieperink and Miranda (2009) suggest that ecotourism requires a better institutional capacity and more integrated planning on local and national levels, paying more attention to the initial planning stage. Accordingly, the best approach to improving the quality of planning and decisions is to increase the cooperation with all stakeholders, to better understand their views and motivations (Beierle and Konisky, 2000; Carmin, Darnall and Milhomens, 2003). Moreover, Runyan and Wu believe:

“The inclusion of complex impact considerations in a tourism planning process strongly implies relatively wide community involvement in impact assessment. Increased involvement in estimating complex impacts contributes to the reliability of the estimates. Such involvement also serves as a constructive vehicle for appraisal of impacts by individuals and groups other than those which are ‘expert’, a body of interests most planners feel should be included in a planning process. . . . The strength of professionals lies in forecasting relatively simple and quantitatively definable impacts; the wide involvement allows a look at more complex impacts, their comparison with those that are relatively simple, and an appraisal of the combination. Although resident involvement can significantly increase the time and effort required by professionals to complete a project, the payoff is impactful information of increased reliability and usefulness”.

(Runyan and Wu, 1979, p. 451)

Following this logic, Altinay and Bowen (2006) and Nunkoo and Gursoy (2016) suggest that ‘power’ and ‘politics’ are key for considering communities’ role in tourism planning in developing countries. The next section discusses this.

3.3 Factors that Impact on Ecotourism Development

Even though **power** and **politics** are essential for tourism development and planning, in the context of tourism, the concepts are still largely absent from the ecotourism literature (Farmaki *et al*, 2015; Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2016). First, I outline the importance of power.

3.3.1 Power

Power is “an action(s) on other action (s), each action may contain one or two or three elements i.e. a capacity, a facility and an ability” (adapted from Foucault, 1987, and Lukes, 2005). So, why power and tourism? Power is one of the central concepts interwoven with the study of tourism (Hollinshead, 1999; Butcher, 2008; Dorjsuren and Palmer, 2018; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018), particularly when considering the stages of planning and management (Wearing and McDonald, 2002, Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2016) and evaluating the local residents’ perceptions and willingness to accept tourism development in their communities (Pearce *et al.*, 1996; Nunkoo and Gursoy, 2016; Pagliara, Mauriello and Russo, 2020). Power imbalances shape impacts within the host communities and create conflicts between tourists and local communities/host countries (see Urry, 1990, pp. 56-63; Wearing, 1998, p. 243; Cheong and Miller, 2000; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018) and residents and their local government representatives (Ruhanen, 2013; Nunkoo, 2015).

The power that people have in this context manifests in different ways. However, important elements are monetary power and powerful positions that authorities hold (Hunt and Kasynathan, 2001; Kilby, 2002, Mayoux, 2002; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018). Elliot (1997, p. 10) refers to power in societies simply as “who gets what, when and how?” Avelino and Rotmans (2011, n.p.) argue for conceptualising power as ‘a capacity of actors to resist, drive or direct transformations’. Moreover, Allen (2003, p. 2) mentions that power “is a relational effect of social interaction”. Deleuze and Guattari (1988) and Foucault (1980; 1991; 2001) also comments that power can occur anywhere through discourses, strategies, practices and relationships, as a result of daily life; for example, within the family, school, finance or even formal institutions (see Weber, 1995, pp. 29-30).

Power can assume three different dimensions. In the first view (the one-dimensional view—see Figure 3.1), “A has power over B to the extent that A can get B to do something

that B would not otherwise do” (Lukes, 2005, p. 8). Lukes (2005, p. 19) also mentions that this power (one-dimensional view) involves “behaviour in the making of decisions on issues in which there is an observable conflict of interest”, otherwise known as A forces B to do something without B’s input. Policy makers and political officers normally use this one-dimensional view of power to get other stakeholders to do something they want them to do.

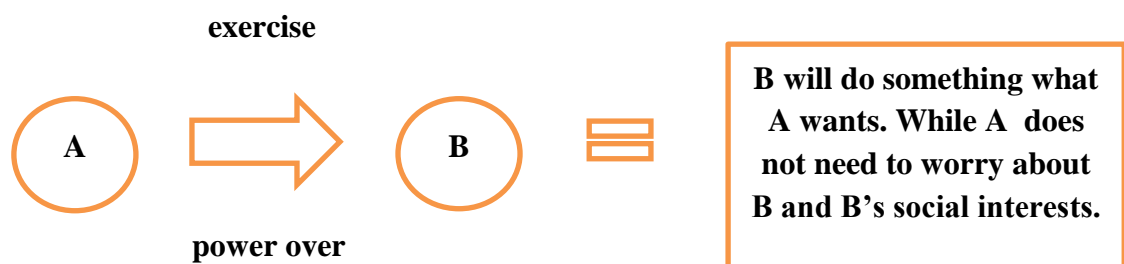


Figure 3.1: First Dimension of Power (Power is straight forward)

Second, in the two-dimensional view, Bachrach and Baratz (1962) state that to utilise power effectively, people use two methods of exercising control over people: A coerces B (B has no choice to decide, apart from following A’s decisions to avoid the conflicts—non-decision-making⁹); and A influences B, and B complies with A. Lukes (2005, p. 21) demonstrates that “B complies with A because they recognise that A’s command is reasonable in terms of B’s own values”.

⁹ ‘A means by which demands for change in the existing allocation of benefits and privileges in the community can be suffocated before they are even voiced; or kept covert; or killed before they gain access to the relevant decision-making arena; or, failing all these things, maimed or destroyed in the decision-implementing stage of the policy process’ (Bachrach and Baratz, 1970, p. 44).

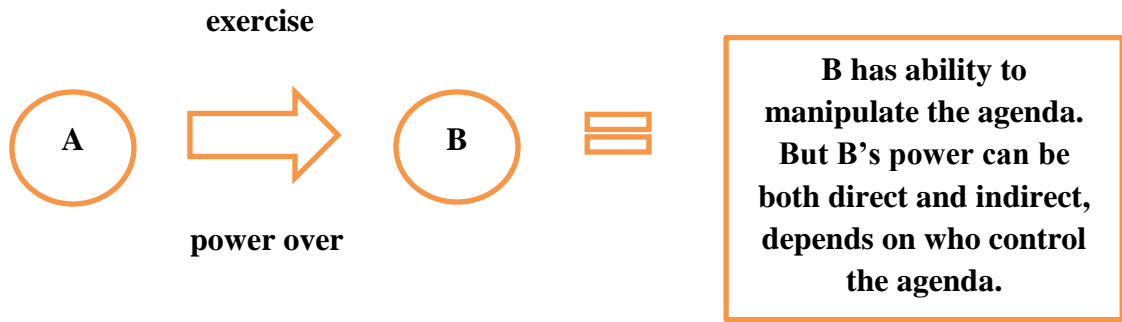


Figure 3.2: Second Dimension of Power

Third, there is the three-dimensional view, focused on “control over the political agenda’, whether through social forces, institutional practices or individuals” (Lukes, 2005, p. 28). For example, “A may exercise power over B by getting him/her to do what he/she does not want to do, but B also exercises power over them by influencing, shaping or determining their very wants (B’s real interests¹⁰)” (Lukes, 2005, p. 27).

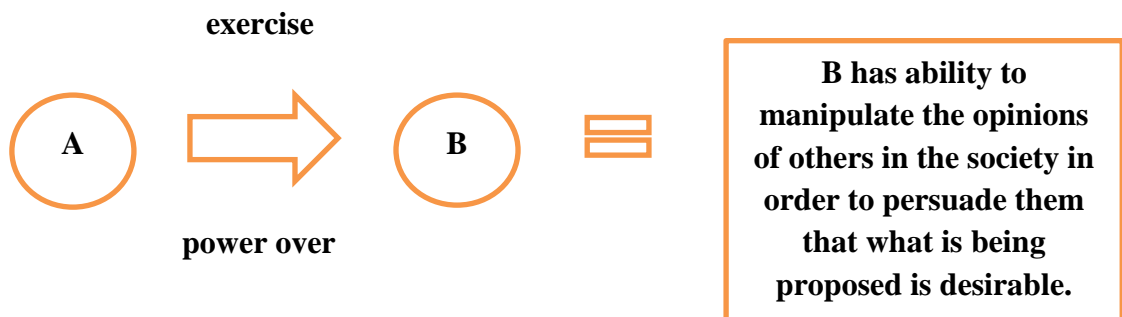


Figure 3.3: Third Dimension of Power

Drawing on these dimensions, power in Thailand can appear in two different views. First, the government authorities and political officers have used the two-dimensional view, as they have more power than other stakeholders, but they can use their power to force or to

¹⁰ Real interests is “a way of identifying basic or central capabilities which existing arrangements preclude. For example, if Crenson’s steelworkers in Indiana, are forced to trade off air pollution against employment, their real or best interest is to render clean air and employment compatible, which would require pollution controls throughout the United States, so that no community is relatively disadvantaged by them” (Lukes, 2005, p. 148).

influence people to do something that they would like others to do. For example, A applies coercion to B when the government utilises the power of law to force the local people, as well as indigenous people, to move away from a national park. A influences B and B complies with A, with the national park officers using education strategies to influence local populations and indigenous people to stop destroying their natural resources. This demonstrates that whilst the local communities and indigenous people have a formal right to determine their futures, existing two-dimensional power relationships limit what they can do to change their lives.

Thai people have also applied the three-dimensional view of power, particularly in rural areas where some local residents within destinations still believe that their local areas have less political conflicts than the urban cities (i.e. Bangkok, Chiang Mai and Pattaya), in terms of elections and corruption (Anderson, 1998; Anderson and Tverdova, 2003). Cordina *et al.* (2021) suggest that power works through everyday lives, such as through social and economic practices, i.e. informants, difficult to regulate formally by law. Furthermore, power can produce change in two ways, ‘positively’ or ‘negatively’, depending on how the person applies it within daily routines. Intriguingly, ‘positive power’ forces/influences local communities/host countries to reach their goals. However, the process of ‘negative power’ manifests in the opposite way, as the populations in these localities have no rights to involve themselves with local projects. Accordingly, this problem later leads to various negative impacts within communities/host countries, due to a lack of resident interest in local areas or government sectors (Johnson and Wilson, 2000).

‘Negative power’ can sometimes separate people into different social classes. People who possess power would be treated differently from those lacking power to influence decision-making. Within the study of power and the perceptions of local residents in the Philippines and Thailand, Cahill (2008) and Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) demonstrate

that the voices of local residents were ignored for various reasons, including fear, lack of confidence and lack of interest, due to concerns that their voices would not be heard.

Moreover, power in developed countries could also (mis-)represent the developing countries. For example, Mitchell (1995) reports how the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) took advantage of Egyptian people. USAID reported that the factor driving the Egyptian agricultural problem was overpopulation, and the way to help was to open up their agricultural markets to global competition. However, that did not lead to the promised better availability of food to ordinary people.

Like Mitchell's work, Foucault (1980; 1982) and Rose (2002) mention that the way USAID influenced Egypt's market to become more internationalised contributed to changing local lifestyles from traditional agriculture towards industrialisation (Parnwell, 2005). This is called 'power to' or 'outside-in' power (Dowding, 1996). Moreover, Foucault (1982) and Rose (2002) also suggest power should not focus only on 'power over' because power starts to "shift away from production and manifestation towards destructive acts that disassemble, fragment and resist acts which may change the balance of power and enhance the outcome power, also known as 'power to'" (Rose, 2002, p. 383). For example:

“. . . power is a more or less stable or shifting network of alliances extended over a shifting terrain of practice and discursively constituted interest. Points of resistance will open up at many points in the network whose effect will be to fracture alliances, constitute regroupings and re-posit strategies”.

(Foucault, 1987, pp. 95-96)

Foucault's approach to power is different from the traditional perspective on power as one person or group exercising power over another (Stein and Harper, 2003). Foucault argues,

“Power is everywhere not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere . . . it is produced from one moment to the next, at the very point, or rather in every relation from one point to another” (Foucault, 1978, pp. 92-93) in all social relations, such as linguistic, institutional, economic and religious (Lynch and O’Riordan, 1998; Stein and Harper, 2003). Foucault (1978, p. 99) also notes, “We must not look for who has the power . . . and who is deprived of it. . . . We must seek, rather, the pattern of the modifications which the relationships of force imply by the nature of their process”. Thus, Paddison *et al.* (2000) and Sharp *et al.* (2002) mention that power could manifest differently in different places due to how the stakeholders exercise power.

Hollinshead also suggests that the ‘power to’ approach allows tourism authorities to think more clearly about the effects of other stakeholders, as well as their societies, more than the ‘power over’ approach, because:

“power can help practitioners and researchers become vigilant to the fact that their own actions are not as ‘neutral’ and as axiomatically equitable as they may have assumed, and that they are indeed themselves working to entrenched a priori understanding in or of cultural environmental matters and preformulated understandings about religion or the spirituality of a distant interpreted populations”.

(Hollinshead, 1999, p. 17)

Researchers adopting the Foucauldian view of power, set out above, have started to doubt whether ecotourism is, in fact, benign, compared to the power imbalance evident and much discussed in mass tourism. The introduction of ecotourism programmes has impacted both local communities and the environment (Lindberg, McCool and Stankey, 1997;

Woodford, Butynski and Karesh, 2002; Muehlenbein *et al.*, 2010; Coria and Calfucura, 2012; Lonn *et al.*, 2018; Cabral and Dhar, 2020). However, Scheyvens (1999) suggests that the ecotourism impacts that occur in the world now may not have been caused by deficient formulations of ecotourism but by a failure to implement sound guidance and progressive understandings of ecotourism. Scheyvens also demonstrates that the way to help ecotourism become sustainable is ‘to maximise the benefits to local communities and empower them to make decisions within their localities (Scheyvens, 1999, p. 246; Butcher, 2007; Koen, Dieperink and Miranda, 2009; Khanal, 2019; Mree *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, Coria and Calfucura (2012), Das and Chatterjee (2015) and Scheyvens (2000) also note that ecotourism has helped to establish empowerment within ecotourism areas, i.e. increasing the ability of people to make decisions independent of state actors (Byrd, Bosley and Dronberger, 2009). Cornwall (2004, p. 77) defines empowerment as a process that “helping marginalized or oppressed people to recognise and exercise their agency”.

However, empowering local communities has been a too-fleeting experience for many communities that have become involved in ecotourism, due to multiple factors that emerge through this thesis. However, the challenge is even greater in developing and middle-income countries. The key factor does appear to be poor governance and accountability between local, regional and national government, and a recurring theme in many countries still wedded to the notion of a ‘top-down’ approach. The next section highlights how grassroots approaches to ecotourism have become increasingly important.

Since the idea of grassroots approaches (empowerment for local communities) emerged more recently, Thailand started to adopt these approaches and apply them to local communities during the premiership of Chuan Leekpai between 1998 and 2001 (Weist, 2001; Arghiros, 2002; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018), as a way of enabling local populations to independently employ their powers, like other stakeholders. Mayo and Craig (1995, p. 1)

state that implementing the grassroots approach is “starting from the empowerment of local communities”. This is easier said than done in Thailand, where politics and governance have tended to percolate outwards from Bangkok in a top-down manner. Such countries with a large, dominant urban centre like Bangkok struggle against the dominance of political elites in all sectors of society.

Scheyvens defines empowerment of ecotourism’s local communities in terms of four different impact areas, namely, economic, psychological, social and political (see **Table 3.1**). Although the empowerment process is one of the crucial programmes that could ultimately introduce some changes to a given locality, if the stakeholders cannot use their power, this empowerment will ultimately amount to nothing (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). However, Cahill (2008) suggests that the way to successfully nurture empowerment is to give it time, as well as to run stakeholder courses on ‘how to use power’. Thus, local residents can learn that they have the same voice as other stakeholders within their respective communities and localities. This supports the idea of Akama that ‘any type of alternative tourism’ must promote empowerment:

“... the local community need to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism facilities and wildlife conservation programmes they want to be developed in their respective communities, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders”.

(Akama, 1996, p. 573)

Impacts/ dimensions	Signs of empowerment	Signs of disempowerment
Economics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cash earned is shared between many households in the community. - There are the visible signs of development within the communities (i.e. road, water). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cash earned is captured by outsiders, with little going to local people.
Psychological	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased confidence from the community members as they seek education and training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Confusion - Frustration from local communities
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improved the relationship between individuals and family while they are working together. -Received funds on improving road, school, water supply and health clinics. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The loss of respect for traditional culture, lands and older populations - Divorce - Misunderstanding between the groups associated with ecotourism. -Crime, begging, crowding
Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides the autonomy for the local populations to make decisions for themselves. - The decisions of local communities should come from a variety of people who live in the communities such as youths, women and the hill-tribe. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prohibit the local populations contributing towards making decisions affecting their own destiny. - The decisions are mainly coming from the certain groups of people in the local communities. - Lack voices to represent different groups of people involved in the early stage of the policy implementation within the local communities.

Table 3.1: Framework of the Impacts of Ecotourism on Local Communities (Scheyvens, 1999, p. 247)

Although the empowerment process is one of the crucial programmes that could ultimately introduce some changes to a given locality, if the stakeholders cannot use their power, this empowerment will ultimately amount to nothing (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999). However, Cahill (2008) suggests that the way to successfully nurture empowerment is to give it time, as well as to run stakeholder courses on ‘how to use power’. Thus, local residents can learn that they have the same voice as other stakeholders within their respective communities and localities. This supports the idea of Akama that ‘any type of alternative tourism’ must promote empowerment:

“... the local community need to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism facilities and wildlife conservation programmes they want to be developed in their respective communities, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders”.

(Akama, 1996, p. 573)

The way to affect the feeling of powerlessness is to give a voice to those in different social classes, to enable a level of participation similar to that of councillors, doctors and ministers (Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Das and Hussain, 2016). This method of including people from different backgrounds is known as ‘participation’. Bramwell and Meyer (2007, p. 769) outline it as “the sum of the heterogeneous relations that involve power is much greater than that of the individual parts”.

This quotation shows that “sharing power or sharing in an activity or undertaking activities with other people” (Richardson, 1983, p. 9) is an important way of engaging everyone in the ecotourism field, so they can work together and reduce the effects of

misunderstandings between stakeholders, as well as helping the ecotourism programme to become more sustainable (Sofield and Li, 2007; Sen and Walter, 2020).

Participation occurs in two forms (direct and indirect), but this thesis and the tourism field commonly refer to it as ‘direct participation’:

“Those means by which people take part in efforts to influence the course of government authorities involving personal (face-to-face) interaction with both: the official spokesmen and each other”.

(Richardson, 1983, p. 15)

Since empowerment intertwines with the study of tourism, studies relating to power and participation have become more abundant, especially in relation to local communities in developing countries (see Gallardo and Stein, 2007; Cahill, 2008, Malam, 2008; Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, 2019; Sen and Walter, 2020; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020). Moreover, ‘power’ has now come to represent the centralisation and the representation of tourism, in relation to the issue of people and places (Hampton, 1998; Desforges, 2001; Tucker, 2003). However, the spread of power within Asia appears unequal, due to cultural aspects and ‘corruption’, as the thesis acknowledges (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Yogi, 2010; Sayira, 2015). Tosun also demonstrates why corruption occurs more in developing countries, namely, because “developing nations are normally ruled by a small group of well-organised powerful elites to a larger extent than developed countries are” (Tosun, 2000, p. 613). Moreover, within developing countries, people who have power normally work in political arenas with a lack of tourism experience. When politics becomes unstable, international tourists would subsequently feel less secure. Research by Steyn and van Vuuren (2016) indicates that

countries that practice good governance attract tourists, so political issues are also now one of the main concerns in the tourism field. This leads to the next key concept, politics.

3.3.2 *Politics*

Politics is “about power, who gets what, where, how and why” (Lasswell, 1936). Lasswell (1936) and Luhiste (2006) demonstrate that politics influences every aspect of life, but political instability also impacts people, environment and geographical space (see Altinay and Bowen, 2006; Duggan, 2019; Tomczewska-Popowycz and Quirini-Popławski, 2021). However, Hall (1991) argues that including politics within these areas of academic research is not enough; the need is to focus on who controls the political arena:

“Politics is about control. At the local, regional and national levels, various interests attempt to affect the determination of policy, policy outcomes and the positions of tourism in the political agenda”.

(Hall, 1991, p. 213)

However, in reality, the literature on tourism is grossly lacking in political research (Matthews, 1975; Hall, 1994; Causevic and Lynch, 2013; Farmaki *et al.*, 2015; Duggan, 2019). This situation has continued, especially in the ecotourism context and within development studies (Duffy, 2006). However, in ecotourism or related alternative tourism activities, political governments see alternative modes of tourism as an approach to helping them gain more income for developing countries (Tuohino and Hynonen, 2001; Kiss, 2004; Zeppel, 2006; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Syamimi *et al.*, 2019). They believe that this is the easiest way of earning more money from international tourists without having to invest any money in creating or building any of the natural, cultural or heritage areas for the

tourists, such as entertainment facilities, theme parks or gambling casinos. This is primarily why government authorities from developing countries have added ecotourism—or other related alternative tourism—into their National Development Plans (Sarobol, 2002; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018; Karki *et al.*, 2020). Lynn (1992) also suggests that they use tourism to overcome the problems they face as a result of less demand for their goods in overseas markets. Furthermore, they also believe that tourism was a secure market for them to sell, creating a reliance on tourism as part of the economic mix, particularly in Thailand.

Duggan (2019) demonstrates that political encounters have the potential to rupture dominant paradigms of power, equity, race and environmental change. For example, politics could also have negative effects for the indigenous people and the local communities feeling neglected by political structures; the government agencies rarely provide opportunities for the local residents or the indigenous people to participate or respond (Hall, 1994, Van den Berghe and Flores Ochoa, 2000). Coppock (1977) believes that considering politics within the tourism context will require asking themselves who is receiving the benefits, i.e. the government or local communities? Various studies show that government institutions see themselves as an actor that must accrue economic benefits from tourism, rather than the local communities. They see both groups (indigenous people and local residents) as those who cause problems or as too poorly educated to have any input. This is particularly the case in contemporary Thailand.

Consequently, this makes the residents feel isolated from the government institutions, and afraid to say something, lest the government actors laugh at them and ignore their views (Cahill, 2008). Thus, both groups of residents undoubtedly feel alienated concerning political issues (Giddens, 1998; Furedi, 2005). This reflects Thailand, in the sense of stark cultural and educational divides between the government elites and ordinary people. Educated elites claim

that they speak for local people as they possess education while local people do not, and this negates the ability of local people to voice their opinions and concerns.

Moreover, politics has the potential to separate people into three different groups, namely, political elites, others who do not know about politics at all and those who know something about politics. Mort (1989) argues that although people may feel fear concerning politics or have lost faith in politics, this does not mean that they should ignore politics altogether. Instead, Mort states:

“... the past decade has witnessed a massive loss of confidence in what many be held to be the bedrock of formal democracy. Faith in government, in the credibility of politicians, in the power of governments to do anything, has hit an all-time low . . .”

(Mort, 1989, p. 40-41)

Political instability could also be one of the barriers with the potential to influence tourists so that they ultimately fear visiting any tourism destination (Hall, Timothy and Duval, 2004; O'Brien, 2012; Farmaki *et al.*, 2015). Buckley and Klemm illustrate this point:

“Most of the evidence on tourist motivations points to fear and insecurity as a major barrier to travel and thus a limitation on the growth of the industry. In addition to the openly stated fear there is often an expression of lack of interest in travel, which can mask an underlying fear”.

(Buckley and Klemm, 1993, p. 191)

Political stability is one of the fundamental aspects to which the government must pay attention, mainly because it gives tourists the impression that these places are 'safe' for them to visit. Britton (1983, p. 3) supports this idea: "A destination must be accessible; it must be political and socially stable".

However, the government-related planners and tourism planners have nevertheless ignored this, and Thailand is a prime example. As Richter and Waugh mention:

"Tourism may decline precipitously when political conditions appear unsettled. Tourists simply choose alternative destinations. Unfortunately, many national leaders and planners either do not understand or will not accept the fact that political serenity, not scenic or cultural attractions, constitute the first and central requirement of tourism".

(Richter and Waugh, 1986, p. 231)

The quotation demonstrates that the way to maintain the number of tourists arriving in the country is to maintain its political stability and have public debates surrounding political issues inside the country. For example, Verissimo *et al.* (2009) note that since Rwanda has adopted ecotourism, it has helped to decrease the political instability within its regions. It not only helps conserve gorillas but also contributes to an increase in the number of international tourists within the country. A further benefit is that once ecotourism contributes to local economic growth and political stability helps facilitate economic growth, people across developing societies will be more conscious of stable local and national government structures. This can have a positive impact on international perceptions of poorer nations.

3.4 Conclusion

In tourism studies, implementation and planning are essential processes to help the tourism actors encourage sustainability in tourism. Ecotourism also needs these two elements to help contribute positive outcomes to the host communities, in social, economic, natural and cultural terms. Mowforth and Munt (2015) mention that the best strategy to help tourism succeed is to focus on cooperation among all the tourism stakeholders.

Gunn and Var (2002) divide the tourism actors into four main groups: business, public, nonprofit and professional. In this chapter, I separate the ecotourism actors into slightly different categories, including government, nongovernment, tourism operators, ecotourists and local communities. To help each stakeholder to cooperate and work more closely with ecotourism implementation also requires considering “the critical role of argument in the policy process and maintain its supposedly value-neutral appraisal of tourism policy” (Hall and Jenkins, 1995, p. 93). This study illustrates that these two key factors, power and politics, are important in shaping stakeholder, especially local community, attitudes towards tourism.

The next chapter introduces the Thai ecotourism stakeholders in this thesis, providing a brief history of each stakeholder and what their roles and responsibilities ultimately include, to help readers understand the perspectives of Thai ecotourism stakeholders and how they act/perform differently from other ecotourism stakeholders in developed countries.

CHAPTER 4

THE INTRODUCTION OF THAI ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

4.1 Introduction

As **Chapter 1** mentions, this thesis explores Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences, in the context of recent growth of tourism and its impacts on rural areas. After discussing ecotourism and stakeholder experiences in developed and developing countries, this chapter sets up the key Thai stakeholders involved with ecotourism programmes in the rural areas. The chapter divides Thai rural ecotourism stakeholders into seven groups: Central Administrative Organisation (CAO), Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO), Local Administrative Organisations (LAO), Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA), Tour Operators, Tourists and Local Communities.

However, before detailing each section, the chapter briefly illustrates how Thai stakeholders have used ecotourism as a community-based development approach (referred as ‘neopopulism’; see **Chapter 1**) to contribute the concept of development by decentralising authority structures into the non-dominant groups in local areas. During 1996, the Thai authorities first introduced ecotourism in one of the rural communities called Khiriwong in Nakhon Si Thammarat (South of Thailand). The Khiriwong community-based ecotourism acted as one of the model communities to establish how ecotourism leads to both drawbacks and benefits for Thai rural communities—for example, the disempowerment of local residents and the impacts of environmental and social issues (Sonjai *et al.*, 2018).

After the Khiriwong ecotourism project initiation, ecotourism became a central programme with a significant role in Thailand, especially in 2001. The first reference to the term ‘ecotourism’ was in the 2001 National Economic and Social Development Plan

(NESDP), in a guideline that mainly focused on ecotourism and related stakeholders, especially regarding cooperation with other actors within the ecotourism sector.

Since ecotourism appeared in the NESDP 2001 — 2006, the number of private tourism partnerships in Thailand has significantly increased. This is indicative of ecotourism's increasing prominence and discussion by academics and other stakeholders, including local communities (Pleumarom, 1997; Pon-Oum and Sukphongsri, 2000; Santasombat, 2001; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018). However, when it has come down to management practices, only a few agencies—Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), nongovernmental agencies, government authorities and local communities—have really followed the NESDP guidelines.

Inskeep (1991) suggests that one party cannot carry out ecotourism. Rather, it is a programme that requires the involvement of people, money, service, surroundings, and sustainable development. Inskeep (1991) also mentions that to make sure ecotourism is sustainable, the variety of stakeholders involved in the many different aspects of ecotourism requires attention. Similarly, Jamal and Getz believe that “no individual stakeholder can fully control planning” (Jamal and Stronza, 2009, p. 170).

This chapter defines the stakeholders, then examines the engagement of Thai actors in ecotourism programmes. To do this, I follow the stakeholder schema of Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997), which divides stakeholders into three different stakeholder groupings (see **Figure 4.1** overleaf):

Stakeholder Scheme

Definitive stakeholder: is the group or individual that fits all three attributes (urgency, power and legitimacy) and has the power to keep all the programme running, as well as having the right to order people to undertake activities.

Expectant stakeholder: is the group or individual that fits two of three attributes and still has an active role in some part of the programme.

Latent stakeholder: is the group or individual that fits one of three attributes but has no influence, power or legitimate claims and urgent needs. In other words, they are less influential.

Figure 4.1: Stakeholder Scheme (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997, pp. 878-870)

The stakeholder table below is adapted from Mitchell *et al.*'s *stakeholder scheme* above, expanded for this thesis by dividing the Thai ecotourism stakeholders into three types, outlined below in **Table 4.1**. Moreover, it also includes 'high', 'medium' and 'low' characteristics of different Thai stakeholders and their influence on ecotourism development.

Stakeholders	Urgency	Power	Legitimacy
<i>Definitive</i>			
CAO	High	High	High
RAO	High	High	High
LAO	High	High	High
MOI	High	High	High
MOTS	High	High	High
TAT	High	High	High
Tourism Operators	High	High	Medium
Tourists	High	High	Medium
<i>Expectant</i>			
NGA	Increasing	Medium	low
Local Communities	Increasing	Low	Increasing
<i>Latent</i>			
MNRE	Medium	Low	Increasing
MOC	Low	Low	Low

Table 4.1¹¹: Ecotourism Management Stakeholders (Thailand)

Many of the key representatives, including Central Administrative Organisation (CAO), Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO), Local Administrative Organisations (LAO), Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA), Tour Operators, Tourists and Local Communities, are from Chaiyaphum province, within the Northeast region of Thailand, outlined below (see **Figure 4.2**)

¹¹ Adopted from Mikalsen and Jentoft (2001).

Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders

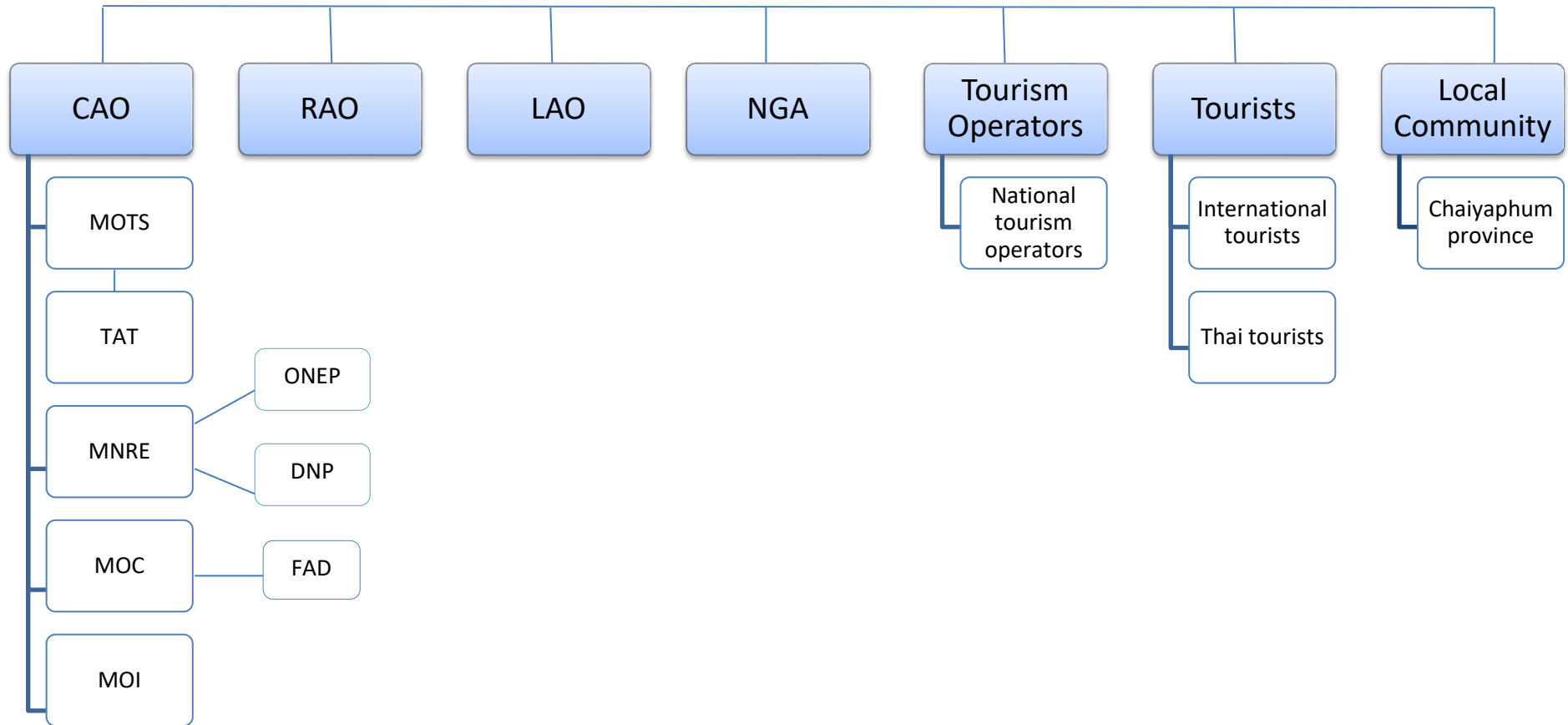


Figure 4.2: Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders (Author's figure)

4.2 Central Administrative Organisations (CAO)

The stakeholders included in this research will differ from academic work that focuses on Western case studies. Such developing countries as Thailand have more complex political and organisational structures, exemplified by the Central Administrative Organisation (CAO). The CAO is “an umbrella organisation that captures all the key ministries of government. Thailand is a unitary democratic state, incorporating national, regional and local administration and governed using a parliamentary system” (Krueathep, Riccucci and Suwanmala, 2008, p. 159). It comprises 20 ministries. However, there are only four executive branches of the national government, according to the Reorganisation of Ministry, Sub-Ministry, and Department Act, which amends various ministries in Thailand included in this thesis. Thai academics often believe that the CAO is characterised by command, incentive, power to control and using policy directly, to influence all the stakeholders in the country (Balassiano, 2011; Suzuki, 2017). For example, in terms of developing countries, including Thailand, CAO tend to use a “command and control approach, which is to command people or firms not to do something by enacting a law that makes it illegal for delegating authorities to enforce such laws through the imposition of fines or penalties to violators” (PIDS, 2002, p. 1). Hence, the CAO has great control over other kinds of stakeholders and their affairs.

In this part concerning the CAO, the thesis pays attention to: Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS); Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE); Ministry of Culture (MOC); and Ministry of Interior (MOI). Notably, political change has caused authorities as well as villagers confusion, in terms of their relationships with stakeholders involved with ecotourism, outlined in the pages to come.

4.2.1 *Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS)*

The role of the MOTS is to develop, promote and support policies relating to tourism, sports and recreation, as well as strategy and research, drawing on government and nongovernmental agencies (MOTS, 2021).

The MOTS is one of the stakeholders I have scored using three high-ranking scores in urgency, power and legitimacy, from the Mitchell *et al.* scheme; so, we categorise the MOTS within the ‘Definitive stakeholder’ group (see Table 4.1, p. 79-80). This indicates that the MOTS possesses significant rights and powers to exert control over and influence others. To understand the stakeholders’ roles and efficacy, we ultimately must identify which legislation/policy requires amending to help and improve ecotourism management. This will include looking at how to improve the understanding of ecotourism across multiple stakeholders.

The MOTS is a key stakeholder, with power over management of tourism laws and regulations, as well as influence over other Thai tourism networks, including affiliated tourism departments, such as Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), Regional Office of Tourism and Sports, other international related agencies (e.g. ASEAN — Association of Southeast Asian Nations) and the Pacific Asia Travel Association (MOTS, 2021). Tasked with control over the budgets, the MOTS also decides which department sectors it could support to a greater or lesser extent. Furthermore, the MOTS also possesses the power to call tourism stakeholders to tourism conferences. For example, in 2003, a conference entitled ‘Planning Tourism Strategies for Thailand’, organised by the senior official of the Ministry of MOTS and chaired by Deputy Prime Minister Suvat Liptapallop, called for every Regional Administrative Organisation (RAO) Officer in Thailand to attend and discuss what could be done to expand ecotourism and other forms of tourism to every province in Thailand, through the employment of community-based strategies. To achieve this, he needed help from RAO’s

Officers, to spread the word concerning every issue they discussed, down to each province, local organisations inside each province, and then on to local villagers.

As a result of these conversations, Suvat Liptapallop pointed out that tourism was different from traditional manufacturing, due to the opportunity for income expansion. Manufacturing had been the dominant growth sector in the Thai economy during the 1980s and 1990s. However, Thailand had struggled to move further up the value chain, and recently, industrial development has slowed (Warr, 2002; 2019; ADB, 2015; Kang, 2022). On the other hand, tourism has spread to every type of job and social service (e.g. farmers, hospitals, schools). Manufacturing income expansion has only filtered to the specific groups within the supply chain, manufacturing such products as automobiles (CEO-Retreat, 2004; Salam, 2009; Natsuda and Thoburn, 2013; Lee, Qu and Mao, 2021). These wealthy individuals have tended to capture disproportionate concentrations of wealth through various monopolistic activities.

Since the tourism conference, tourism departments have expanded around Thailand, and it initially appeared to have yielded a remarkable result. However, some negative issues emerged. For example, questions arose as to why some provinces received more support than others (with little empirical justification), why some departments obtained more from the budget of the MOTS than other agencies and why did this budget get allocated somewhere else instead of funding aspects that needed improvement within the provinces and local districts in greatest need (CEO-Retreat, 2004). Most government officers tend to frame tourism in the sphere of economic development and, therefore, neglect social and environmental concerns (see PIDS, 2002). Valuing destinations in economic terms is easier than in social and environmental capital, where few metrics exist for government to use in the Thai context.

The problem with the ‘top-down’ approach (see **Chapter 1**) is that it concentrates and spends money and resources on larger projects/firms/provinces, disadvantaging smaller tourism projects in less accessible rural areas. Projects that seem already financially stable are receiving government monies ahead of projects and destinations that urgently require state and local government support.

However, since 2006, the money the Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO) received has ceased, due to the change of Prime Minister. This led to slowing down several projects, distributing investment or stopping funds altogether. Similarly, RAO officers have thought more carefully about which projects they would consider for funding. For example, the Prang Ku project (Small Pagoda), one of the case-study locations in this thesis (see **Photo 4.1**) was halted because of political changes leading to the withdrawal of funding.



Photo 4.1: Prang Ku (Author’s Photograph)

4.2.2 *Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE)*

The MNRE's main role is to create the "policies, administration, management and evaluation for natural resources and the environment" (MNRE, 2021). It consists of ten government departments and five state enterprises and public organisations. This research mostly concerns only two departments, the Office of Natural Resources and Environmental Policy (ONEP)¹² (ONEP, 2021) and the Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation (DNP)¹³ (DNP, 2021). These three stakeholders (i.e. MNRE, the Office of Natural Resources and Environmental Policy, the Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation) are the most relevant stakeholders in the ecotourism programme in Thailand.

The MNRE is a core ministry that looks after the areas of natural environment, wildlife, parks, sanctuaries and the World Heritage sites. Since the promotion of ecotourism in Thailand during 'Amazing Thailand Year — 1998-1999' (Zhang, Qu and Tavitiyaman, 2009; MNRE, 2021), MNRE has published its environmental conservation policy, as well as the Wildlife Preservation and Protection Act, to help the national park officers protect and maintain those areas from damage arising from tourists, local communities and animal poachers.

The MNRE is one of the organisations that some Thai people believe should become more involved with ecotourism, as it has a long history of working with natural biodiversity. Unfortunately, according to the Thailand ecotourism management stakeholders table, the MNRE slots into the least influential group (**Latent** stakeholder's category; see **Table 4.1**). This is because the MNRE has little power in terms of working within ecotourism projects,

¹² The ONEP's remit is to plan, produce strategies, provide research funding, follow-up and collaborate with the national and international agencies on sustaining natural resources as well as put them into practice and evaluate the progress afterward (MNRE, 2021).

¹³ The DNP's remit is to sustain and preserve the flora and fauna, rehabilitate forestry resources inside the sustainable areas, promote the understanding and cooperation for how to utilise resources for the benefit of populations and organisations as well as manage it to become a source of education for everyone (DNP, 2021).

despite an urgent need for support of natural parks and tourism in Thailand. The reason could be that Thailand still tends to prioritise economic growth rather than considering the cost to the environment (Tevapitak and Helmsing, 2019).

4.2.3 *Ministry of Culture (MOC)*

The role of the MOC is to preserve, conserve, sustain, integrate, promote and educate about religion, art and culture, for the national population as well as internationally (MOC, 2021). The MOC has divided itself into seven different departments, but only one department is relevant for this thesis: the Fine Arts Department (FAD)¹⁴ (MOC, 2021).

The MOC is one of the ministries to which Thai ecotourism stakeholders do not pay attention; it is not involved with natural landscapes or promoting biodiversity. Arguably, however, natural areas are associated with humans and their lifestyles, cultures and norms. Since 1988, the definition of ecotourism has changed from ideas based around the natural environment, to cultural aspects, including historical and heritage issues added to ecotourism definitions (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987; Brause, 1992; Figgis, 1993; IUCN, 1996; Lawrence, Wickins and Phillips, 1997; Fennell, 2014; Ionel, 2019).

Not regarding MOC as an ecotourism stakeholder is puzzling, as culture is, in different ways, consistently associated with ecotourism (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). Also, Thai society has neglected the decline of some cultures and traditions that could be lost in the future. Again, as with many advancing economies, the importance of the ‘economy’ overriding both the social and environmental spheres is a significant issue. My argument is that culture is deeply embedded in both the environment and society in the Thai context.

¹⁴ FAD is responsible for preserving, sustaining, educating, researching, supporting, developing, maintaining and advertising art and heritage sites, as well as cultural aspects (FAD, 2021).

However, ecotourism has recently become more involved with local communities, especially ethnic groups (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2009; TIES, 2015). There remains a risk of losing traditional identities due to the impacts of tourism, as local people may adopt, through a ‘demonstration effect’, practices that they think are the best choice for earning more money, such as begging (from researcher’s experiences and guide interviewees). This could cause a problem to Thai tourism later, in terms of negative perceptions of traditional culture.

Thus, with these examples mentioned above, considering the MOC will help us to answer whether it is possible to create a space for cultural and heritage issues in a contemporary understanding of Thai ecotourism.

4.2.4 Ministry of Interior (MOI)

The MOI is chiefly concerned with implementing the NESDP, managing, encouraging and supporting local populations (especially grassroots) and generally meeting the needs of people at the local and national level (MOI, 2021).

Mitchell’s stakeholder scheme (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997) ranks the MOI within the **Definitive Group** (see **Table 4.1**), illustrating its urgency, power and legitimacy. Having introduced tourism as one of the projects to help the Thai economy recover from the financial problems of 1997, the Prime Ministers have subsequently accelerated tourism arrivals into Thailand by adopting tourism into the National Plan. They have also viewed tourism as a vehicle to promote a degree of decentralisation to Thai local communities (Chardchawarn, 2010). Since then, organisations, such as MOTS, MOC, TAT, provincial and local organisations, and local villagers have focused their attention on creating more tourist attractions within areas under their responsibility. To better support local-area needs, the MOI has devolved its obligations to the provincial level of administration and to the local level.

The MOI has been a neglected stakeholder within the ecotourism field. Indeed, most of the Thai population believe that tourism should only involve the MOTS and TAT (see Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018). However, arguably, before creating the tour programmes or considering every tourism-related issue, the MOTS and TAT first must ensure that they are fully integrated into the National Plan. Hence, the MOI should be viewed as a stakeholder.

Tourism can also depend on seasonal fluctuations, natural disasters and the political situation in the country (Jacobson and Robles, 1992; Wood, 2002; Coria and Calfucura, 2012), such as during 2004–2020, when the number of international tourists dramatically decreased, partly because of the fragile economy and political affairs, as well as the changing political policy during the new elections and natural catastrophes, including bird flu and, more recently, COVID-19 (see **Figure 4.3**). Again, this emphasises the need for broadening the role of government stakeholders with wide oversight of economic, political, cultural and environmental matters—especially, given the economic importance of tourism.

The importance of looking at tourism as integrated into a broad range of stakeholders manifests by briefly considering a couple of examples. As Choi (2020, p. 8) mentions in his research on South Korea, “However, since the change of the county mayor in 2014, ecotourism development has lost momentum and slowed down. A number of projects have continued but are delayed due to repeated lapses of funding and loss of key staff”. In addition, in Nepal, the number of international and domestic tourists in Sirubari, Nepal, had been increasing since 1999, before the civil war hit during 2005. Unfortunately, that year, the number of tourists in Nepal dropped drastically, to less than 10% of tourist arrivals (Thapa, 2010). This is why this research pays attention to the MOI as one of the main organisations; it helps decentralise the national policies to the local officers in RAO and LAO. The researcher

hopes discussing this will help us to understand more about where tourism will go in the future, whether focusing on expanding the overseas tourism market or the domestic market.

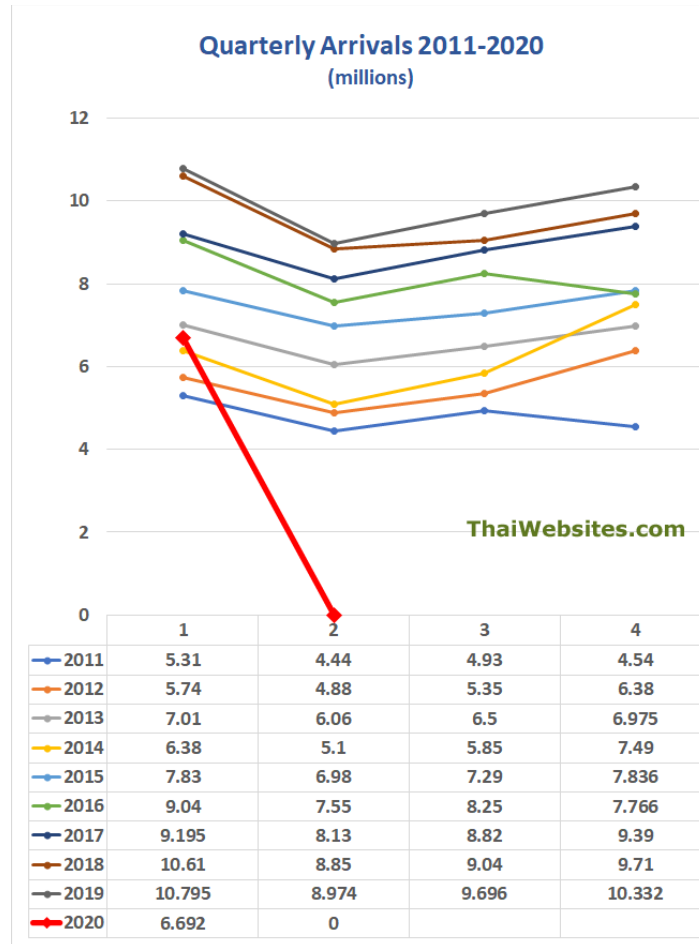


Figure 4.3: Statistics of International Tourists and Domestic Tourists Changes (ThaiWebsites, 2020)

4.2.5 Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)

TAT is an organisation that H.R.H. Prince Purachatra established as a place to advertise tourism in Thailand and promote tourism for international and national tourists (TAT, 2021). It is responsible for promotion and marketing, welcoming tourists, providing a digital tourism system via the Internet and mobile phones and maintaining and improving tourist attractions and places to stay (TAT, 2021).

TAT is one of the members of the MOTS. It earns most of its support from MOTS and receives other income from investments or from national and international tourism markets. Sometimes, TAT earns its budget from local communities and charities.

TAT is an organisation that confuses some Thai people. It has been accused of acting like the tourism operators, with no power like MOTS over tourism policies and regulations, so the population perceives it as a nongovernmental organisation (see Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018). Thus, if it is a government authority, villagers expect TAT to promote small areas and rural communities and provide some income to support them. However, the main responsibility of TAT is to promote the tourist attractions to domestic and international tourists, in the forms of brochures and websites. This is why many RAO officers have now altered their strategies. Instead of waiting for TAT to assist, they now go directly to TAT to promote new destinations within their provinces. They hope that this could promote localities on a national scale, as well as on the international stage. Thus, TAT appears distant from smaller-scale tourism operations and communities and has traditionally not engaged with ecotourism. TAT is categorised as a **Definitive Stakeholder** within the scheme of Mitchell, Agle and Wood (see **Table 4.1**), indicating that TAT is one of the organisations with full and direct power to help local villagers promote their attractions.

Similarly, Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018, pp. 333-334) note that most villagers criticised TAT for its lack of support and awareness of the Elephant Day in Rong Born. TAT neglected to provide the ecotourism management policy/guidance within the one- or five-year plan for the villages, and TAT only included the plans concerning the improvement of infrastructure and tourism facilities, thus neglecting ecotourism. In essence, TAT was thinking and acting as if ecotourism was, in fact, a mass-tourism term, reflecting its power as a key actor/stakeholder and as a promoter of tourism nationally and internationally in Thailand.

Overall, TAT has been slow to pivot towards the requirements of more sustainable tourism forms and struggles to reconcile the economic incentive to attract millions of tourists with the need to preserve traditional heritage, culture and landscapes.

4.3 Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO)

The Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO) is a branch of MOI that has separated its responsibilities from central to regional and provincial areas (decentralisation¹⁵). As such, its stated role is to promote popular participation or development as what people do for themselves rather than what is done to them (Butcher, 2007). RAO's responsibilities are the same as MOI's; it nevertheless focuses more on local populations in each region and province, especially within its surroundings, cultural and heritage areas. The RAO operates via self-governance and has divided its regional work into one unit of analysis: province or provincial level (Changwat) (MOI, 2021).

Mitchell's stakeholder scheme (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997) ranks the RAO within the **Definitive Group** (see **Table 4.1**), a rank that illustrates the urgency, power and legitimacy of the organisation. Thailand's RAO is "a territorial extension of the central government and has neither absolute autonomy nor authority over policy making and administration" (p. 159). This lack of power or authority severely limits the RAO's potential to promote more neopopulist development strategies. Thus, RAO is still bounded by its independence from the Central Administrative Organisation (CAO). This has caused many problems to the Thai regions and provinces. For example, Punmanee and Wheway (2017) note the case of Korat in Northeast Thailand, where Korat's lack of independence on

¹⁵ 'Administrative decentralisation, i.e. a transfer to lower-level central government authorities, or to other local authorities who are upwardly accountable to the central government' (Ribot, 2002).

decisions to approve the green spaces through central and regional governance led to the loss of economic growth opportunities from the international manufacturers in their region.

While the RAO only relies on the main director, a designated provincial officer and authoriser/mediator between different stakeholders within the province, to deal with all kinds of stakeholders within both the province and the CAO, it gives the appearance that the RAO alone could not deliver on its policies. The RAO does not have close relationships with the local communities, due to the election and selection processes originating with the CAO. For example, since the RAO went to a significant tourism conference in 2003 (organised by the senior official of the Ministry of MOTS, chaired by Deputy Prime Minister Suvat Liptapallop), each province has distributed its work into each district, as well as minor districts, with the aim of creating or investigating where they could produce tourist attractions. However, this has caused many concerns to the RAO as well as TAT, as they are not sure whether every attraction could meet tourists' needs. For example, some places in rural areas could not provide adequate facilities for tourists, such as roads, toilets, food and educational signs about the places. Consequently, these situations could lead to economic disaster for those attractions, as the tourists would not come back again. Moreover, RAO and TAT are not sure whether to create new tourist attractions, considering the effect on the natural areas as well as the cultural areas.

Since RAO and TAT have developed policies and provided an evaluation of each attraction, this has caused issues, as some provinces have a significant number of visitors—especially international tourists—and will earn more support from both the RAO and TAT, thus leading to unbalanced investment/support. However, for those evaluated with low scores in tourism (ranked by the RAO), they hardly earn any financial support from either organisation. This is just one of the issues that still raises concerns from those provincial

officers who would like to upgrade their communities from national tourist attractions to an international level. The distribution of resources is highly uneven.

Most of provinces in Northeast Thailand are the recognised areas viewed as a national target or as having a low score in tourism regarding tourism potential. Recently, the international tourists have begun to spread themselves across Thailand, further from honeypot locations (such as Bangkok, Chaingmai and Phuket) to less well-known locations in the Northeast, causing the province to become aware of this new type of tourist. In essence, the market moved before government ministries. However, this encouraged the ministries to act.

To enable a place/locality to become one of the more well-known tourist attractions, it is up to the provincial officers, as well as the local people, to work together. However, some mention that this is ultimately dependent on the officers' expertise, as well as how much budget they control within the province during each year. Moreover, what each province will receive regarding budget allocation does not always reflect the needs of the province. Noteworthy is the starker urban/rural divide in Thailand than in countries where the basis for resource allocation is more a key settlement strategy. This has led to larger urban areas receiving more support from the Thai state and uneven economic development.

4.4 Local Administrative Organisations (LAO)

Since 1997, when the Local Administrative Organisations (LAO) started to pay attention to tourism activities, its rank has moved up to the **Definitive Group** in the Thailand ecotourism management stakeholders table (see **Table 4.1**). This is because the LAO has rights, in terms of decision-making, as well as power, in terms of immediately managing issues.

The LAO is the local branch of the Central Administrative Organisation (CAO); however, LAO claims to operate by itself (self-governance). Unfortunately, Arghiros (2002)

and Chardchawan (2010) argue that the Thai LAO is still effectively controlled by the CAO and RAO (Regional Administrative Organisations). In Thailand, LAO has divided activity into two forms: urban-based, including the municipal/provincial administrative organisation (PAO), and rural-based, e.g. the subdistrict Administrative Organisations (SAO) (SAO, 2021).

Each LAO consists of the body agencies and staff members, with each chief executive of different LAO elected by the local populace and normally serving a four-year term. Each LAO executive is responsible for providing the facilities within their own jurisdiction, while the PAO chief executive can help to make sure that the municipal and subdistrict facilities purposes do not overlap. The municipal and subdistrict Administrative Organisations (SAO) are ranked on a lower tier than PAO, in terms of power and hierarchy. But, unfortunately, the PAO and the relationship with local residents is poor, compared with the municipal and SAO's. The LAO is better suited to addressing the problems in the local communities than the CAO.

While the national policy of decentralisation has spread down to the local government since 1997, the LAO has often been judged by its lack of long-term planning; management knowledge, poor collaboration and networking with other stakeholders, as well as lack of knowledgeable staff and experienced leaders (Green, 2005; Taliercio, 2005; Bowornwathana 2006; Balassiano, 2011). Krueathep, Riccucci and Suwanmala (2008) mention that the more experience the leaders have, the denser the networks become, leading to better collaboration between stakeholders. For example, Ashraf and Sibi (2020) explain that since ecotourism has become established, it has involved the three different government sectors of Tourism, Irrigation and Forestry. But discussions about implementation were often delayed, due to a lack of joined-up thinking and collaboration.

4.5 The Nongovernment Agencies (NGA)

An NGA (Nongovernment Agencies) is an organisation that the commercial organisations in each province built. Its primary roles are to help commerce understand what is happening in the current market and represent commerce in discussions with the government officers (NGA, 2021). Moreover, the NGA's secondary role is to help the province become a leader in commerce and represent the province in talks on commerce in other provinces. The commerce members can be any owners in any field, including hotels, transportation and restaurants (NGA, 2021).

However, noting that the NGA does not have the power necessary to discuss tourism issues, like the LAO, RAO and TAT do, is surprising. Nongovernment organisations are likely to have less power to talk about/discuss any issue with government officers, but they can help to drive the economic markets in the province. Thus, the NGA is classified in the **Expectant Group** in the Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) stakeholders' scheme. Whilst the NGA is likely to become more involved in implementing localised tourism policy in the future, right now, this potential is still developing.

4.6 Tourism Operators

Tourism operators are agencies that take tourists on travels where they would like to go, according to the programmes they have booked. Their responsibilities have been divided in two: to greet the customers with respect, and to make sure that they provide the customer with an educational trip. Therefore, in this case, the tourism operators are a crucial stakeholder in relation to ecotourism, especially in areas where ecotourism projects have been introduced, such as in northern and southern parts of Thailand. This is because tourism firms are recognised as having input and output functions for the tourism programme, creating a product to sell as well as marketing and promoting it. Tourism firms not concerned about

their outcomes in relation to the environment can ultimately cause tremendous impacts within the destinations (Blanco, Rey-Maqueira and Lozano, 2009; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018). On the other hand, if the tourism firms show careful consideration towards the environment, cultural heritage and local communities, this can ultimately create a sustainable ecotourism programme in the future (Herremans and Welsh, 2001). For example, South Africa's Apex Expeditions Shark Ecotourism Company has provided local residents numerous jobs and first-aid training. Moreover, it has donated money to the local enterprises and to scientific research in communities (Gallaghera and Hammerschlag, 2011). Similarly, in Kampong Phluk, Cambodia, the ecotourism operators helped to increase the forest coverage in the local areas. Every year during the March plantation, the local people and the ecotourism operators have collected/given seeds to replant the forest after the rainy season. (Kry *et al.*, 2020, pp. 5-6).

However, ecotourism will be more effective if educated guides accompany tourists and guide them and educate them on what they need, to be environmentally and culturally friendly to the host countries (see Black, 2007; Serenari *et al.*, 2016; Tran and Walter, 2014; Choi, 2020). Unfortunately, Lackey and Pennisi found out that sometimes ecotour guides in South Africa must follow the orders of tourism operators, even though they do not agree. A former trainee stated:

“I've worked at a lodge before where my head ranger was probably the most unethical guide I've ever met, and management didn't seem to mind because if you can get within two meters of a pride of lions sleeping on the ground. It makes a lodge look good. They don't look necessarily at the impacts that it will have on the animals. So trying to then provide my guests with a similar

Bush experience, keeping them as happy without getting them two meters from the lion, was very challenging.”

(Lackey and Pennisi, 2019, p. 228)

This thesis does not focus on the details of the professional eco-tour guides, as they comprise a limited pool within Thailand. In this tourism operators’ section, I focus on National Tour Operators, due to a shortage of information on International Tour Operators (participants did not wish to participate). This difficulty exemplifies the challenge of running ecotourism projects in Northeast Thailand, where infrastructure, funding and trained staff are all issues that require addressing.

4.6.1 National Tourism Operators

Chaiyaphum province and most parts of Thailand still lack tourism operators, as most domestic tourists prefer to travel on their own instead of using the national tour operators. Thus, most tourism operators that operate a programme to tour around Chaiyaphum only operate within Bangkok, not convenient for others outside of Bangkok to visit, book tours and depart for travel. Moreover, domestic tourists would prefer not to spend their money on national tourism operators, as they believe they know the areas well enough not to need tour guides from national tourism operators. They also prefer to travel, relax and generally not undertake tourism activity with educational purposes.

Recently, schools nearby have provided courses for their village students to become minor guides at local attractions. Minor guides’ responsibilities are the same as professional tour guides, but they do not have the tour-guide certificates and are mostly children. This activity has changed the perceptions of Thai tourists in some respects, as they started to hire more minor guides and would like to better understand the attractions they visit.

As a side note, during the period of this research project, a number of tourism operators that used to run programmes in Chiayaphum province have declined and also decided not to continue their programmes in this area. My research shows that these more remote, less developed tourism destinations were the least profitable for the tourism companies, even when there was a will to undertake sustainable activity. Moreover, this further illustrates how precarious tourism operations can be in more remote and rural locations when reduced support from national tour operators can further erode the financial viability that comes from operating smaller tourism projects. This also refers back to the argument I made about the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), namely, that it tends to channel investment into already successful provinces and tourist infrastructure.

4.7 Tourists

Tourists fit within in the **Definitive Group** in the Thailand ecotourism management stakeholders (see **Table 4.1**), having influenced ecotourism programmes in all three categories: urgency, power and legitimacy. Tourists are people who travel to a place different from their normal lifestyles and stay for less than one year (TAT, 2021). MacCannell (1976, p. 10), Buckley (2003) and UNWTO (2008) add that those intending to relax, do business or visit friends or family could count as tourists. In addition, tourists have the responsibility to respect the host country, as well as its rules and cultures, and should not destroy anything, such as biodiversity, cultural and heritage areas. Tourists have tended to divide into two categories: domestic tourists and international tourists.

Boniface and Cooper (1994) point out that domestic travellers are those who travel within their own country, and international travellers are people who travel to a country where they may have to use a different currency, encounter different languages and stay in different places/spaces than those they use in their normal lives.

Figure 4.4 shows the number of international tourists and domestic tourists and those visiting provinces within Thailand has risen every year. These figures show that Thai provinces have started to attract more people—not only international tourists but also domestic tourists. Within the last few years, there was definitive push from the Thai government to promote smaller tourist destinations within Thailand. This has been part of a state response to at least appear to be responding to the needs of local communities in rural areas that have predominantly relied on subsistence agriculture. Localised, community-based ecotourism has been viewed as a means to develop rural economies.

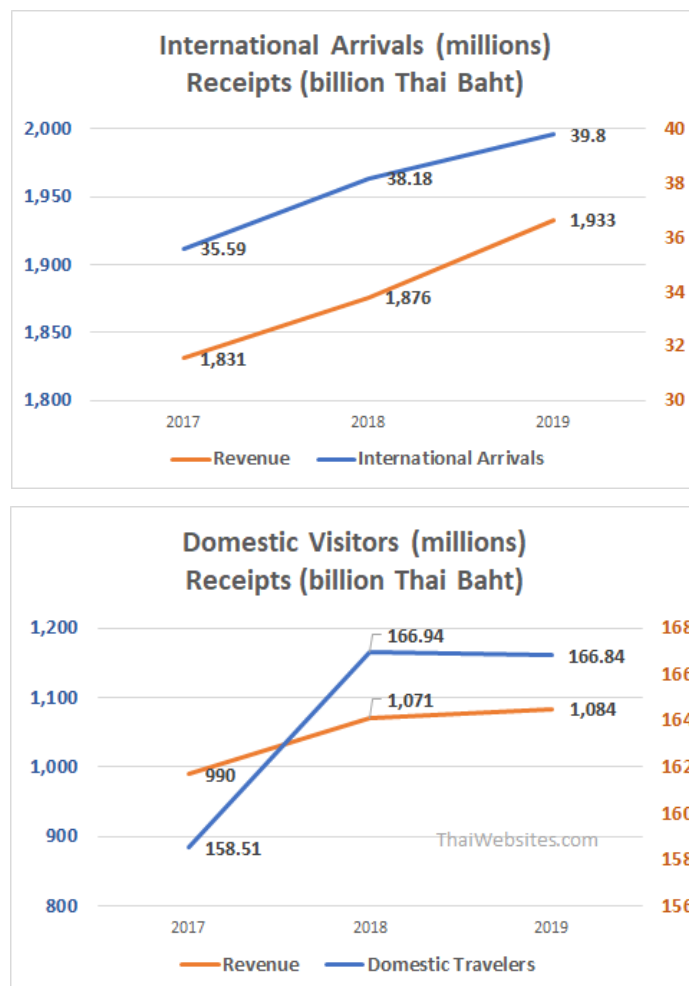


Figure 4.4: Number of International and Domestic tourists in Thailand from 2017 to 2019

(ThaiWebsites, 2020)

In Chaiyaphum province, MOTS has shown the revenues received from domestic tourists rising from 32.94% (2015) to 52.25% (2018). Moreover, MOTS also shows that the number and revenues received from international tourists have risen from 27.86% to 47.92% (MOTS, 2020). However, the expenditures within Chaiyaphum province, compared to the total domestic and international tourists' expenditures in the Northeast region (3.14% and 0.53% respectively), are still low because, in part, the local villages do not know how to advertise to attract international tourists.

In Thailand, the tourism season is divided into two categories, low and high season, targeted especially for Westerners. The most lucrative season for international tourists falls between September and March, and the rest of the year is low season. However, for domestic tourists, the MOTS and TAT have tried to determine a strategy for attracting Thai people to travel within Thailand—particularly during 1999, when Thailand faced an economic crisis. As a result, cheap travel was offered within Thailand, via promotions including the Amazing Thailand Year, Family Fun One Day Trip, Discover Thainess and Amazing Thailand Safety and Health Administration campaigns. (Zhang, Qu and Tavitiyaman, 2009; TAT, 2021). This increased the number of domestic tourists. However, during the long public holidays and school holidays, which normally occur in January, April and October, travel seems quite expensive. Moreover, domestic tourists also prefer to avoid places that attract Westerners, such as Southern and Northern regions of Thailand, especially during the high seasons when Westerners travel.

4.8 Local communities

Local residents are one of the essential stakeholder groups in ecotourism (Ryan, 2002; Byrd, Cardenas, and Dregalla, 2009). Local community is the first ecotourism shield, to help and protect the entirety of nature and culture (Stem *et al.*, 2003; Hunt and Stronza, 2011).

Moreover, local people are those living and staying within an area for more than a year. In addition, Stein (1979, p. 272, in Galaway and Hudson, 1996) even adds that local communities are ‘a social group of any size whose members reside in a specific locality, share government and have a common cultural and historical heritage’. Their roles are to respect, maintain, preserve and care for everything within their town/village. Locals are one stakeholder that ecotourism literature mentions, as in Butler (1989), Wallace and Pierce (1996), Butcher (2003), Tran and Walter (2014) and Zhang and Zhang (2020).

In **Table 4.1**, the Thailand ecotourism management stakeholders list local communities in the **Expectant Category**. While local communities are important in terms of ecotourism involvement, most levels of Thai government have often ignored their voices. Lobel (2004) refers to this incident as more talk but no action, referring to themes around decentralising decision-making to local people.

Nelson (2002, pp. 228-229) points out that “in 1997, Thailand first included local community within the national implementation policy rhetoric—the state shall decentralise powers to localities for the purpose of independence and self-determination of local affairs . . . as well as development into large-size local government organisations a province ready for such purpose, having regard to the will of the people in that province” (see AsianIII, n.d., see Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand, 1997, section 78). In terms of ecotourism implementation, local communities often manage the projects themselves without proper knowledge or expertise.

Currently, in Northeast Thailand, Phatharathananunth (2016) has noticed the difference in local communities’ behaviours towards the government actors. He reported that the Northeast residents are often now hard for the local administrative organisations (LAO) to control because they now know what is going on’, and ‘they know what they want and don’t want. Unfortunately, the rest of Thai local residents believe that the power is still heavily

weighted towards their bosses or, in other words, “only those at the top can possibly make decisions; that is their obligation, to operate as fathers” (Thanasankit and Corbitt, 2000, p. 7).

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the details of why the following organisations should be included as key Thai ecotourism stakeholders (i.e. Central Administrative Organisation (CAO), Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO), Local Administrative Organisations (LAO), the Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA), tourism operators, tourists and local communities). I also explain and analyse their roles and ecotourism experiences within their organisations, noting the key relationships (see **Table 4.2** for summary).

Since the decentralisation approach implemented within the Thai national plan during the late 1990s, Thai governments have adopted ecotourism as a speedy approach to help them network with the local communities. Unfortunately, few local residents know with which government authorities they must collaborate, due to a complex and overly bureaucratic, top-heavy system of governance. In fact, as the chapter discusses, most of the government allies were ranked in the ‘Definite’ category of Mitchell’s stakeholder classification because they are significant actors, in terms of budget management and policy implementation (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). However, the local communities rank in the lower tier, even though they would be the main group experiencing the impacts of tourism first-hand, before other stakeholders. Nonetheless, Thailand has begun to move from top-down to bottom-up implementation of ecotourism policy (i.e. towards smaller communities), although the extent of networking via Thai authorities is considerably restricted, compared with developed countries (White and Smoke 2005). The developed countries provide a bigger stage for local communities to ‘perform’ in ecotourism destinations, and they devolve more budget to the local level.

This chapter also attempts to demonstrate the pertinent details in studies of the interpretation of ecotourism, through different stakeholders and the relationship with the multi-stakeholders, especially in Asia. In this case, Chaiyaphum province, Thailand, was used as the case study. To help explore a significant gap within contemporary tourism research related to the lack of consideration of ecotourism in rural areas of Northeastern Thailand, it includes a discussion on the practical matters of data collection in **Chapter 5** (Methodology), dealing with methodological considerations for this thesis.

		<p>- <i>Ministry of Culture (MOC)</i></p> <p>- <i>Ministry of Interior (MOI)</i></p> <p>- <i>Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)</i></p>	<p>To preserve, conserve, sustain, integrate, promote and educate about religion, art and culture to the national population as well as internationally</p> <p>Implementing the NESDP, managing, encouraging and supporting local populations (especially grassroots), and to generally meet the needs of people at the local and national level</p> <p>To advertise tourism in Thailand, and to promote tourism for international and national tourists</p>	- The Fine Arts Department (FAD)	Preserving, sustaining, educating, researching, supporting, developing, maintaining and advertising about art, and heritage sites as well as cultural aspects
Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO)	Focuses more on local populations in each region and province, especially within its surroundings, cultural and heritage areas				

Local Administrative Organisations (LAO)	For providing the facilities within their own jurisdiction, while chief executive of municipal/provincial administrative organisation can help to make sure that the facilities purposes from the municipal and sub-district do not overlap.				
Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA)	To help commerce to understand what is happening in the current market, and to represent commerce in discussions with the government officers				
Tour Operators		- National Tourism Operators			
Tourists		-Thai tourists - International tourists			
Local Communities		Chaiyaphum residents			

Table 4.2: The Summary of Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This thesis examines the Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences, in the context of the recent growth of tourism in rural areas. By focussing on Northeast Thailand, this study aims to highlight the differing characteristics of the stakeholders involved in ecotourism projects in rural areas. In order to meet the principal aim of the study, this chapter starts by setting up the theoretical context, then moves to the selection of case studies. Finally, it considers the multi-research method approach this project utilised.

5.2 Setting the Theoretical Context: Social Construction

Social construction focuses on the nature of knowledge, especially on its creation and its significance in the thoughts of contemporary societies (Berger and Luckmann, 1991). Thus, social constructionists demonstrate the knowledge that humans collectively construct from “their shared descriptive thought, which does not necessarily reflect the nature of the individual thought” (Burr, 2015, p. 1). This often means social constructionism, which constructs the world of experience through social interaction, social actions and institutions, rather than individual subjectivity alone (Young and Colin, 2004; Andrews, 2012; Knoblauch and Wilke, 2016).

While social constructionism focuses on judging the existing validity or truth of such knowledge that research findings generate, it does not focus on discrediting the opposition arguments or the philosophy. Social constructionism often aims to provide the research findings and show some different views of existing knowledge. Even though these research

findings may not be definitive, they lead to future debates, changes and new knowledge production. For example, humans once believed that the earth is flat, despite many debates about the earth being round. The theory that the earth is round took until the fifteenth century to establish as being true, after the Greek philosophers had revealed it during the third century BC (Furze, 2019). In this sense, the study intervenes in a discursive process of knowledge production.

Whilst social constructionism is the broad epistemological approach to some of this research, it is also important in considering how stakeholders view or ‘construct’ ecotourism. Whilst largely western-derived ecotourism literature should be defined and understood, we must consider the everyday ‘lived’ experiences of people in rural areas in Thailand. Arguably, in much of the tourism literature, the construction of ‘meaning’ via a western gaze has consequences for policy, politics and action through ecotourism places in Thailand, where governance structures and lived experiences of ecotourism occur. This is because social construction philosophy recommends that “we take a critical and sceptical attitude toward our taken-for-granted ways of understanding the world” (Corneise, 2003, p. 71). Next, the chapter discusses the case studies in this thesis.

5.3 Case Studies

The research focused on three separate case studies that the tourism operators running the ecotourism programme in Northeast Thailand created. This researcher selected the case studies based on the criteria for tourist attractions, namely, natural, cultural and heritage sites. Yin (2009) suggests that the best approach to getting the most effective results from case-study research is to use more than one case study. Following this, Baxter and Jack noted that the single-case-study approach is limited by its inability to account for differences and similarities that a multi-case methodology can reveal. Importantly, Stake (2000, p. 148)

points out that to compare more than one case study “is a grand epistemological strategy, a powerful conceptual mechanism, fixing attention upon one or a few attributes”. The detailed criteria for case-study selection appear in the section below.

5.3.1 Criteria for Selection

Chaiyaphum (see **Figure 1.1**) is one of several provinces in the Lower Northeast region of Thailand, only a three-hour drive from Bangkok. It covers an area of 12,778.3 km², ranking it as one of top three largest areas in the region, seventh out of Thailand’s 76 largest areas. It comprises 16 districts, including Amphue Maung, Amphue Thepsatit, Amphue Ban Khwao (TAT, 2020). The population of Chaiyaphum is around 1,139,023 people (TAT, 2020). Chaiyaphum’s Gross Provincial Product per capita was in the lowest tenth of all Thai provinces (69,730 Baht/year or US\$ 2,250), 15.31 times lower than the top leading Thai province (Rayong) and 1.21 times lower than the Northeast Gross Regional Product per capita (14,126 Baht/year or US\$ 446) (NESDC, 2020). So, the geography of the Northeast often reflects larger land areas with comparably lower economic development than the industrial powerhouse areas surrounding Bangkok.

Recently, the Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS) and the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) turned their attention to the smaller, rural communities and their tourism potential, to promote ecotourism and cultural tourism in Chaiyaphum province and the rest of Thailand (Teekachotekunan, 2020). Both MOTS and TAT point out that Chaiyaphum has the most forests and mountainous terrain in Northeast Thailand (TAT, 2020). Moreover, Chaiyaphum is also where the Chi River originates, the most significant river in Northeast Thailand and Thailand’s longest river. The Chi River has spread into many tributaries, such as Lam Nam Pong, Lam Nam Pao and Lam Nam Porm (TAT, 2020). Chaiyaphum also possesses a diversity of fauna and flora, and the most well-known places relate to such

natural areas as Tat Tone Waterfall, many national parks and the Siam Tulip Fields (TAT, 2020). Chaiyaphum is also known as the province of Dhvaravati's (Khmer era) heritage places, e.g. Prang Ku, Phu Pra and Bai Se Ma (Battlements), as well as the cultural and ethnic groups, e.g. Phi Fa festival, Suy or Kuy or Gauy (Elephant village) and Nyahkur village.

From this combination of natural, heritage and cultural attractions, Chaiyaphum is now one of the main tourist destinations within the Northeast of Thailand, especially between June and August. Furthermore, the tourism industry is starting to become an important component of the local economy. In 2017, the latest year for which figures are available, international and domestic tourists spent 2,043.97 million Baht (53.93 million GBP¹⁶) in Chaiyaphum province at three main attractions: Siam Tulip Field, Ban Khwao and Prang Ku (MOTS, 2021).

Siam Tulip Field is one of the places that the Chaiyaphum regional and local administrative government officers, some tourism operators and the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) are attempting to promote and push as an ecotourism destination. It allows tourists to be close to nature and provides benefits to both the local communities and the tourists themselves. Some authorities, including the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE) and the Fine Art Department (FAD) and some tourism operators, believe that the Siam Tulip site is relevant to cultural tourism fieldtrips because these flowers initially bloom during Khao Pan Sa (The Thai Buddhist festival), which runs from June to August every year. The tourists would get chance to visit the site and the temple, to pay respect to the monks. In addition, after seeing Siam Tulip field, some tourism operators also take their ecotourists to visit cultural spaces like Nyahkur village and Ban Khwao (famous for Thai cotton and silk) and the heritage site, Prang Ku (the well-known Khmer temple).

¹⁶ Exchange rate on October 05, 2020, 1 GBP = THB 37.903100 (Marksandspencer, 2020)

In a sense, whilst these three attractions highlight the misunderstandings between the concepts of ecotourism and cultural tourism, the researcher must focus and observe any possibilities to create a space for cultural and heritage sites to coexist and meet the existing definition of ecotourism. The alternative is to consider both culture and heritage in isolation rather than the hybrid form present in Thailand. Spaces where ecotourism exists also contain sites of special importance for Thai cultural heritage.

In summary, the case-studies selection reflected the Chaiyaphum tourism programme from both Thai and international tourism operators and recognised Chaiyaphum as the top province in Northeast Thailand for significant forest coverage. The next section discusses the details of the individual case studies.

5.3.2 *Selections*

After explaining the reasons for selecting Chaiyaphum, I discuss the details of the case studies to follow. This section outlines key details of the case studies in Chaiyaphum.

5.3.2.1 The Siam Tulip (Kra Jaow) Field (see **Photo 1.1**)

The Siam Tulip field is in Pa Hgin Ngam national park, Amphue Thepsathit (see **Figure 1.1**), within a 1.5-hour drive of Amphue Maung (the city of Chaiyaphum). There are 12,654 people living around these sites (SAO, 2021). They earn their incomes from the agricultural sector, which includes farming and growing tapioca, fruits and rice.

The Siam Tulip is known in Thailand as ‘Daog Kra Jaow’ or ‘Daog Pathumma’ (*Curuna clismatifolia*). Its colours come from pink and white flowers. Normally, it grows during the rainy season from June to August every year. Moreover, Pa Hgin Ngam national park, where the Siam Tulips grow, is also well-known for its waterfalls, different varieties of

stones unique to the area (often referred as ‘Stonehenge of Thailand’) and Pha Sut Phaendin, a cliff that divides the Central and Northeast regions of Thailand.



Photo 5.1: Siam Tulip Field (Author’s photographs)

5.3.2.2 Ban Khwao (see **Photo 5.2**)

Ban Khwao is in Amphue Ban Khwao (see **Figure 1.1**), around fifteen minutes’ drive from Amphoe Maung. The populations comprise fourteen villages, and their main income derives from the rice fields. Ban Khwao is also famous for silk weaving and good-quality cotton, particularly known in Thai language as ‘Mat Mi Silk’, also recognised as a secondary source of income for the local residents in this location.



Photo 5.2: Thai Mat Mi Silk in Ban Khwao (Author's photographs)

5.3.2.3 Prang Ku (see **Photo 5.3**)

Prang Ku is in Tambon Nai Maung, Amphue Maung (see **Figure 1.1**). It is one of the oldest religious structures in Chaiyaphum. Built of sandstone, ancient people referred to it as a hospital. Inside Prang Ku is a Dhvaravati Period Buddha image, which the local inhabitants highly revere, as well as the ancient Dhavaravati reservoir. The population around this area mainly earns income from trading, serving the government and self-employment. Every year, Chaiyaphum residents organise the exhibition to pay their respects to Pang Ku.



Photo 5.3: Prang Ku (Author's photograph)

5.4 Research Methods

This chapter examines ecotourism using a wide range of research criteria in the same locations for a four-year period (2014 — 2018). The rationale for this research taking place for a prolonged period was to see how ecotourism has impacted the rural areas and how Thai stakeholders experience ecotourism over time.

The researcher applied a semi-structured interview method to ascertain government views and implemented focus groups to highlight views about ecotourism through local communities' experiences. Moreover, the semi-structured interviews enabled considering awareness and behaviours, including problems within different sectors from national, regional, local, or Nongovernmental Agency (NGA) and tourism businesses. In addition, a research diary also helped to document the experiences, changes and factors that occurred within research sites, people and the tourism sector over time.

Moreover, open-ended questionnaires were a means of discussing the apparent differences between tourists' experiences and destinations whilst on holiday, as well as analysing the idea of tourists and their attitudes towards definitions of ecotourism. This researcher intends the thesis to fill the gap left by previous studies and hopes to identify, develop and contribute ways of helping stakeholders to cooperate with each other. The research aims to be mindful of the importance of local voices and other factors, including portrayals and representations of ecotourism through different stakeholder groups.

The researcher also utilised a mixed-methods approach, viewing multiple research methodologies in triangulation as helpful in answering key research questions in the social sciences (Bracio and Szarucki, 2020). Valentine (1997) supports these ideas by outlining this approach:

“Often researchers draw on different perspectives and resources in the course of their work. This is known as triangulation. The term comes from surveying, where it describes using different bearings to give the correct position. In the same way the researcher can use multiple methods or different to try and maximise their understanding of research questions”.

(Valentine, 1997, p. 112)

Thus, to meet the aims of the study, the researcher used a multimethod approach, to ensure that methodological choices did not affect the variance of the outcomes. At least two broad stands of methodology are introduced in the research: qualitative and quantitative. Data were obtained from a wide range of sources, such as the government authorities, nongovernmental agencies, tourism operators, tourists and communities.

One of the key contributions of this thesis is to examine how multi-ecotourism stakeholders experience ecotourism in Southeast Asia and specifically, Northeast Thailand. A mixed-methods methodology helps in dealing with multiple stakeholders with divergent motivations and life experiences. Wondirad, Tolkach and King (2020, p. 17) note that:

“Future researchers might undertake empirical verification of these factors using either quantitative or mixed methods research approach. Furthermore, future researchers may consider one or two relevant stakeholders and examine and gain a more in-depth understanding of the links between stakeholder collaborations and sustainable tourism development”.

This approach was attractive for looking at ecotourism from a more holistic and comprehensive perspective, which would not just capture the views of tourists (which, naturally, many studies do) but also factor in the various stakeholders involved in the development of Thai ecotourism in rural areas.

5.5 Data Collection

This research was undertaken from 2014 to 2018 (see **Table 5.1**), divided into three different periods, all self-funded.

Year	Duration	Funded by
2014	February–August	Self-funding
2016	May–August	Self-funding
2018	May–August	Self-funding

Table 5.1: Data Collection periods 2014 – 2018

Each period was anticipated to occur mostly during the Siam Tulip Festival (June to August), while other months were chosen based on participants' availability. The researcher spent most of the time in Pa Hin Ngam national park (Siam Tulip Field). However, for Ban Khwao and Prang Ku, during the last two phases, the number of domestic and international tourists decreased respectively, especially in Prang Ku. Thus, during phases two and three, the number of participants in interviews, focus groups and questionnaires were fewer than the researcher's initial predictions.

The first phase, conducted between February and August 2014 (see **Table 5.1**), included 25 semi-structured interviews of government authorities (n=16), tourism operators (n=8) and a nongovernmental agency (n=1). In addition, the researcher also organised three focus groups and distributed 255 open-ended questionnaires, allowing participants an opportunity to describe what they were experiencing regarding ecotourism and interactions with relevant stakeholders, for all of the people who visited these three case-study locations (Siam Tulip Field, Ban Khwao and Prang Ku). Furthermore, the researcher also made notes in the research diary regarding these three locations and the behaviours of tourism stakeholders, compiled in the researcher's spare time after conducting the research.

The second phase from May to August 2016 (see **Table 5.1**) saw the researcher spending most of the time in two different locations (Siam Tulip Field and Ban Khwao), due to the number of tourists, the political situation and participants' responses. Within this period, the researcher conducted seven semi-structured interviews with the governors (n=10) and two focus groups and collected 156 questionnaires.

The researcher decided to carry out the final phase from May to August 2018 (see **Table 5.1**), based on the Chaiyaphum tourist statistics and the results from the second phase (2016). Most domestic and international tourists prefer to spend most of their time in one place between June and July, before the Siam Tulip flowers lose their petals during August

(abscission). In other locations (Ban Khwao and Prang Ku), the domestic and international tourists were likely to prefer to spend less time, having fewer things to visit. During this period, the researcher ended up collecting data from five governors who participated in the semi-structured interview (n=5), one focus group and respondents to 141 questionnaires. In addition, the researcher also made short notes in the research diary but, tellingly, during this time, the researcher managed to compare the differences between the sites, people and tourism sectors, and make notes on what people said about tourism in Chaiyaphum and Thailand more generally.

5.6 Permission and Access to the Sites

Permission is the first gateway for researchers reaching their informants. Both Thai and international researchers must request the informants' permission before they can enter sites to conduct field research. At first, to obtain the required permissions, the researcher prepared and sought permission for the first-time telephone calls for about one to two months (see **Table 5.2**). During this period, the researcher had to check informant websites and seek their general telephone numbers. After this, the researcher had to produce the telephone notes introducing myself and the reasons for conducting the research in their jurisdictions, or obtain access to their organisations. While the notes were ready, the researcher normally preferred to phone the informants in the morning, from Monday to Thursday. The response rates seemed high during these periods while seeking counsel from Thai stakeholders.

During the first telephone calls, the researcher used the telephone notes as guidelines to help with reaching the contacts who could provide details on what the researcher had to do in the next stage. After finishing the first telephone calls, the next stage was to write a permission letter with a logo heading from the university/workplace, outlining the case studies (see **Appendix 3**). Moreover, the researcher also provided the university registration

letter to the participants to help speed up the process and build confidence that the researcher's work was legitimate. This stage to produce a permission letter only took one day.

Then, the researcher posted the registered letter with postal tracking to the informants and waited for their responses. The process of waiting could take from two weeks up to four months (see **Table 5.2**). Sometimes, the researcher made follow up telephone calls. While some preferred asking for a later contact (e.g. in a couple of weeks), others called back in a couple of days. However, some potential informants preferred to ask the researcher to post the registered letters again or even informed the researcher that they did not think they were relevant to the research.

Whilst the researcher received permission to access the participants and their case-study sites, the participants set up the specific dates and times for the researcher to visit. This process often took place within two weeks to one month after initially receiving permissions (see **Table 5.2**). Then, a couple of weeks beforehand, the researcher had to post and email either the full questionnaire or, sometimes, only the main topics to the participants. Some applicants refused to do the interviews after they received the questions or topics; others preferred to answer some, others completed all questions. The emphasis here is on the difference in culture. Thai research participants are not used to answering questions in detail and will often reply with Yes or No, so ensuring that trust is built so participants feel more comfortable sharing detailed information in confidence takes an additional investment of time.

Moreover, the researcher also had to specify the duration of interviews. Some participants had significant workloads, leaving little possibility of getting additional time to ask follow-up questions. However, some participants did not mind the time the researcher spent with them. In the interview preparations, the researcher decided that thirty minutes to one hour was sufficient time for completing the questions. However, towards the end, some

interviews were taking longer than the time allocated, depending on how participants responded during the interview.

Stakeholders	Activities	Overall periods
government stakeholders / nongovernmental agencies / tourism operators / local communities	Seeking the initial telephone calls with mentioned stakeholders	One to Two Months
government stakeholders / nongovernmental agencies / tourism operators / local communities	Awaiting the response after posting the permission letters	Two weeks to Four months
government stakeholders / nongovernmental agencies / tourism operators / local communities	Awaiting permissions to access sites/interviews	Two weeks to One month

Table 5.2: Interview Follow-up Periods 2014–2018

The researcher also provided the consent forms (see **Appendix 4**), one for the participants to write their conditions and the other for the participants to keep for their records. All participants approved the consent forms and gave permission to be recorded. However, they all preferred to remain unidentified in the thesis, due to concerns for their careers and personal safety. Thailand still operates a very hierarchical social structure, which means that those senior in an organisation make the significant decisions (Chambers and Waitoolkiat, 2020). Those operating lower down in the hierarchy of power, even if well-informed, are often encouraged or forced to remain silent, to protect elders who carry much sway in Thai society.

To commute to the specific sites for interviews, focus groups and distribution of questionnaires, the researcher’s parents came along to ensure safety. Every time, the researcher preferred to arrive early, to prepare the notes and recorders. The researcher

organised the set-up for focus groups beforehand, and the parents assisted the researcher before the focus group began. Thus, in this research, the access to the participants went as smoothly as possible. Moreover, the participants had paid attention and tried to help the researcher as much as possible to reach/contact more relevant candidates, to aid the research. Thus, the researcher's parents and the researcher made themselves more welcome to the communities by staying within the case-study sites on numerous occasions, building relationships with the local residents while they were there (e.g. restaurants and hotels). This could be considered 'social snowballing', important for conducting fieldwork in Thailand.

Whilst distributing the questionnaires, the researcher introduced herself, telling participants what the researcher would do with the research data and how long the questionnaires would last. Providing the tourists with this information would enable the researcher to reach the participants and gain permission and access. Those participants who were happy to do the research would spend their time on the questionnaires, while those who were not interested preferred to make no eye-contact, run or walk away and avoid using the same routes as the researcher. In addition, some of the participants even called and pointed out their friends who were interested in ecotourism or tourism topics. Thus, at times, the research became snowballing, not the initial intention but, as noted, part of Thai culture.

It would not be possible for the researcher to distribute questionnaires alone, so I asked my parents to help collect the questionnaires from the participants. The researcher preferred to collect questionnaires on weekends and some Thai holidays since numerous domestic and international tourists were present then. Both the Thai tourists and international tourists preferred to travel during the weekend or long holidays. Unfortunately, if the researcher decided to collect the data on a weekday, most of tourists ended up being people who lived closer to the tourism destinations, and this could bias the data collection.

The next section discusses the semi-structured interviews that the researcher conducted with government, nongovernmental agencies and tourism operators.

5.7 Semi-structured Interviews: Governmental Organisations, Nongovernmental Agencies and Tourism Operators

Interviewing “is one of the most common and powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow humans” (Fontana and Frey, 2000, pp. 697-698) as well as help “to produce rich accounts that capture and communicate the complexity of the social and organisational world” (Messner, Moll and Strömsten, 2017, p. 432) from the participants in a relatively efficient/fast way (Marshall and Rossman, 1995). Moreover, interviews are useful for getting the story/narrative that relates to a participant's experiences, biography, opinions, values, aspirations, attitudes and feelings (Fielding, 1988; McNamara, 1990). This helps the interviewer to gain an understanding of in-depth information concerning the specific problem identified. Moreover, it also helps the interviewees to answer freely, but under the circumstances of aiming for comparability (McNamara, 1990), because interviewing allows the interviewee to answer questions in terms of their understanding (Fielding, 1988). Therefore, the semi-structured approach appeared to be the most effective for this research, allowing formulation of the topic questions beforehand and enabling the questions to be answered with a flexible response (Dunn, 2003; Valentine and Clifford, 2003). Only broad topics are set up before the interview, which subsequently allows the researcher to explore wider and deeper questions that may come up during the interview.

For example, the first objective is to investigate how the actual Thai ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism stakeholders. Existing understandings of ecotourism have tended to originate from academic work and those with a vested policy interest in ecotourism. It is important when dealing with local communities to frame

questions in a more general way first, to allow them to express their understanding of ecotourism.

In this study, the researcher used semi-structured one-to-one interviews (sample questions appear in **Appendix 5 and 6**) to ask questions of relevant sectors: government authorities, nongovernment agencies and tourism operators.

5.7.1 *Government Organisations*

The researcher selected 31 governmental organisations (some from the same organisations), but five refused to participate within the three phases (February 2014 – August 2018; see **Table 5.3**). Twenty-six went forward, ranging from local, regional and national departments to ministries related to tourism issues. As previously discussed, a few studies have analysed the various stakeholders in an ecotourism context in significant detail, due to the difficulty of arranging interviews and collecting data from organisations and groups that are not always accessible. In the case of Thailand, concerns over the experiences of ecotourism from the various stakeholders normally appear in articles and government reports. Thus, by choosing this particular heterogeneous sample of stakeholders to study, the researcher anticipated providing a contribution to the field of ecotourism, subsequently allowing government sectors to be better understood as a stakeholder within Thai contemporary ecotourism.

Unfortunately, political complexity has resulted in numerous problems during periods of political instability in Thailand since 2014. These have led to impacts not only on the tourism sector itself, but also changes in numerous posts within the Thai government, via the government authorities. Thus, the researcher wanted to identify other existing problems that arise from the changes in government and how the residents have experienced the impacts from such changes in Thai and local politics. Thus, the third phase of research was

established (May–August 2018), for which the researcher selected the same groups of government authorities, with seven agreeing to participate. Unfortunately, due to the number of participant responses during the second phase and the change of tourists’ interests, for this final stage of the data collection, the researcher decided to select interviews with participants who responded in the first phase (February–August 2014), ending up with five government authorities who responded.

Phase	Interview code	Organisations	Participant Involvement
1 Feb–Aug 2014	GA1–GA14	National/ Regional/ Local Government Authorities	14
2 May–Aug 2016	GA15–GA21	National/ Regional/ Local Government Authorities	7
3 Ma –Aug 2018	GA22–GA26	Local Government Authorities	5

Table 5.3: The List of Governmental Organisations’ Participants and Their Interview Codes

5.7.2 *Nongovernmental Agencies*

Only one participant was selected because only one sector was working with tourism within the three case-study locations. From the first phase to the final phase (see **Table 5.4**), the researcher received only one acceptance from this sector. Apart from that, the researcher was told politely that such stakeholders were not interested in making a contribution to the research, because nongovernmental agencies felt nothing they said could contribute and make a difference to ecotourism activity on the ground. A theme was building, in terms of the lack

of power people had over stagnating politics and broken promises of engagement with smaller settlements and tourism opportunities for local people.

Phase	Interview code	Organisations	Participants Involved
1 Feb–Aug 2014	NGA	Nongovernmental Agency	1
2 May–Aug 2016	NGA	Nongovernmental Agency	0
3 May–Aug 2018	NGA	Nongovernmental Agency	0

Table 5.4: The List of Nongovernmental Agency’s Participants and Their Interview Codes

5.7.3 *Tourism Operators*

As mentioned earlier, the researcher conducted the research in three different periods (see **Table 5.5**). In the first period (February–August 2014), the researcher selected eight travel companies that were running daytrips to visit Siam Tulip Field, Ban Khwao and Prang Ku, but three refused to participate in the study. For each tourism operator, the researcher spent around thirty minutes to an hour exploring the tourism operators’ ideas on ecotourism, their understanding of ecotourism concepts and their involvement, activities and management within the companies and other sectors. Moreover, the researcher also hoped to identify why tourism operators provide such programmes to tourists, before introducing them to the ecotourism destinations. The researcher was also interested in the extent to which the tourism operators, local community and government authorities discussed their needs and requirements of ecotourism before opening the tourism destination and providing ecotourism products.

Of note is that while the researcher collected information during the second phase (May–August 2016) and the third phase (May–August 2018), the same tourism programmes that had been provided within the tourism operators had already vanished, and some had stopped operating routes the researcher had studied previously. This was related to reductions in the numbers of domestic and international tourists, the political instability in Thailand and the trend towards tourists preferring to organise their own trips (Ingram, Tabari and Watthanakhomprathip, 2013). Thus, the researcher could not interview tourism operators in the second and third phases of the project.

Phase	Interview code	Organisations	Participant Involvement
1 Feb–Aug 2014	TO1–TO5	Tourism Operators	5
2 May–Aug 2016	N/A	Tourism Operators	N/A
3 May–Aug 2018	N/A	Tourism Operators	N/A

Table 5.5: The List of Tourism Operators’ Participants and Their Interview Codes

In terms of tourist agencies, the researcher designed the interview questions to examine several features. First, a general background was obtained, such as when the tourist operator was established and who operates it now, whether they have a tourism certificate, what trips they provided, how they began providing the trip, whether they have a record of the tourists visiting each year and how the tourists know them. Second, the questioning concentrated on the ecotourism aspect by exploring the ideas concerning when the ecotourism programme was initiated, what type of tourist attractions they define as ‘ecotourism’, whether there are positive and negative outcomes following the introduction of

ecotourism to communities and agencies, and whether ecotourism provision is popular with the tourists. Third, interview questioning focused on cultural and heritage tourism, what type of tourist settings they provide, whether to include cultural heritage in definitions of ecotourism, and whether it is well known to the tourists. Finally, there was a focus on the involvement between agencies and the government, nongovernmental agencies, tourists and communities, and consideration of tourist destinations in the future. The next section examines the focus groups.

5.8 Focus groups: Local communities

Ryan (1995) notes that the focus group is a method of data collection that the tourism field utilises. In addition, Kuzel (1992) also states that focus groups employ ‘qualitative sampling’ that helps to encompass diversity more than random samples. Moreover, Berry and Ladkin (1997) mention that commercial research commonly uses focus groups, especially with reference to developing and monitoring advertising and political campaigns (Ryan, 1995).

“[a] focus group participant is not an individual acting in isolation. Rather, participants are members of a social group, all of whom interact with each other. In other word, the focus group is itself a social context”.

(Wilkinson, 1999, p. 227)

A focus group is sometimes simply known as a group interview or a group discussion (Hawe, Degeling and Hall, 1990; Morgan and Kreuger, 1993; Morgan, 1993; Krueger, 1994; Barbour and Kitzinger, 1999; Nyumba *et al.*, 2018). It normally consists of five to ten participants (Morgan, 1997) and involves the exploration of ideas and interpretations of what

people say. Moreover, a focus group focuses on the interaction between participants. Morgan (1997, p. 2) agrees and mentions, “The hallmark of focus groups is their explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group”. Thus, in this research, the researcher preferred to act as a moderator or facilitator, to subsequently record the information discussed during the conversations.

Focus groups can also help to provide high-quality and reliable research results that allow for an in-depth understanding of the topic under investigation. The synergy of a group helps to provide a wide and stimulating discussion. The advantages of focus groups are those associated with group dynamics. For example, cumulative group discussion obtains a wider opinion than one from an isolated individual; there is security in groups that can debate ideas, and single comments can provoke further discussion. The format of focus groups also fits well with Thai social culture, which is more collective, and individuals often will reveal more opinions or views in a group setting than in the individual interview model. This helps negate problems with individual interviewees who may be shy answering in a solo setting.

5.8.1 *Representation of Respondents*

This research consisted of three different phases (February 2014–August 2018, see **Table 5.6**). During the first period, February to August 2014, three focus groups were conducted in three different places. However, in the second phase (May–August 2016), only two focus groups agreed to participate, due to the number of tourists and the level of interest regarding tourism from the local community, which had changed since the first phase of the research. The third phase (May–August 2018) was reduced to one focus group, for the same reasons as the reduction in the second phase. Hence, the total number of focus groups conducted was six. This experience with focus groups was indicative of a participation

malaise among local people lacking trust in local government and academics who provided avenues for participation that did not lead to political action.

Phase	Interview code	Organisations	Participants Involved
1 Feb–Aug 2014	FC1–FC3	Local Communities	3
2 May–Aug 2016	FC4–FC5	Local Communities	2
3 May–Aug 2018	FC6	Local Communities	1

Table 5.6: The List of Focus Groups’ Participants and Their Codes

The group leader in each group selected particular days, months and times of participation, because each group leader would know when the residents were available in their daily routines. The community leaders also organised the places where the researcher could visit and conduct research, as well as inform local residents that this research was for a PhD study in tourism. With only two refusals, most access and cooperation from the local residents was smooth and proactive. These focus groups would not have occurred if the group leaders did not show their eagerness to help. Again, this emphasises the methodological differences in Thailand, which require approaching an additional layer of gatekeepers (local leaders) to access research participants.

Whilst on site, the researcher participated in six meetings held in different sites in Chaiyaphum province, namely, the Siam Tulip Field, Ban Khwao and Prang Ku. Each focus group had a distinctive identity that reflected the tourists and tourism operators related to the categories of settlements characteristic of Chaiyaphum: natural sites, cultural sites and heritage sites. At each site, the researcher talked to three local communities that held

gatherings with local people. The respondents ranged from villagers (who had lived in the communities for more than ten years and possessed new knowledge) to village leaders. This helped the researcher to select five to eight participants in each setting and invite them to attend the focus groups afterward. The discussion ran between one and one and a half hours in each meeting.

During the discussion, the researcher used the semi-structured interview questions (sample in **Appendix 7**) to encourage answers from the focus groups. Asking such questions consistently incurred less risk of bias within each case-study setting. In addition, it helped to identify the answer, and if clarification was sought, then little or no variability in any elaboration should be apparent, so as not to influence the answers. The information comprised an overview of ecotourism background, management, supply and their experiences through ecotourism within community, the management and organisations involved with cultural heritage and the advantages and disadvantages before or after establishment of ecotourism programmes inside the community. After the discussion, the researcher asked all the participants to fill in the participants' consent form (see **Appendix 4**) to outline confidentiality concerns. The researcher also provided the focus group moderators with a consent form (see **Appendix 4**), to inform them that the researcher was undertaking study for the researcher's own purposes only and would protect participant identities and meet other relevant conditions.

Generally, the information collected from focus groups would involve the experiences of ecotourism between communities and other sectors. This occasion meant to help gain understanding following the introduction of ecotourism or cultural tourism into the three new settings in Chaiyaphum province. Moreover, this study helped to investigate the new development strategies, to help each stakeholder to cooperate with others and to strive to

eliminate unnecessary support of those tourism destinations that need less investment in tourism infrastructure.

5.9 Open-Ended Questionnaires: Domestic and International Tourists

Questionnaires were of three different categories: closed, semi-structured and open questions. In this research, the researcher used open-ended questions because the participants had to elaborate rather than give yes/no answers. Moreover, it helps the researcher to capture particular attitudes, perceptions, experiences and personal traits. The advantages of open-ended questionnaires are that they can garner a larger amount of information than closed-ended questionnaires. In addition, the researcher also designed the questionnaires for self-completion, to help the researcher to collect a large number of respondents in an inexpensive way.

The open-ended questionnaires were conducted through two different groups, domestic tourists and international tourists, within the three main tourist destinations in Chaiyaphum province: Prang Ku, Siam Tulip Field and Ban Khwao. The content of the questionnaires aimed to explore the aspects of demographic profiles, travel motivation, tourism marketing, the future of the destinations, definition of ecotourism, and tourist satisfaction with the chosen destination (sample questionnaires appear in **Appendix 8 and Appendix 9**).

The questionnaires were conducted in the three aforementioned research phases, February–August 2014, May–August 2016 and May–August 2018 (see **Table 5.7**). The researcher chose particular months because during these periods, the numbers of tourists increased more than in other months, in all three tourism destinations, due to numerous of holidays and festivals during these periods, such as religious days in July and the Siam Tulip Field Festival from June to August. During the data-collection process, the researcher and the

team decided to distribute the questionnaires to both types of tourists after their trips to the aforementioned destinations. To achieve this, the researcher and the team were positioned at the exits of each tourist destination or sometimes distributed the questionnaires and collected them from the tourist accommodation (only if tourists preferred and asked our team to do so).

Phase	Organisations	Distributed Questionnaires	Usable Questionnaires
1 June–Aug 2014	Domestic and International tourist	255	205
2 June–Aug 2016	Domestic and International tourist	175	156
3 June–Aug 2018	Domestic and International tourist	150	141

Table 5.7: The List of Questionnaire Participants

During phase one (June–August 2014, see **Table 5.7**), the researcher decided to randomly distribute 255 questionnaires across the three different locations (Siam Tulip Field, Prang Ku and Ban Khwao) to both types of tourists (150 domestic tourists and 105 international tourists). There were 205 usable questionnaires received back, and the response rate was calculated as 80.4% (107 domestic tourists and 98 international tourists).

For phase two (June–August 2016, see **Table 5.7**), since the number of tourists within some tourism destinations in Chaiyaphum province decreased, and there was political instability in Thailand, the researcher decided to only collect the questionnaires from the tourists within the tourism destinations where the researcher could see the tourists present, the Siam Tulip Field and Ban Khwao. In this case, the researcher and the team distributed 175 questionnaires to both groups of tourists across two different tourism destinations (100

domestic tourists and 75 international tourists), yielding 156 usable questionnaires from this second phase, a response rate of 89.1% (87 domestic tourists and 69 international tourists).

During the third phase (June–August 2018, see **Table 5.7**), the researcher and the team decided to distribute the questionnaires to both types of tourists, especially in the main destination where the tourists spend most of their time. Hence, the team and the researcher decided to distribute the questionnaires only in one out of three tourism destinations in Chaiyaphum province. Within the Siam Tulip Field, the team agreed to distribute the questionnaires in differing periods of the day, to ensure balanced coverage of different time periods. As a result, the response equalled 150 questionnaires (90 domestic tourists and 60 international tourists) in our collections, however, after checking the answers, there were 141 usable questionnaires (85 domestic tourists and 56 international tourists). The response rate for this third phase was 94%.

From phase one to phase three, the researcher and the team distributed 580 questionnaires in total to both types of tourists (340 domestic tourists and 240 international tourists). There were 502 usable questionnaires (279 domestic tourists and 223 international tourists) for this research. The overall response rate for these questionnaires was calculated as 86.55%, which is good for a traditional questionnaire survey.

Between phase one and phase three, tourists gave their cooperation to a great extent, with refusals and rejections tending to come from older Thai participant (greying) tourists, aged 65 or older (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001, p. 408). Most of them preferred not to be disturbed, especially when they were travelling and relaxing. Poon (1994) notes that ‘golden tourists’ have different perceptions from other types of tourists, because they assume that they have acquired more experience and accrued higher spending power than other groups. They preferred to receive the best-quality treatment from the tourism destinations, as well as a spirit of independence regarding the activities they undertake. Douglas, Douglas and

Derrett (2001, p. 411) point out that this group is well known as an age group that is “hard to please”. In a Thai context, this generation is also not used to taking part in research projects and understanding the importance of research studies. Overall, undertaking the questionnaire research included the researcher and the team anticipating that the respondents would complete the questionnaires within fifteen to thirty minutes.

In the next section, the researcher discusses the use of research diaries.

5.10 Research Diary

The research diary is a method that requires researchers to record information relating to themselves, research sites, research participants and research methodologies in which the researcher gathers data of interest during that particular period, from a longitudinal perspective (Meth, 2003; Silverman, 2005; Gibbs, 2007; Gerstl-Pepin and Patrizio, 2009). Each diary entry is “sedimented into a particular moment in time: they do not emerge “all at once” as reflections on the past, but day by day strive to record an ever-changing present” (Plummer, 2001, p. 48). The wealth of information gathered can help the researcher to articulate thoughts, changes, beliefs, feelings and decision-making, as well as aiding the researcher to recall possibly forgotten memories (see Meth, 2003; Bartlett and Milligan, 2015). This supplements the quantitative approach of a questionnaire, limited to collecting more factual data.

Thus, the research diary is different from other kinds of one-way research methods (e.g. interviews), because it allows the researcher to write about the further expressions/responses (e.g. hidden and expressed emotions) of the researcher/participants, not usually available during or after the research is conducted or towards the end of the research process (Meth, 2003; Bartlett and Milligan, 2015). In addition, Gertstl-Pepin and Patrizio (2009, p. 300) note that while the researcher reflects on the research diary information, as

well as the plethora of expressions/feelings, these reflections lead the researcher to ‘epistemological awareness’. Dornyei (2007) also suggests that this valuable awareness could later become knowledge from the research project.

In this study, the researcher decided to use three different research diaries for each phase (see **Table 5.7**), to help record the situations/information/expressions relating to the research aims (Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences in the context of recent growth of tourism, the impacts on rural areas; see **Chapter 1**) and objectives, in a systemic way. In this case, the researcher decided to write the information/expressions of participants and the researcher in the diary on the same day, after the researcher finished collecting data. The researcher also noted changes in participants’ experiences or behaviours as a result of participation and involvement from different periods of time. Furthermore, the researcher even noted what had disappeared or was newly built within the case studies under investigation, as a way to illustrate the views on ecotourism impacts within the areas the researcher was studying. After the completion of the third phase, the researcher then compared the three different diaries and noted what was relevant to the research aims and objectives. Then, the researcher reflected on the above information with the data collected. The next section discusses the processing of data from the fieldwork.

5.11 Data Processing: Transcription and Translation

In this research, most of the data collected via semi-structured interviews, focus groups, questionnaires from Thai tourists and the research diary were collected in official (Central) Thai language and sometimes in Northeastern dialect. The researcher had to manipulate the transcribed data from both forms of Thai (Central/Northeastern languages) to English. Thai people have used Central Thai as an official language, but where the researcher conducted the research in the Northeast region, research participants preferred to answer the

questions in Thai and Northeastern dialect. In this case, the researcher does understand both languages, but there would be some risk of misunderstanding. Komori (2015, p. 142) notes that “[w]hen the researcher’s cultural/linguistic background and experiences differ from those of their audience, there is always the risk that their views will be misinterpreted”. Many published research studies where research participants speak different languages read similarly to research studies conducted in places where English is the primary language. In other words, research participants are not going to answer questions in the same way as research participants in Western countries. Crystal emphasises this by arguing, Translation is a process where “the meaning and expression in one language (source) is tuned with the meaning of another (target) whether the medium is spoken, written or signed”. (Crystal, 1991, p. 346)

To translate the data, at first, the researcher decided to translate all of the material into Thai language to help to keep the richness of information from the research (e.g. Regmi, Naidoo and Pilkington, 2010; Messner, Moll and Strömsten, 2017). Then, later, the researcher had to select only the most relevant quotations from those materials above and translate them into English. Feldermann and Hiebl (2020, p. 231) note that “a proper translation of quotations from non-English interviews may not be easy to achieve, since the original meaning of the quotations needs to be preserved”.

Thus, this researcher had to translate the quotations into simple sentences, by transcribing it word by word or, sometimes, sentence by sentence. However, this might not be easy to read after the transcription process occurs. So, the researcher had to add more words or sentences to help the readers understand the context. During this editing process, the researcher did not try to manipulate the participants’ information from one context to another; in fact, the researcher only aimed to edit the interviewee’s answer to become readable and to make sense to audiences interested in this research.

For this transcription approach, the researcher decided to make clear to the participants, while conducting the research, that the researcher would not add any information with which they were not comfortable (as the researcher provided in the community leader/participant's consent forms; see **Appendices 4 and 5**). Moreover, the researcher also tried to ensure that the participants could trust the researcher with their information. Feldermann and Hiebl suggest that

“at least if the author has taken sufficient care to make translation processes transparent, this could strengthen the researchers' awareness and sensibility for language sensitive contexts and translation problems while preparing data for publication”.

(Feldermann and Hiebl, 2020, p. 252)

5.12 Ethical Issues

This research used verbal informed consent. This meant to help the researcher as well as the participants get to know each other, feel more relaxed and subsequently gain more confidence concerning the research and the issues to be raised during the data collection.

To start considering ethics, the researcher must first ensure introducing him/herself to the participants, sharing how many hours the researcher will use, the benefits of the research, how they would like to be known in published materials, whether the researcher must provide a copy of the consent form and his/her personal contact details. Second, before leaving the case study area, the researcher had to ask the participants to sign a letter of consent (see **Appendix 4**), so the researcher knows whether they give permission to use the data. Some participants doubted why the researcher had to do this; however, after the researcher explained the research methodology in detail, they were happy to fill in the form. Finally, the

researcher kept all information in storage boxes inside the researcher's home for the safety of the participants; however, if some issues occurred at any point, the researcher promised the participants that the researcher would destroy their data straight away to avoid any future problem.

5.13 Conclusion

Ecotourism stakeholders require an understanding of their differing experiences within the same sectors, as well as with such outsiders as government authorities, nongovernmental agencies, tourist operators, tourists and local residents. This is a means of linking the needs of development and all stakeholders, further linking the research aims and objectives, namely, to investigate how Thai stakeholders experience ecotourism in the context of its recent growth in rural areas (e.g. local communities, domestic and international tourists, tourism operators and Thai authorities). Moreover, the researcher also sought to identify the positive and negative impacts within Siam Tulip Field, Ban Khwao and Prang Ku, after adopting ecotourism or cultural tourism as a marketing tool. Furthermore, as a researcher, I tried to create space for cultural and heritage aspects in ecotourism-related issues and evaluate stakeholder views on reducing negative impacts on managing ecotourism at the local level.

The researcher investigated the use of focus groups in each tourism destination; semi-structured questionnaires for international and domestic tourists, which separated tourists into three different categories by destination—only ecotourism (Siam Tulip Field), visiting cultural and heritage sites (Prang Ku and Ban Khwao) and a combination of ecotourism destinations and cultural and heritage sites (Siam Tulip Field, Ban Khwao and Prang Ku). Moreover, for both kinds of tourists, the researcher used the same categories in relation to the semi-structured questionnaires method, dividing focus groups into three groups in each

tourist sector. The researcher also adopted the semi-structured interview approach for use with five tourism operators, each of which is one of the top-ten tourist businesses in these three destinations in Chaiyaphum province, in addition to 26 government authorities and one nongovernmental agencies, considered relevant to the tourism industry in Thailand.

The researcher hopes that the methods implemented within this research will help explain how Thai stakeholders experience ecotourism, in the context of the recent growth of tourism in the rural areas. Moreover, the researcher hopes that this research will ultimately help other countries to understand how the process of ecotourism should work, lead to successful tourism development in their own countries and incorporate cultural and heritage aspects as part of ecotourism's definition, helping the local communities to sustain themselves, as well as cultural and heritage settings, around the ecotourism destination. In the next chapter, I analyse the first research question, namely, how the Thai ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism and consider cultural heritage within the Thai ecotourism definition.

CHAPTER 6

THE CONSTRUCTION OF ECOTOURISM BY THAI ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

6.1 Introduction

The task of this chapter is to answer the first objective of this thesis: How do the Thai ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism (see **Chapter 1**)? To meet this objective, the chapter aims, first, to identify how different Thai stakeholders construct ‘ecotourism’. Second, it considers the connectivity between humans and nature, culture and heritage and, specifically, if *cultural heritage* fits into the Thai definition of ecotourism in practice. Third, it summarises findings. The chapter attempts to understand the wider perspectives of several different ecotourism stakeholders and links to the thesis aim, regarding how Thai stakeholders construct ecotourism experiences, in the context of recent growth of tourism and impacts on rural areas (see **Chapter 1**).

In this chapter, data was gathered from academic literature, focus groups, interviews, questionnaires and research diaries. The researcher assessed the views of multiple ecotourism stakeholders. This analysis is unique, as only a small body of work assesses ecotourism’s meaning in this way, through the knowledge and experiences of multiple stakeholders within the ecotourism market.

Before moving on to the substantive issue, **Figure 6.1** below briefly illustrates the codes and research phases.

Phases	Codes	Organisations
1 Feb–Aug 2014	GA1–GA14	National/ Regional/ Local Governmental Administrative Organisations
2 May–Aug 2016	GA15–GA21	National/ Regional/ Local Government Administrative Organisations
3 May–Aug 2018	GA22–GA26	Local Government Administrative Organisations
1 Feb–Aug 2014	NGA	Nongovernmental Agency
2 May–Aug 2016	N/A	Nongovernmental Agency
3 May–Aug 2018	N/A	Nongovernmental Agency
1 Feb–Aug 2014	TO1–TO5	Tourism Operators
2 May–Aug 2016	N/A	Tourism Operators
3 May–Aug 2018	N/A	Tourism Operators
1 Feb–Aug 2014	FC1–FC3	Local Communities
2 May–Aug 2016	FC4–FC5	Local Communities
3 May–Aug 2018	FC6	Local Communities

Figure 6.1: The Summary of Data Collection Periods from 2014 – 2018

6.2 The Construction of Definitions of Ecotourism of the Various Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders

As **Chapter 5** discusses, the study collected data using four different types of methods—focus groups, interviews, open-ended questionnaires and research diaries. Each methodological approach requires different methods to analyse data effectively (see **Chapter 5**). The researcher considered how different Thai stakeholders construct and see ecotourism through their experiences. The data were analysed in four broad and overlapping categories: nature, economics, culture and heritage and archaeology. In the next section, I move to the first category — *nature* — in the construction of ecotourism.

6.2.1 *Nature in the Construction of Ecotourism*

The data clusters in different groups of actors (Academic Literature, see **Appendix 10**): Thai authorities and residents, Thai tourists and international tourists), as **Table 6.1** shows. This table demonstrates the differences between research participants by group and key characteristics/criteria within their construction of ecotourism. After running the analysis giving consideration to different factors, the analysis showed that nature received the highest percentage among defining characteristics of ecotourism, from the groups that Table 6.1 outlines. Perhaps this is not surprising, considering that many people associate ‘eco’ with the environment and nature, and such influential thinkers as Fennell (2014) see this as the key dimension of ecotourism.

Key Characteristics of Ecotourism	Academic Literature (N=80)	Thai Participants (Authorities and Residents) (N=38)	Thai tourist Participants (N=279)	International Tourist Participants (N =223)
Nature	98% (78/80)	74% (28/38)	79% (221/279)	79% (175/223)

Table 6.1: Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Nature

Table 6.1 shows that the vast bulk of the academic literature — 98% (see **Appendix 11**) — has constructed nature as the most emphasised feature of ecotourism definitions. It is high for all categories: Thai tourists (79%), international tourists (79%) and Thai authorities and residents (74%). However, as these percentages indicate, Thai tourists view natural areas as a significant element or part of an ecotourism definition, with a percentage of close to 80%. Clearly, Thai and international stakeholders consider ecotourism in a very similar way to the academics, from both developed and developing nations, with respect to the importance of ‘nature’ (see Macnaghten and Urry’s *Contested Nature (1998)* for an excellent analysis of what ‘nature’ means).

6.2.1.1 The Views of the Ecotourism Actors

Different types of stakeholders construct ecotourism in a way that different educational backgrounds, interests, times and places likely shape. In general, ecotourism has changed its only focus from ‘conserve the natural areas and natural resources alone’ to ‘sustain the natural resources, social and local communities that surround natural areas’. The following interview in phase three (May–Aug 2018) illustrates this point:

“According to the practicality, ecotourism has widened their scope from only preserving the national park or flora and fauna within there. But, I think this has completely changed. We have included the ethnic groups that used to live in the national parks to get involved with our ecotourism programme. We have also asked them to portray their lifestyles to the tourists. I see ecotourism as tourism that provides benefit to nature, community and ethnic groups rather than nature parks alone”.

(GA22, local authorities, Phase 3)

GA22 commented that GA22 and the team have noticed the significant change in ecotourism within this area. This could be because they have found out that ecotourism does not involve natural and national development alone. But it also changed the view of ecotourism from government-based development to community-based development (neopopulism) tourism because it pays primary attention to sustaining the nature, community and ethnic groups. This view fits well in Ziffer’s ecotourism definition (Ziffer, 1989, p.6).

Moreover, Agardy (1993) and Laarman and Durst (1987) suggest that ecotourism could also include outdoor activities or even any recreation activities that involve natural activities, such as rock climbing, bird watching and canoeing — i.e. people interacting with nature rather than nature *per se*. The following interview illustrates this point:

“I think most tourists come to visit Ban Khwao areas because of the waterfall as well as homestay and resorts. In addition, for those people who would like to undertake some adventure activities, we have got that for them, too. That is why, this area has started to become well-known by some domestic and few

international tourists for the ecotourism market”.

(GA3, Local Government officer, Phase 1)

GA3 commented that if activities involve nature, they qualify as ecotourism. Typically, proponents of the ecotourism market in Thailand create activities relating to natural areas as a strategy to convince the tourists to visit them. Laarman and Dust (1987) discuss this view and mention that ecotourism should ultimately involve those activities that predominantly focus on adventure or tourists’ recreational habits. Moreover, GA3 also points out that the shift of natural or adventure activities within natural areas helps to bind the relationship between economic interests, tourists’ desires and local community views. An example is the case of friends of the researcher, a family that has travelled to Chaiyaphum province from time to time, for pleasure purposes. They became close friends with local residents who owned the homestay, souvenir shops and agricultural food stalls. In addition, this relationship between them has spread to other families by word-of-mouth, later helping to improve the local economy, due to the significant number of tourists who have arrived and bought their products. In Thailand, this kind of word-of-mouth promotion is an important factor in doing business.

A comment from interviewees in the Thep Sathit district focus group, FC/3 (in phase 1) and FC/5 (in phase 2), revealed how some consider the relationship between humans, nature and recreational use of space:

“In my opinion, I think that it is good to have established the ecotourism programme. However, when tourists have arrived they have forgotten to look after the natural areas. This could be because people only come to visit and then leave. So, they have less responsibilities within the areas on cleaning their

rubbishes as well as protecting the natural resources around the areas such as Siam Tulip field. So, according to what we experienced, we would like to say ecotourism should mean, ‘the tourism programme that has got no rubbish and any loss of natural resources within the areas’, if we could not do that, this type of programme should not be called ‘Ecotourism’”.

(FC/3, local residents, Phase 1)

“I think ecotourism is an activity that helps us to learn how to look after the Siam Tulip field and keep our homes clean because without these, the tourists won’t come back”.

(FC/5, local residents, Phase 2)

From FC/3 and FC/5, we see that both focus groups in phases 1 and 2 constructed ecotourism in a different way from other forms of tourism because ecotourism has helped people to consider protecting and preserving their natural surroundings. Moreover, ecotourism also brings both advantages and disadvantages to the areas — i.e. if people run ecotourism-related-activities, or those living in the vicinity of such the areas do not pay attention to the areas after the tourists leave, the areas hosting ecotourism would have a significant problem with waste. But, according to FC/5, ecotourism has also brought benefits to the local areas as well — i.e. the local residents noticed that ecotourism has kept their community cleaner than before. Walter, Regmi and Khanal (2018) also report that the Nepalese residents have noticed the changes in local residents’ behaviours on cleanliness, in terms of both their houses and their communities, as well as their health, thanks to the ecotourism programme. Furthermore, responsibility also falls not only to local residents but also to the tourists, to care for the damage that they may cause through their activities and

presence. In the case of Thailand, local tourists appeared to care less about the problems that they could cause within the case-study settings than international tourists did. GA4 (in phase 1), GA16 (in phase 2) and GA22 (in phase 3) mentioned:

“Thai tourists are the ones that we need to consider as they cause more problems to the tourist destinations more than the international tourists because they are more likely to leave their rubbish onsite. If a sign says, ‘Do not touch’, some Thai people will go and touch it whilst most international tourists will generally stay away. I think that’s why some communities prefer international tourists to stay longer in their areas more than Thai tourists because they believe that international tourists are not going to create the problems for them”.

(GA4, local governmental officer, phase 1)

This view of the Thai tourists was further reinforced by GA16:

“For me, as with my colleagues, who worked here for a long time, I would say the majority of Thai tourists’ behaviours are worse than the international tourists in terms of waste management. We are the one who need to clean their waste up after they have left. We attempted to advertise where to throw the rubbish if the bins are too far away to walk and find, they just left them there or hide their waste under the track trail or inside the hole within the rocks”.

(GA16, national governmental officer, phase 2)

“I don’t want to say this, but I went up to check the number of tourists, guess what! I could not believe what I saw, the Thai tourists probably think I was a tourist like them. They decided to climb off the track trail and pick the Siam Tulip flowers. It was too far away for me to chase and tell them off. In fact, I was surprised! The people who told them off were the groups of Young Foreigners and Thai tourists. For me, I do believe that young and educated people are more concerned about the environment and areas more than those older and uneducated ones”.

(GA22, national government officer, phase 3)

These discussions illustrate how other stakeholders view Thai and international tourists within the study location. Thus, they show that some Thai tourists seemingly pay little attention to how to conserve and preserve the environment. Sen and Walter (2020, p. 331) also report similar behaviours with Cambodian and international tourists regarding rubbish, noting that “foreign guests don’t throw trash all over the place. Khmer guests are different. Some keep their trash properly. Others don’t. The hosts take care of that”. Moreover, the interviewees mentioned above also discussed the issue that the ecotourism definition should not only involve activities within the natural areas but, at the same time, focus on how to both preserve and conserve the environment and its surroundings. Figgis mentions that “while tourists travel and enjoy their time in the natural areas, they also need to ensure that they do not destroy the environment in those places” (Figgis, 1999, p. 98). Moreover, Orams (1995) also mentions that ecotourism is a type of tourism which actively minimises the human impacts on the environment and should not cause negative situations in ecotourism sites. Furthermore, GA22 also determined that age and education could become factors in influencing the management of ecotourism sites. Okello (2004) also supports this

point, mentioning that educated people had more knowledge and supported ecotourism more than those with lower educational attainment.

In another interview, the member of nongovernmental agencies (in phase 1) and the GA18 (in phase 2) also raised the issue concerning what a definition of ecotourism should include:

“Ecotourism should not only focus on the wild plants, but it also needs to look at the animals those live inside the natural areas, too”.

(NGA, nongovernmental agency, phase 1)

“I don’t agree with the definition of ecotourism that mainly focuses on the natural resources alone, especially in terms of flora. I think they should include the endangered species and indigenous people in there, so the tourists also learn about the local communities”.

(GA18, local governmental agency, phase 2)

These discussions illustrate how people adopting the definition of ecotourism do so in a way that fits in with their own aims and objectives within the case-study locations. With this in mind, a more nuanced definition will ultimately help tourists and local communities in the areas have the mind-set that ecotourism involves more than just a great emphasis on natural environment, such as plants or rocks.

Ecotourism is generally held to include a large number of activities that involve interaction with fauna, such as bird watching or whale watching. The local government officers (GA1 in phase 1 and GA20 in phase 2) pointed out the importance of these activities in relation to the understanding of the ecotourism definition by local communities:

“Now it is really hard to see the animals such as birds or other wildlife around the National Parks and waterfall, because the tourists have made loud noises and these practices have scared the animals, so they now have to move far away from the tourist areas. For example, in the early stage the local communities provided the boats without engines instead of motorboats to take tourists around the river to see the animals, but as the number of tourists has increased, the traditional boats could not meet the demand. Thus, they have decided to use the machine boats as they are faster and have a large capacity to carry people around. I would say that before we could see the animals when rowing boats were employed, but since they decided to use these (machine boats), we hardly see the wildlife. Moreover, this has led to noise pollution, water pollution and congestion within the areas, however, we (the regional and local officers) have tried to make the local residents realise that tourists come here to see the traditional ways of living. Moreover, if we want the tourists to bring economic benefits to local communities, we need to protect and sustain environmental resources such as flora and fauna at the same time”.

(GA1, local government officer, phase 1)

GA1 notes that the local residents could not only focus on providing the ecotourism activities to the ecotourists; they also must realise that sustaining the natural areas, as well as culture, is important, too. In fact, this respondent suggests that the latter is vital to the former—there is a potential symbiosis between the development aims of the industry and the conservation of nature and culture. This is an ideal set out originally by Budowski (1976) in his seminal paper, but one that is apparently difficult to reach.

The local government officer below acknowledged the cultural differences between local residents and their understanding of the wants and desires of visiting tourists:

“I do understand that the local residents think differently about things compared to the tourists, they think the tourists mainly come from the cities. So, to bring them to come back and spend the money in the community, they probably prefer to hear loud music and karaoke, but, in fact, they don't. They prefer to listen to the natural sounds and see how the local people live. I have managed to talk and inform the homestay owners and resorts about this misinterpretation between the local residents and the tourists”.

(GA20, local government officer, phase 2)

These interviews illustrate the notion that most local residents only pay attention to how they can get tourists to come and help them to improve the local economy within the residential areas. More than one-third of the academic literature (see **Appendix 11**) supports this element of the definition of ecotourism (the economics). Similar findings have been found in Cambodia. Since ecotourism has become influential there, the local residents have noticed that the number of tourists fluctuated when the number of motorboats increased because the noise from the motorboats has disturbed the local residents' daily lives and the tourists themselves (Kry *et al.*, 2020). However, they could not do anything because the motorboats have helped the local residents increase their household incomes as their husbands and sons are the boat drivers. This also indicates the dominance of more patriarchal gender relations in rural communities and the notion of differing voices heard in general debates surrounding tourism development (Kry *et al.*, 2020).

However, the local government officer (GA1, phase 1) and the national government officer (GA10, phase 1) outline why economy should be considered a secondary factor in the meaning of ecotourism:

“People only consider ecotourism as a way to improve the economic situation for the local residents. However, they have forgotten that the definition of ecotourism also focuses on sustaining the nature primarily for economic reasons. Sustaining nature comes second or third in terms of the economics within the definition”.

(GA1, local government officer, phase 1
and GA10, national government officer, phase 1)

GA1 (in phase 1) and GA10 (in phase 1) — each of whom is considered an ‘expert’ in tourism in Thailand — illustrated the view of Thai locals, in terms of concern about how they can make more income, especially in that they justify having established ecotourism as a programme that will help them boost the economy of each province location. Moreover, GA1 and GA10 also illustrated that all stakeholders understanding ecotourism and its various meanings and usages will ultimately help inform the introduction of ecotourism management practices. In addition, this would help foster strong relationships between local residents and tourists and encourage the interaction of those stakeholders with an interest in the environment more widely (see **Chapter 8**).

6.2.1.2 Connectivity Between Environment and People, Economics and Social Issues

The previous section considers how the stakeholders construct ecotourism and its definition, in particular regarding how humans interact within nature and social and economic

aspects. The development of ecotourism within flora and wildlife settings has become important, in terms of both domestic and international tourists. The increasing number of ecotourists travelling within such areas illustrates this.

Amongst the interviews, focus groups, open-ended questionnaires and diaries, the majority of participants confirmed that ecotourism brings both environmental and social problems to rural communities. Therefore, to be able to successfully introduce ecotourism within the Thai rural areas, we must first establish what ecotourism really does mean to these communities, as opposed to only focusing on the economic benefits within the residential areas.

Notably, ecotourism, tourism and conservation not only spread the problems to local communities but rather, according to researchers (e.g. Budowski, 1976), we see that ecotourism can also become symbiotic, giving advantageous benefits to both nature and local residents in a mutually reinforcing way. Some success stories show ecotourism development through practices developed in the developing countries, such as the Philippines (Alampay, 2005), Bhutan (Rinzin, Vermeulen and Glasbergen, 2007; Montes and Kafley, 2019), Malaysia (Salman *et al.*, 2021), South Africa (Gallagher and Hammerschlag, 2011), Costa Rica (Hunt *et al.*, 2015), Vietnam (Tran and Walter, 2014) and Cambodia (Walter and Sen, 2018; Kry *et al.*, 2020).

The following comment from domestic tourists mentions many benefits that communities could gain by adopting ecotourism. However, the domestic tourists often appear unconcerned about the environment after they have visited tourism destinations:

“It was a real pity! I really like this place and would like to come and visit the Siam Tulip Fields again. However, there are two more issues that concern me, waste management and noise pollution. I come here with the family for leisure

and relaxation. However, since I arrived here, I could not sleep and the bins are not enough for us to put the waste in. This was really a shame, as I may not come back again unless they do something about the problems first”.

(DT3/3, Domestic tourist, research diary, phase 3)

“For me, my friends and I decided to come here to the Siam Tulip field because we would like to be with nature and far away from our daily routines. However, before we arrived here, we had experienced the bad traffic. In addition, when we arrived here, we experienced overcrowding in the track trail. We felt trapped and couldn’t even move. In fact, we were close to humans rather than nature. Moreover, where we stayed was extremely noisy and dirty. We all really upset and disappointed. We also agreed that this was the worst experience for us to come to this place rather than in the South of Thailand. We won’t come back again!”

(DT6/2, Domestic tourist, research diary, phase 2)

These experiences exemplify the strong views of the domestic tourists with experiences in the Siam Tulip Fields, concerning environmental degradation. Similar comments about such feelings and sentiments also appear in the studies by other scholars (see Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005; Ng *et al.*, 2017; Kry *et al.*, 2020). However, the tourists have been attracted to these rural areas, so the negative feelings from their experiences could ultimately lead to declining visitor numbers. The tourists mention that the local communities, as well as people who look after the park, first need to work together in order to create a plan for how to manage and preserve localities more effectively.

Similarly, the international tourists mentioned the problems related to the relationship between local residents, tourists and the environment. Both types of tourist agreed that they are not impressed with how the local communities and the national park officers manage waste. Similarly, this issue also occurred in the South of Thailand from both kinds of tourists; they even noted further that “the staff within the ecotourism areas lacked ecotourism knowledge and communication skills” (Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, 2019, p. 55).

“I do not understand why there is a large amount of rubbish on the way to the Siam Tulip field as well as inside the park, why don't the local communities and park officers do something about that? I am also not too sure that what they try to do here is called ecotourism, I only feel that they try to say we sustain this and that on the poster, but the real truth, I do not feel that this does help anyone to become an ecotourist at all. It's only looking at the end point but not the first stage of how to educate people on how to sustain everything”.

(IT3/1, International tourist, open-ended questionnaire, phase 1)

Another international tourist, who thinks that basic waste management should be a given in any site marketed as being ‘ecotourism’, further emphasised the point regarding rubbish.

“I was really surprised to see how much rubbish was in this field alone. I tried to show the rangers and the local residents that the bins are extremely full. They need to do something about it. I understood they were busy; to keep explaining about how the tourists could become ecotourists to the Thai people, who were not interested at all. I would rather say if they couldn't manage their

waste disposal properly, how could they teach others about ecotourism and how to sustain their communities!?”.

(IT2/3, international tourist, open-ended questionnaire, phase 3)

The comments illustrated the notion that the local communities and park officers are trying to promote the Siam Tulip Fields as one of the key ecotourism destinations in the Northeast of Thailand. However, they both merely focus on how to impress the tourists by improving facilities within the park and surrounding areas, as well as how to promote this place as a sustainable area. There is an assumption that people who come here will go and read all the information at the information office. Thai tourists often require different stimulation than relying on reading alone. Literacy is not always a given; best practice from around the globe could be beneficial to understanding societal resistance to good practice in Thailand.

With this in mind, it is clear that there are not only parks or animals we must conserve and preserve, but the facilities outside the park also must be maintained. Similarly, Ashraf and Sibi (2020) also report that in Thenmala, their ecotourism government officers only paid attention to promoting the place as an ecotourism destination. Unfortunately, the tourists preferred to not spend a long time there because the facilities within the surrounding areas were poor, i.e. low streetlights and unacceptable accommodation. Therefore, an understanding of how to conserve and preserve the areas by providing education and discussing environmental ethics with local residents as well as tourists is important. Wight (1993) suggests that it is essential to provide the knowledge to the tourists when they join the ecotourism programme because conservational education can help to increase natural awareness (Tisdell and Wilson, 2002). Moreover, Eshun and Tonto (2014) also note that

increasing the educational awareness of environment, culture and history could help the residents to conserve their community.

Some ecotourists highlighted that they did not understand information boards, as the National Park does not provide English translations. Moreover, there is also a language barrier between the international tourists and local residents, the reason the international tourists often prefer to drive back to stay in the main town rather than the rural areas. Black and King (2002) suggest that improving their English would help to boost the local residents' confidence when communicating with the foreigners and encourage tourists to stay locally with attendant benefits to the local economy. In Cambodia, the local residents in ecotourism destinations were encouraged to attend workshops to learn and improve their English skills, so they could communicate with the foreign tourists. As a result, they noticed an increasing number of international tourists within the areas (Kry *et al.*, 2020). Although Thailand has been exposed to 'mass tourism' to a significant extent since the 1980s, the English proficiency of the population is deemed a weak point in the Thai economy (Noom-Ura, 2013).

Moreover, ecotourists and tourists are quite sensitive to human waste disposal and damage to the Siam Tulip Field. So, if it is unclean and contaminated, the number of tourists could fall dramatically (see example Wilson and Moore, 2018). Local residents and officers are the ones who must pay attention to how to manage a large quantity of rubbish around the sites. Furthermore, this question then ultimately leads to responsibility for sustaining the Siam Tulip Field. The following interview demonstrates how uninformed ecotourists can create problems within interesting places:

“When the Siam Tulip festival finished, we were the only group that collected the rubbish; however, we could not afford to buy the machine to destroy the

rubbish. This is because it is expensive. So that is why we need to burn or dump it in the landfill instead. We really hope that all the tourists will have more concern about what they throw away in the future, so that they help us to sustain the National Park at the same time”.

(GA9, national government officer, phase 1)

“We, as governors and residents in this community, also help the national park officers to collect the waste from the tourists. We understand that we couldn’t let the officers do it alone. Now, as we have the waste disposal machines, it is easier for us all to maintain the waste for this seasonal period. We have tried to ask tourists to separate different kind of waste but, from what we could see, it didn’t work. We have to ask for the volunteers to help separate the waste. The youngsters are keener to do this rather than the older generations”.

(FC6/3, local government officer and local residents, phase 3)

Through these discussions from FC6/3, we can see that education and ethics should be taught to the other stakeholders and tourists; this would potentially allow them to contribute to the ecotourism programme becoming more sustainable. Walter, Regmi and Khanal illustrate that in the case of Nepal:

“At the beginning, we learned about waste disposal by attending a training session provided by the ACAP. But gradually, we learned it by ourselves.

Sometimes, when our children saw some foreign tourists disposing of waste material only in designated places, they started to feel self-conscious about waste disposal. For example, they learned to put banana peels in the garbage

bin by observing the activities of tourists. Some tourists are environmentally conscious”.

(Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018, p.53)

Most of the literature indicates that it is not enough to merely sustain the natural resources; rather, we must provide stakeholders with a basic understanding of how to sustain the environment, as well as information on how to travel without destroying the landscapes, flora and fauna (Alampay, 2005; Reimer and Walter, 2013; Kry *et al.*, 2020).

Evidently, ecotourism is limited to natural areas as attractions, but must pay attention to other aspects, such as economic and cultural (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987; Ziffer, 1989; Weaver, 2001; Honey, 2008; Zhang and Lei, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Ionel, 2019; Karmini, 2020). Next, the chapter moves to the economic perceptions of ecotourism.

6.2.2 *Economy in the Construction of ecotourism*

This section argues that the definition of ecotourism covers not only one element, ‘nature’, but actually includes other aspects, including economics. While tourists travel around the aforementioned tourist destinations, some not only try to understand and help to conserve and preserve the geographical areas but, at the same time, they also financially contribute and provide economic benefits to the local communities (Ross and Wall, 1999b; Troëng and Drews, 2004; Almeyda *et al.*, 2010; Tran and Walter, 2014; Toko, 2018; Kry *et al.*, 2020; Sen and Walter, 2020). Following on these tourist behaviours, some ecotourism definitions also include economic aspects within their core definitions, especially paying attention to how the benefits filter to those residents who live within the communities (Boo, 1991; Wallace and Pierce, 1996; UNWTO/UNEP, 2002; Zhang and Lei, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Ionel, 2019). Thus, economic concerns and ecotourism could ultimately combine. A

definition of ecotourism cannot leave one or the other behind; if there were only a focus on the economics, then ecotourism would become more like any other form of mass tourism and lose its distinctiveness. If ecotourism only focuses on preservation, then those places would ultimately end up as abandoned areas, as local residents and other tourism stakeholders would not be able to support themselves alone, needing state support from the government authorities. Undoubtedly, some national parks would have to close, due in such a scenario to few or no domestic and international tourists arriving each year. Alongside ecotourism's environmental claims, economic viability for rural populations is key.

Key Ecotourism characteristics	Academic Literature (N=80)	Thai participants (Authorities and Residents) (N=38)	Thai tourists participants (N=279)	International tourist participants (N =223)
Economics	38% (30/80)	34% (13/38)	82% (228/279)	75% (168/223)

Table 6.2: Analysis of Ecotourism's Characteristics Through Different Actors: Economics

Table 6.2 displays the words tourism actors have constructed and seen within the definition of ecotourism. After running the analysis in consideration of different actors, the great emphasis on economics is the second significant characteristic illustrated, acknowledged as forming a key part of an ecotourism definition. For example, the Thai tourist participants believe that economics is the most significant factor needing inclusion in the definition of ecotourism because, within all four tables, they account for the highest percentage. Again, we must consider the different development trajectory of Thailand (a

developing country) compared to the developed countries, from which much of the tourism literature emanates. In this research, Thai tourists appear to be more focused on the economic elements of tourism.

In contrast to the above findings, Thai authorities and residents (34%) paid attention to a great emphasis on economics as the least important characteristic for inclusion within the definition of ecotourism; the percentage is the lowest in all four tables, in terms of the characteristics of the definition. In this thesis, the intention is to demonstrate the most prevalent perceptions of the ecotourism definition by Thai stakeholders, rather than focus on ranking them on importance and interrelation within the ecotourism definition. Their knowledge of their own community could explain this, along with their experience of ecotourism via their lived experiences and the recognition that nature is not divorced from economic returns. However, the main overall trend within Table 6.2 supports the idea that ecotourism should provide benefits to the host countries, as well as to local residents, in addition to the tourists travelling around interesting places within those areas.

The following interview with the local government officer in Ban Khwao—who is considered one of the ‘experts’ in the district—and both domestic and international tourists on their open-ended questionnaires showed the relationship between economics and ecotourism:

“Since tourism has been popular within the locality, the local residents, especially those seniors and youngsters, are the ones who get more involved with the tourism activities because they see the potential of what they produce every day that could become products to sell to the tourists. Moreover, it encourages youngsters to stay within their hometown, instead of seeking jobs somewhere else. I could see economics and ecotourism cannot be separated

from each other because it helps the residents to understand why they need to sustain the tourism destinations within their own areas as well as, as assisting them to take more responsibility towards tourism development within their communities.

For example, the residents started to look after the heritage, cultural and natural sites more than before through organised activities that influenced local populations to think about caring and maintaining their tourism areas, via planting Siam Tulips, celebrating the cultural festival—e.g. Praya Lae festival during January (celebrate the town)—and bringing back the old sculptures that were taken from heritage sites and placing them back in their original locations”.

(GA7, local government officer, phase 1)

“I believe an ecotourism definition should benefit not only the national parks but it also should improve the quality of lives of the local residents (e.g. monthly incomes)”.

(IT5/3, International tourist, open-ended questionnaire, phase 3)

“For me, ecotourism is a sustained way to help maintain and preserve the nature and culture. While, at the same time, it increases the residents’ incomes while they are involved within ecotourism programme”.

(DT7/2, International tourist, open-ended questionnaire, phase 2)

According to this data from the interviews and open-ended questionnaires above, ecotourism has helped increase the number of rural residents staying in their hometown rather

than fighting to migrate from rural areas to urban areas to seek jobs (rural flight). Interestingly, as mentioned in **Chapter 2**, rural migrants determine to stay in urban areas for a certain period of time, due to the increasing cost of living and improving the quality of family living lifestyles (see more Rigg, 2007; Tong, Yan and Kawachi, 2019). However, as the quote above and the work of Canoves *et al.* (2004), Neth (2008), Chen *et al.* (2020) and Zhang (2021) show, changing patterns in Chinese residential preferences also link to their hometown identities.

Unfortunately, this new trend of rural life satisfaction to stay in the rural areas is limited; there is a realisation that if income cannot be generated around the rural areas, then motivating communities to look to ecotourism for their living can be challenging:

“In our focus groups, everyone here agreed that ecotourism should definitely include economics within the ecotourism definition. We understand that the government authorities want us to not mainly focus on the economics while we employed ecotourism in our areas; however, we don’t agree. If the income from ecotourism is less than our main income, how could we motivate our friends and families to get involved?”

(Similar thoughts from FC1/1, FC4/2 and FC6/3, local residents, phases 1–3)

These focus groups from phases one to three illustrate that the definition of ecotourism should include economics as part of its core characteristics; it helps encourage the local residents in terms of protecting and understanding what they need to do to sustain ecotourism destinations. This is important, too, as residents have considered natural ecotourism attractions not part of their communities as such and saw stewardship as solely the role of government. It is the case that these tourist areas belong to the Fine Art

Department (heritage sites) or Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (National Parks).

However FC1/1, FC4/2 and FC6/3 pointed out that for the residents within the communities, seeing how tourism could benefit them has ultimately changed how they react to the tourism destinations. For example, they start becoming more involved in producing or creating activities or in developing areas to attract those tourism stakeholders, as well as maintaining and sustaining areas in order to make tourists aware of what they can and cannot do within the tourist destinations. Similarly, Cambodia's ecotourism definition also focuses on economics because many residents in the tourist areas are willing to improve their skills as well as become part of park patrols, where they can earn more income than cutting the trees, hunting and producing charcoal (Toko, 2018). This is akin to Budowski's 'symbiosis' between ecotourism and nature, or between economy and environment (Budowski, 1976).

However, through the practices stated above, the residents have sometimes been developing tourist destinations more than they should. In an interview with the national government officer, GA12 (phase 1) and GA24 (phase 3) mentioned:

“Since ecotourism was introduced within the areas, the residents and the local/provincial officers have tried to operate the facilities for the tourists and other stakeholders, such as roads (organised by Department of Highways), electricity (organised by Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand), water (organised by Thai Waterworks Authority), toilets (created by National Parks or local/provincial authorities) and hotels or resorts, to make sure that tourists have been best served. However, while these facilities have been operating, the residents and officers have forgotten that all of these are alien to the natural/cultural/heritage areas. For example, they have built the roads or hotels

too close to the tourism destinations or sometimes made them too high, which blocked the other scenery surrounding the areas, or sometimes they have tried to maintain the areas too much by using the materials which look similar to the old material to build up the new attractions, which may not have been in keeping with the areas to attract tourists”.

(GA12, national government officer, phase 1)

“In my opinion, to build something big and grand in ecotourism areas is not necessary. But I need to listen to the local residents’ voices. If they want them, what could I say! I understand the reasons behind this, because the residents would like to attract more tourists to visit their sites. So they could earn more household income. Sometimes, they erect statues from popular Marvel movies that look “out of place” as they do not belong to the geographical area, or the colour they use to paint has the wrong contrast and is too bright compared to the surrounding landscape. I would not be surprised if some tourists would mention something about it. I haven’t heard any complaints yet!”.

(GA24, local government officer, phase 3)

The interviewees questioned the approach for rural areas, whereby numerous facilities for the tourists—such as hotels, roads and toilets—have been developed. This could sometimes be viewed as a negative approach within the tourism development plans of each province (see more details in **Chapter 7**). Officers and residents may not be quite clear with respect to the rationale for why facilities are built, as well as how many facilities should be built to meet the needs of local people. Much money ended up being invested in facilities that were ultimately not necessary. Often, assessments were not conducted prior to the

construction of the facilities. This is also the result of a lack of planning regulations that developing countries must follow to blend existing developments with the existing historical buildings and settings. Stone (2015) even notes that creating sustainable ecotourism requires all kinds of ecotourism stakeholders to improve their cooperation and decision-making participation via ecotourism planning and management. Preservation areas/districts/zones that protect the built heritage and physical environment in historically significant locations, a feature of developed countries, are not present to the same extent in remoter tourist spots within Thailand.

In the same way, the interviews with national government officers, e.g. GA10 (phase 1), and local government officers (GA26, phase 3) clarified how GA10 and GA26 (phase 3) construct the tourism-related facilities as a negative impact on the tourist destinations. In GA10's own words:

“I personally do not agree with how the local authorities and residents agree to spend money on seeking the new tourism destinations and building the cultural landscape board (a signage board that describes the details of how areas such as natural areas have been changed with or without human interventions) especially without any management plan before doing it. Investigating the new sites and promoting them as tourism destinations without any concern about areas and their cultures being lost is such a pity. The locals see ecotourism as an opportunity to gain more capital instead of the various methods to sustain the natural/cultural/heritage areas. Sometimes these signboards act as a commercial advertising board and many cultural landscape boards are sponsored by Thai mobile phone companies instead of the

displaying information about local cultural heritage”.

(GA10, national government officer, phase 1)

“I don’t like the big statue in front of this site. It is too big, wasting money and not related to this place. It is too new and ugly. I understand that the local people want the tourists to see from far away, so they can come in. We used significant parts of our budgets for this. Anyway, before we could use this budget, I asked everyone to vote as well as reconsider what do we want in front of this place. So, they all agreed to build this statue. I personally think it is too boring. Now, as you can see, every time when the tourists visit us, they always mention that when are we going to knock it down? Because it does not look safe, and they could not see why it should be here in the first place!”

(GA26, local government office, phase 3)

These interviews clearly illustrated the specific problems. First, the local communities and local authorities have neglected to organise or plan what they had to do before trying to promote and seek new tourism destinations to develop. For example, within Siam Tulip National Park, large numbers of tourists have arrived and the residents have started to worry about many issues, such as how they could cope with the large amount of rubbish, stop tourists driving up hills and the locals help to sustain their localities (see more details in **Chapter 7**).

Second, tensions arise amongst national authorities, local residents and local authorisers, who believe ecotourism encompasses different things. One group believes that ecotourism is a tool that helps them achieve benefits in their local community, while another group believes that ecotourism has increased the problems within tourism sites, since

ecotourism arrived and made economics more important. Stakeholders attempting to explain the reasons behind what they do and communicate with each other would reduce these tensions.

Third, populations and the government sectors have become concerned about the distribution of money. They question whether it has gone to those established or new tourism areas, or to someone else or sectors that have pocketed investments. Potential corruption has now become one major issue of ecotourism. Mowforth and Munt (2015) state that even though ecotourism is an essential economic tool for the developing countries, corruption involving allocated funding is a significant issue. Some developing countries have received less than 10% of the total income/budget promised, for example, the Bahamas and Nepal (UNWTO, 2019).

This leakage of income further enhances the need to consider the ‘economics’ of ecotourism. In addition, a member of nongovernmental agencies points out:

“I do believe that ecotourism can be viewed in a two-sided way, one definition is hoping to help the population to sustain and maintain what we have got, the other is only trying to say that people are already moving from mass tourism into something like green tourism. So in this case, I think to be able to add ecotourism and economics together, all the stakeholders such as government authorities, nongovernmental organisations and local communities need to understand their roles and responsibilities to an ecotourism programme, then it would reduce everyone’s concern about the corruption, distrust and other ongoing problems within the tourism destinations”.

(NGA, nongovernmental agency, phase 1)

The NGA illustrated that economic characteristics and ecotourism could co-exist with each other and be mutually beneficial. For example, if there is no money for the National Park, its officers and staff could not maintain and sustain their sites, due to a lack of funding from the government authorities. Moreover, if there is no money for local communities to put towards learning from other tourism areas how to sustain the tourism destinations, they could not understand why they must sustain and maintain their own tourism destinations. Consequently, this showed that every type of ecotourism stakeholder is important. If one group is not being supportive, it ultimately affects another group of stakeholders. In addition, Butcher (2011) and Cobbinah *et al.* (2017) point out that ecotourism has not only become recognised as an economic development tool for the developing countries; it also brought ‘harmony’ between people and nature (see Lee, Lawton and Weaver, 2013). Anyaoku and Martin (2003) suggest that fostering local harmony in areas hosting ecotourism should not only focus on sharing the benefits with every household equally but also creating good working relationships between the local residents and ecotourism stakeholders. This will positively influence economic returns for multiple stakeholders.

This could occur differently by talking and understanding different stakeholders and what each stakeholder needs. Subsequently, all stakeholders could see that each group is working hard to reach the goal of practising ecotourism successfully and attempting to avoid the issue of corruption and misinterpretation between the stakeholders. These aspects would help to establish credibility, create trust, understand different positions and reduce corruption because each stakeholder will know what each must do and be responsible for. Furthermore, it would be easier for them to see who has received money and where the money has gone and, at the same time, allow them to help each other to sustain and maintain the tourism areas within their communities. The next section moves to the role of *culture* in perceptions of ecotourism.

6.2.3 *Culture in Construction of Ecotourism*

The ecotourism literature mainly focuses on nature; however, some academics (e.g. Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987; Lawrence *et al.*, 1997; WTO-UNEP, 2002; Tran and Walter, 2014; Ionel, 2019) also emphasise *culture* within the definition of ecotourism, especially within the rural areas. Robinson and Boniface (1999, p. 14) also support the idea that culture and nature are interwoven, stating that ‘the environment intrusions from the tourism industry are a cultural intrusion’, relating environment and culture rather than maintaining separate entities (see more Walsh and Yun, 2016; Wei *et al.*, 2020; Zhang, Wang and Brown, 2021). This also aligns with the notion of *biocultural* diversity, pioneered by the WWF, themselves pioneers of ecotourism as a means to combine economic development with conservation (see Maffi and Woodley, 2010; Gould, 2016 for an account of this). In fact, ecotourism in the developing countries cannot only sustain nature within the definitional remit; it must also encompass both humans and their respective activities and other related encounters within unique rural areas. Bjork (2000, pp. 196-197) further mention that ecotourism is an activity where the authorities, the tourism industry, tourists and local people cooperate to enable tourists to travel to genuine areas, to admire, study and enjoy nature and culture in a way that does not exploit the resource but contributes to sustainable development.

Table 6.3 summarises the different actors’ emphases in their view and perception of ecotourism. The figure for the Thai academics is surprisingly small at 28%. Elsewhere, it is higher within the Thai focus groups and interviews (61%) and among the international tourists (54%). Moreover, Thai tourists (52%) also consider culture important in ecotourism.

Key Ecotourism characteristics	Academic Literature (N=80)	Thai participants (Authorities and Residents) (N=38)	Thai tourist participants (N=279)	International tourist participants (N =223)
Culture	28% (22/80)	61% (23/38)	52% (144/279)	54% (121/223)

Table 6.3: Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Culture

The figures for Thai authorities and residents (61%), international tourists (54%), and Thai tourists (52%) indicate that cultural aspects require more attention whilst developing the ecotourism market. The academic literature only lists culture in a quarter of the sample (28%).

GA12 (phase 1), who is considered as an ‘expert’ in cultural issues, discussed how nature and culture relate to each other:

“In Thailand, the geography of ecotourism is different from geography of ecotourism in other places because here, we have used and integrated all the natural resources through from living things to cultures. For example, we have used natural resources to build houses as well as used it as part of the ceremony within the community. So, for me, ecotourism should mean tourism that includes nature, culture, heritage and archaeology within that particular area”.

(GA12, national government officer, phase 1)

The quotation illustrates that culture and nature cannot be easily separated within a developing country like Thailand. People are living and using natural resources as part of their everyday lifestyles, in a way less evident in more modern industrial countries and regions. Cultural aspects (i.e. customs, wisdoms, traditions) are not ‘lifestyles’ in the western sense; nevertheless, they were created with the environment in mind (Uzzell, 1989; Tran and Walter, 2014; Pathmasiri and Bandara, 2019; Cabral and Dhar, 2020). As Weaver (2005, p. 441) notes, “the inclusion of a cultural component (in ecotourism) is a logical qualification to the ‘nature-based’ focus, given that few if any places are completely free from human influences”. So, ecotourism can act as a programme that ultimately focuses on nature ecotourists learning about culture and the relationship between each, through time and across space (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2009; Ionel, 2019).

The academic definitions of ecotourism lean towards nature (Gallagher and Hammerschlag, 2011; Fennell, 2014; Arismayanti and Mananda, 2016) and the benefits for the local communities that host ecotourism (Place, 1995; Cock and Pfueller, 2000; Honey, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2014; TIES, 2022), whilst other scholars and practitioners have focused a lens on various cultures (Scace, Grifone and Usher, 1992; Reimer and Walter, 2013; Sen and Walter, 2020). Following this, concerns from some ecotourism stakeholders arise over the neglect of cultural considerations. For example, in Thailand, the tourism operator staff (TO1, phase 1) — the focus group members (FC2/1) — acknowledge through the talks that it is important to know that the local community could lose culturally if no one shows an interest:

“When we see something old such as culture that is passed on to the next generation, we often forget to sustain it as we thought this culture is not going to lost, however, it could. I think this is happening the same way with the

environment, too”.

(TO1, Tourism operators, phase 1)

“In the past, we used to apply dance culture activities in the areas, however, since the older generations died, the knowledge has been lost. I heard some tourism people have tried to ask some older generations from some other locations to help them. So, they can adapt and use it to show the tourists”.

(FC4/2, local residents, phase 2)

“I see ecotourism as a process that helps to sustain the old culture which also like to the nature within the local areas. I used to visit this place a long time ago but at that time, the local residents did not have any cultural shows about the areas. But guess what! this time, I am really impressed to see how the ethnic groups demonstrate their ways of living, their culture and how they live with nature. I think if we don’t include this in the ecotourism programme. Then, I believe in the future, this ethnic group and their culture would be lost”.

(DT1/3, Domestic tourist, research diary, phase 3)

TO1 (phase 1), FC4/2 (phase 2) and DT1/3 (phase 3) questioned whether tourists — those travelling into cultural areas — only prefer to see the new cultures, or is it true that the tourists who live within similar communities/countries do not pay attention to the historic places, as they are local to the area and familiar with the existing cultures. Unfortunately, this is not the case; the local residents/governments probably only assume that these existing cultures or similar festivals are not going to attract those tourists. In fact, these similar

cultures can make a tourism experience unique, in communities often unaware that their culture and way of life could be something they can use to make a living.

In a similar vein, Walter, Regmi and Khanal illustrate that in Nepal, the local residents have faced the same situation as Chaiyaphum province, Thailand. However, they already realise:

“Our culture, our customs, our arts and artefacts were almost lost [...]. When guests started asking about our Gurung culture and about our arts we started to remember and revitalize something that was forgotten and lost. We have to preserve the cultural practices that keep our identity alive . . . we learned that rather than looking for new food items, we should provide our traditional food items; rather than building new attractions, we can use our hills, mountains, rivers, forests and lakes as attractions for our guests”.

(Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018, p. 54)

With this aside, TA1 (phase 1), FC4/2 (phase 2) and DT1/3 (phase 3) point out that Thai people should ultimately pay more attention to the relationship between the historic places, festivals and nature and encourage the involvement of the tourist communities. Interestingly, Mahapatra, Pandey and Pradhan (2012) say it is not a surprise to learn that the local people decided to invent the new cultures to attract the tourists (MacCannell’s ‘staged authenticity’), similar to what FC4/2 (phase 2) mentioned above, e.g. the new music, dancing pace, food (Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018).

Similarly, FC5/2 (phase 2) found that:

“When we go and ask young Chaiyaphum citizens about the old cultures, you will be surprised as they do not know anything at all, for example, we used to have a boat racing festival, but it has disappeared now as the environment is not suitable for us today. We only hope that this would not vanish with us when we are gone”.

(FC5/2, local residents, phase 2)

This interview illustrated that different levels of relationship exist within the communities. In particular, it indicated that the interaction between old and young people is an important factor in the development of future culture and festivals. Jaafar, Rasoolmanesh and Ismail (2017) reveal that both age and gender significantly impact the relationships and the perceptions of the residents within the communities. The women and older residents seem to have stronger relationships with culture and nature overall than the younger people. Bringing disparate age groups together would appear to be crucial to the preservation of local culture.

However, the relationship amongst seniors and youngsters varies, not only within Chaiyaphum province but also in other places in Thailand. Normally, for those newcomers who join the tour companies, it can be quite interesting, as they only provide the tour programme in the natural areas as people who run the company, and those who join the tours are youngsters, interested more in adventure or relaxation activities.

However, culture and nature entwine in Thailand. In an interview, TA3 mentioned:

“Tourists (especially from developed countries) that come to Thailand, only prefer to live closer to local tribes and go to visit somewhere which make them feel close to the natural landscapes. However, to live close to the cultural

communities, they prefer to not go and stay with them. They prefer to stay inside the luxury hotels or resorts, those close to local residents instead. Thus, I know it would not benefit and help them to understand the communities, but we cannot do anything about it as it will affect our companies at the same time”.

(TO3, Tourism operators, phase 1)

This statement showed tourist demands and preferences are a significant aspect that controls tourism within a Thai context. We can see that tourists prefer to come and visit other places for relaxation or to be close to nature. Tourists prefer to go somewhere that relates to nature and close to local residents, but ultimately they choose to stay in a hotel and view them from afar (akin to ‘gazing’). Can we refer to such individuals as ‘ecotourists’? This is ultimately a contradiction of the definition of ecotourism. First, they do not really get to know or learn anything from residents; second, the money they spend may not go directly through the local residents; and third, they sometimes do not respect local culture or local heritage sites within the destinations. Staying in accommodations outside the ecotourism destinations leads to diverting income away from local communities.

However, if the tourists did actively pay attention to cultural sites, these problems could ultimately be avoided. The GA1 (phase 1) stated:

“One interesting fact that Thai people do not learn from travelling is that they are not interested about the information that tour guides provide for them. Whilst being a tour guide, he mentioned that when he takes domestic and international tourists to view cultural or environmental sites, Thai tourists only focused on taking photos rather than trying to understand some information

those they have provided because they believe that they do not come here for education, but they come here for fun”.

(GA1, national government officer, phase 1)

This interviewee argues that to make ecotourism more successful in Thailand, we first must understand tourist needs and the different reasons for visiting. It is a tour guide’s responsibility to make sure that they have provided a good service for customers in each group. For example, for a group that is really interested in ecotourism, a considerable amount of information could be provided. Moreover, this is an example of tour guides in the Chaiyaphum province and how ecotourism has helped to improve the knowledge of young residents about the areas and their cultures. FC6/3 (phase 3) stated:

“In our ecotourism destinations, we have provided young ecotour guides. Their jobs are mainly provided the information of the areas to the tourists both domestic and international tourists. These ecotour guides are our children and they have learnt skills from the school workshops. The teachers have provided them for free. Those children need to do this job must love to do it because they need to dedicate their free time to study and practice. We are really impressed that my children have known about our area and cultures more than me. Every weekend and during the holidays, these young ecotour guides would wear their school uniforms and wait for the tourists to hire them. For us, it is interesting to see when your children come home and tell us about their experiences and how much they earn per day. As we are parents as well as residents in the communities, we do believe that ecotour guides are essential because this has helped our children to learn about the areas and its cultures

and at the same time, the tourists also get chance to learn about our areas before they leave our place”.

(FC6/3, local residents, phase 3)

These quotations illustrate that tour guides are important not only in terms of preserving their historical and cultural knowledge; they are also key to influencing the number of ecotourists who come back to the ecotourism sites. Black and Ham (2005), Black (2007) and Lackey and Pennisi (2020) further suggests that the ecotour guides are also especially important ecotourism stakeholders because they have close contact with ecotourists and local residents and, therefore, can motivate their behaviours, in terms of choices and environmentally friendly activities. Furthermore, Peake, Innes and Dyer (2009) also mention that tour guides must have skills, especially in how to communicate with tourists, as this will undoubtedly create positive outcomes for destinations as well as local communities. For example, tour guides can provide ethical and educational messages on how to be good ecotourists and/or provide explanations and descriptions for what ecotourism really means to the tourists. In Choi's work (2020), the interviewee illustrates that in Korea, before the local residents become tour guides, they must attend training the government provides. In this case, the interviewee had to learn about a tidal flat and its values, and the details of birds within the area. After the interviewee finished the government's training, how much it had opened up a whole new world and how much they cared about their local areas was shocking. In addition, TO2 (phase 1), the famous company that has provided ecotourism trips around Thailand, mentioned:

“I do not believe in the definition as I thought that ecotourism means something different from what is written in the literature. However, in my

opinion, ecotourism is a tourism programme that focuses on the slogan of ‘Leave only footprints¹⁷, and leave less trace movement within the tourist areas”.

(TO2, Tourism operators, phase 1)

This person clearly values the relationship between how people behave and the environment. Thus, TO2 also mentioned that the company further carefully guides the tourists on the slogan ‘Leave no trace’. This is not only about the environmental areas but more broadly concerns any fragile places or activities. The value of enabling tour guides to aim at providing ethical angles on ecotourism was also mentioned, since tourism has caused problems for local residents. For example, the researcher witnessed the international tourists looking around the residents’ houses without permission. Such actions have caused direct problems for the local residents, who have complained that they have lost their own privacy as well as respect. Communities in Indonesia decided to provide the rules for both local residents and tourists to follow, as an approach to avoiding the cultural conflict. Phelan, Ruhanen and Mair found that:

“... foreigners have different culture . . . some people in our community might not be used to it . . . we might have to make special rules when visitors stay in the village . . . we will also use socialisation (community education workshops) to prepare community members in advance so people know what to expect and can get used to it”.

(Phelan, Ruhanen and Mair, 2020, p. 1677)

¹⁷ See Simon and Alagona (2009) in ‘Leave no trace’ programme.

Whilst ecotourism is often represented as a ‘saviour’ to local communities because of its sustainability credentials, several cross-cultural issues can adversely affect the local communities within the boundaries of ecotourism sites. Next, the chapter focuses on the last perception that ecotourism stakeholders construct from the definition of ecotourism.

6.2.4 *Heritage and Archaeological Sites in Construction of Ecotourism*

This section illustrates whether and how ecotourism stakeholders include heritage and archaeology in their ecotourism construction. In this research, heritage concerns a historical place that humans built or created, in accordance with changes to the environment, which includes areas of archaeology (in this research, referring to the places involved with the evolution of the development between human behaviours and nature), historical areas, geology and earth sciences. Most definitions of ecotourism focus mainly on natural sites. However, as **Table 6.4** shows, the Thai authorities and international tourists constructed heritage and archaeology as central to a core definition of ecotourism.

Key characteristics of an ecotourism definition	Academic Literature (N=80)	Thai participants (Authorities and Residents) (N=38)	Thai tourist participants (Questionnaires) (N=279)	International tourist participants (Questionnaires) (N =223)
Heritage	13% (10/80)	53% (20/38)	28% (79/279)	51% (114/223)
Archaeology	3% (2/80)	and 50% (19/38)	38% (105/279)	66% (147/223)

Table 6.4: Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Heritage and Archaeology

This table illustrates the significant differences of opinion on archaeology and heritage. The data here shows what stakeholders have thought about each, respectively, although there appears to be relatively little difference between the two.

Surprisingly, Thai authorities and residents and international tourist have constructed heritage aspects of ecotourism's definition at more than 50% (53% and 51%, respectively). Moreover, in terms of archaeology, international tourists and Thai participants (focus groups and interviews) believed that ecotourism should include archaeology, accounting for as much or more than 50% (66% and 50% respectively). These results clearly show that the international tourists, Thai focus groups and interviewees, all value heritage and archaeology as topics worthy of consideration whilst developing ecotourism. Thai tourist participants and the academic literature view heritage and archaeology as issues of lower priority than nature, economics and culture. However, as discussed earlier, nature and culture could not exist without human intervention. To some extent, the division betrays an artificial separation between lived contemporary culture and cultural artefacts and ancient sites that nonetheless have important contemporary cultural meaning.

The following interview with an 'expert' showed the relationship between nature and heritage:

“Heritage sites also involved with the natural environment, that is why, we could not separate heritage and environment from each other. Because heritage sites normally lie in environmental areas. Moreover, ecotourism also helps heritage sites to be protected by those who would like to steal and destroy the heritage sites”.

(GA12, national government officer, phase 1)

GA12 (phase 1) commented on the close relationship between natural and heritage areas. This illustrates the importance of the engagement of human daily-life activities with the living landscapes. Another local residents' discussion from Ban Khwao and international tourists supported this opinion from the governmental point of view:

“Ecotourism should mean trips to visit heritage sites which have been produced within the locations such as potteries and tools”.

(RD1, local residents, research diary, phase 3)

“Ecotourism should sustain and preserve the nature, culture, heritage, archaeology and also benefits the local communities in terms of their financial issue”.

(IT9/3, International tourist, open-ended questionnaire, phase 3)

The research diary and open-ended questionnaire data demonstrated how each stakeholder should construct the definition of ecotourism through the respective lens of each, given differing perceptions of preserving nature, culture and heritage. Secondly, RD1 and IT9/3 recognised that in each location, the creation of human activities would occur using the natural resources within the locality. Examples would be the paintings inside caves for which ancestors used such resources, cultural and heritage resources that offer unique insight into what people were doing during that period of history.

Thus, ecotourism should involve the aspects of places relating to human activities. Similarly, the Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research refers to ecotourism as travelling that must sustain the areas that lie within the ecological system, such as natural, cultural or historical resources (TISTR, 1997). Aside from this, the NGA (phase 1)

nongovernmental agencies pointed out that to make people understand what ecotourism means, we should first start with children. Through NGA's experiences as a tour guide, NGA mentions that it appears that youngsters do not have basic understanding about their local geography of eco-/heritage sites:

“If we go and ask the Chaiyaphum children now, they would not be able to identify the location of the heritage sites in Chaiyaphum, but if we ask them where are the shopping centres, they will give the answer straight away”.

(NGA, nongovernmental agency, phase 1)

Another interview from GA18 (phase 2) also mentioned:

“Youngsters now do not prefer to go to the heritage sites as well as continue to take part in the old traditional ways of culture, such as the Songkarn festival (Thai New Year's Day). They celebrate it because they would like to have fun and meet other young people on the street, however, the old way of doing it is to go to the temple (which is known as a heritage site) to catch up with others, not only people inside the family but also other people who live in the communities, too”.

(GA18, National government officer, phase 2)

These interviews showed that culture and heritage entwine, as they state that if people have lived somewhere, they will ultimately build up heritage sites that suit the environment, as well as create the places where other groups of people could come and meet. Moreover, in the past, the temple also provided the cultural activities that suited the local landscape. As

with other countries around the world, the adherence to faith may be dwindling among the young in Thailand, perhaps because they gain their sense of community elsewhere (Rigg, 2019).

Despite interest in the heritage and archaeology aspects of a definition of ecotourism ranking last in the questionnaire of Thai tourists and the academic literature, this does not mean that it is not important. Most of the focus groups, interviews and the international tourists from the fieldwork have actually paid attention to the idea that ecotourism should include travel that aims to sustain a broad variety of areas, including nature, culture, heritage and archaeology.

6.2.4.1 Connectivity Among Heritage, Archaeology, Humans, Economics and Social Issues

Heritage was ranked the least important aspect for stakeholders in this research. However, heritage in Thailand comprises historical places, either built or created, which could include archaeology and historical areas. FC1/1 (phase 1) confirmed these points:

“We think that Prang Ku and the rest of what we found in this old hospital are included in with ecotourism. Because we believe that this area also used to be close to nature, we think that if historical officers come to investigate the locality, it will allow us to explore in more detail, about the past and how this place emphasised the relationship between humanity and nature”.

(FC1/1, local residents, phase 1)

This interview illustrated that archaeology and heritage sites relate to each other within the Thai communities. In particular, this FC1/1 (phase 1) comment indicated that the

practices of both subjects are important in bringing about the evolution and development of human-nature relationships.

When tourist companies introduced tour programmes concerning heritage and archaeology landscapes, they seemed to include programmes that fit within the cultural tourism sector, a small niche sector within the tourism programme. Not surprisingly, ecotourism has been seen as a programme that will only preserve and conserve the environment and local residents, but the question is whether we could leave out the culture and prehistoric sites located within the ecotourism sites? To be able to sustain the prehistoric places, GA6 (phase 1) asked us to pay close attention to what GA6 experienced while GA6 was taking the local residents for a study trip in other provinces:

“We hope in the future the tour guides will pay more attention to the tourists while we are walking around the historical places. We sometimes saw that some tourists had picked up the stones and walked or cross the places where women or others do not allow people to enter”.

(GA6, local government officer, phase 1)

This clearly indicates the specific information that tourists must know or of which they must be aware when visiting. These heritage and archaeological sites will end up destroyed without interventions. This occurrence happened in the similar approach to the case of Ethiopia, Wondirad, Tolkach and King illustrating that:

“If the Ethiopians continue in the way they currently are, they strongly warn that there will be no reasons for visitors to go to Southern Ethiopia in ten years

or so. This is because natural resources have been deteriorating and cultural heritages have been fading away gradually”.

(Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020, pp. 9-10)

FC1/1 (phase 1) also pointed out:

“To sustain ecotourism is to sustain the heritage and archaeological sites by not taking or picking the rock from the sites, give them the education about the historical places within their communities as well as maintain the following sites. Hopefully, this will help to persuade the next generations to love and want to maintain this tourism site later”.

(FC1/1, local residents, phase 1)

The way FC1/1 helped preserve and conserve the heritage sites is crucial when attempting to avoid the conflicts of opinion concerning the sites between the senior and older generations. The choice to help eliminate the problem is to create the close relationship between the sites and young people, as well as to create and provide information that will significantly aid the new generations of local residents in understanding why these places are important. From this, we expect residents will start to appreciate what they possess within their communities and subsequently develop an understanding of the importance of not destroying the authenticity of local sites, which could ultimately provide vital income to the local community through ecotourism.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter examines the meaning of ecotourism through stakeholders' perceptions (government authorities, nongovernmental agencies, tourist agencies, local residents and tourists). The findings illustrate that ecotourism within Thailand could be defined as tourism programmes involved with preservation, conservation, and maintenance of the natural, cultural, heritage and archaeology areas of an ecotourism site. Thus, practices will succeed if education and ethical training within ecotourism destinations are at the forefront of the planning process.

The core element of the definition of ecotourism is nature, as the high level of response shows in comparison with the other categories, across open-ended questionnaires, interviews, focus groups and research diaries. This illustrates that Thai authorities and local residents felt that ecotourism should include nature, as well as other aspects, such as economics, culture and heritage. However, in consideration of heritage and archaeology, the only category rating accounting for more than 50% of positive responses came from international tourists and Thai participants (authorities and residents). In relation to other participants, the percentage of people ranking heritage and archaeology as part of ecotourism definitions had dropped to less than 40% of the overall number who responded to the research. This illustrated that a misunderstanding could arise between the definitions of heritage (Thai word: Laeng-Mo-Ra-Dok) and archaeology (Laeng-Bo-Ran-Ka-Dee) within Thai participant groups and their perceptions of ecotourism. This could be why it reflected the lower percentage of respondents citing it as a key element of a definition of ecotourism.

The ways in which participants see ecotourism differences vary in accordance with knowledge, personal beliefs and age. International tourists were more open to 'expanding' the concept of ecotourism, to move beyond solely considering nature and the environment to include elements of culture and heritage. Notably, Thai authorities and residents were

generally less willing to consider aspects beyond nature and the environment, although they, too, certainly recognise the need for economic returns. Western points of view and cultural assumptions still tend to dominate the Thai academics (Kamolpattana *et al.*, 2005). Tourism can often mean crucial income for local people residing in the path of ecotourism and, arguably, the interrelationship between nature, economics and cultural heritage means there is no need to treat these issues as separate debates in the Thai tourism context.

In the following chapter, the researcher meets the third objective of this thesis, namely, describing Thai ecotourism stakeholders' views on managing ecotourism at the local level.

CHAPTER 7

THE ENGAGEMENT OF THAI ECOTOURISM STAKEHOLDERS IN RURAL AREAS: LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS AND ENGAGEMENT DISCONNECT

7.1 Introduction

The task of this chapter is to meet the thesis's third objective by answering the question: 'What are Thai ecotourism stakeholders' views on managing ecotourism at the local level?' This is more of an operational question than one of perceiving ecotourism as a concept. To answer this question, the chapter elaborates the involvement of each group of stakeholders, examining the level of participation between different groups of stakeholders in Thai ecotourism and understanding the collaboration of stakeholders within Chaiyaphum province and Northeast Thailand as a whole.

Data in this chapter comes from focus groups, interviews, open-ended questionnaires, research diaries, personal experiences and secondary data. Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) note a dearth of tourism studies that pay attention to stakeholders' views. For example, currently, only a small body of existing research actively explores the roles of various stakeholders (Silva and McDill, 2004; Lacey, Peel and Weiler, 2012; Muganda, Sirima and Ezra, 2013; Mudimba and Tichaawa, 2017), the relationships among stakeholders within the ecotourism context (Tsaur, Lin and Lin, 2006; Hitchner *et al.*, 2009; Ferraro and Hanauer, 2014; Adom, 2019; Stronza, Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2019; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020) and the views of stakeholders in relation to ecotourism (Oikonomou and Dikou, 2008; Jaafar, Rasoolimanesh and Ismail, 2017; Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018; Sangpikul, 2020) (see more details in **Chapter 3**). This is also challenging in Thailand, where data is not

collected at a national and local level, as would be the case with the many developed countries that tend to dominate the intellectual and theoretical development of tourism studies.

As **Chapter 3** mentions, in the early period of ecotourism studies, the government preferred not to involve local communities as part of decision-making (a top-down approach). However, more attempts to enrol local people characterise making decisions on the tourism events. In recent times, this governance structure has changed, due to the increasing involvement of other stakeholders' voices, such as nongovernmental organisations, local communities and ethnic minorities. This new collaboration of stakeholders — to which planning often refers as a *bottom-up approach* or development thinking as *neopopulism*—has helped to counter the negative impacts from the top-down approach, which have gained traction on a global scale over recent years (Butcher, 2007).

Swarbrooke (1999, p. 123) mentions that “one of the cornerstones of sustaining tourism is the idea that the host stakeholders should be actively involved in tourism planning”. Moreover, Joppe (1996), Chia *et al.* (2018) and Kry *et al.* (2020) also point out that research on some stakeholders, such as local communities, does not demonstrate sufficient involvement of the local people in decision-making. Consequently, this research attempts to understand the stakeholders' engagement, as well as their voices, with the ecotourism in rural areas. Before illustrating the participation of stakeholders and their engagement through ecotourism in rural Thailand, the researcher reminds about the abbreviations used for stakeholders' and their data-collection periods (see **Table 7.1 below**) as well as the diagram of Thai ecotourism stakeholders (see **Figure 4.2 for more details**).

Phase	Interview code	Organisations
1 Feb–Aug 2014	GA1–GA14	National/ Regional/ Local Government Administrative Organisations
2 May–Aug 2016	GA15–GA21	National/ Regional/ Local Government Administrative Organisations
3 May–Aug 2018	GA22–GA26	Local Government Administrative Organisations
1 Feb–Aug 2014	NGA	Nongovernmental Agency
2 May–Aug 2016	N/A	Nongovernmental Agency
3 May–Aug 2018	N/A	Nongovernmental Agency
1 Feb–Aug 2014	TO1–TO5	Tourism Operators
2 May–Aug 2016	N/A	Tourism Operators
3 May–Aug 2018	N/A	Tourism Operators
1 Feb–Aug 2014	FC1–FC3	Local Communities
2 May–Aug 2016	FC4–FC5	Local Communities
3 May–Aug 2018	FC6	Local Communities

Table 7.1: The abbreviations used for stakeholders’ and their data-collection periods

7.2 The Engagement of Governmental Organisations Through Ecotourism

In this research, the governmental organisations constitute three main sectors (see more details in **Chapter 5**). First, this chapter considers Central Administrative Organisations (CAO); then, second, explains the engagement of Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO) and, third, illustrates the engagement of the Local Administrative Organisations (LAO) in more detail. These organisations are powerful and influential in local ecotourism development because they control significant funding at the local level in Thailand.

7.2.1 The Engagement of Central Administrative Organisation (CAO)

The Central Administrative Organisation mainly govern tourism management in Thailand, covering policies, legacies and structures within the state and non-state organisations. Furthermore, they provide funding to other organisations, such as Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO) and Local Administrative Organisations (LAO) (see **Chapter 4**).

Since the 1980s, the tourism industry has helped economic growth in Thailand (Goodman, 2006; Sangpikul, 2011). The national government has adopted a tourism programme through the National Economic and Social Development Plan (NESDP). In NESDP, number 6 (2530–2534/1987–1991), Thailand started to focus greater attention on tourism. For example, it introduced Thailand using the slogan, ‘a country full of culture and ecotourism’, and marketing Thailand as ‘a year of Thai Tourism’ and ‘a year of culture’, to capture the tourist market (TATnews, 2005). Consequently, these initiatives have created substantial incomes and ultimately encouraged large numbers of international tourists to visit Thailand, with numbers doubling between 1987 and 1989 (Walton, 1993). Since 1989, tourism has become one of the major components of the NESDP.

Chapter 4 describes the Central Administrative Organisations, consisting of 20 organisations, but this study discusses only four ministries and one authority. These are the Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS); the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE); the Ministry of Culture (MOC); the Ministry of Interior (MOI); and the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT). They are influential in enacting ecotourism on the ground.

7.2.1.1 The Engagement of Ministry of Tourism and Sports (MOTS)

The main role of the Ministry of Tourism and Sports is to set the policies, strategies and targets for supporting, improving and developing Thai tourism, to make it better-known, especially on a global scale. Political power within Thailand has changed hands between prime ministers as a result of political instability, as well as formal elections. For example, during 2005–2021 (16 years), there were eight ministers, each of whom worked within the Ministry of Tourism and Sports: Mr. Pracha Maleenont (2005–2006) H.E., Dr. Suvit Yodmani (2006–2008), Mr. Weerasak Kowsurat (2008–2008), Mr. Chumpol Silpa-archa (2008–2013), Mr. Somsak Phurisisak (2013–2014), Mrs. Kobkarn Wattanavrangkul (2014–2017), Mr. Weerasak Kowsurat (2017–2019) and Mr. Phiphat Ratchakitprakarn (2019–current). Under Maleenont’s stewardship, the MOTS focused on continuing the work from the earlier political period. For example, Maleenont had to ensure that the money the Ministry of Tourism and Sports received at that time would go to benefitting local communities. He visited and looked at what each Tambon¹⁸ had done since the advent of the ‘One Tambon One Product (OTOP)’ funds from the MOTS.

The OTOP programme aimed to boost the economy within local communities, as well as trying to reduce the number of young residents migrating and seeking jobs elsewhere. Moreover, the OTOP programme also aims to educate local residents to achieve an

¹⁸ Tambon (in Thai) means ‘District’ (in English)

understanding and ability to maintain their products made from local materials (silk, pottery or food cuisines). At the same time, this programme tried to teach the local populations to care for their own local areas. During this political period, the Ministry of Tourism and Sports had begun to change its approaches from a top-down (populism) towards bottom-up (neopopulism) governance. The bottom-up approach aimed to allow the local communities to communicate their concerns to the government sectors. Moreover, this approach aimed to give power to the local authorities, to enable them to make their judgements faster and meet the needs of populations within each province (Hall, 2008; Dwyer, 2015; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020).

After the government ended, the OTOP programmes were completed and the new minister of MOTS — Dr. Suwit Yodmani — was instated and subsequently focused on a concept for increasing the number of quality tourists¹⁹, instead of the number arriving in Thailand each year. He also used the same approach as Maleenont, a bottom-up approach, to help him understand the villagers' needs. However, consulting with local stakeholders differs from truly enabling them to be part of a democratic, bottom-up approach to developing ecotourism.

This would ultimately help the MOTS officers create and complete an evaluation process, with each project in a much better state of affairs than previously. However, some residents did not appreciate what the government officers had asked of them. This created a drawback to the work and, at the same time, had the potential to cause conflict between the MOTS and other stakeholders. For example, a member of the local residents from two of the focus groups but from different periods stated:

¹⁹ Quality tourists are those tourists who come and spend more money in the host countries

“We do not understand why the MOTS officers came to see us and couldn’t see the problems those have troubled our locality. We stated it as clear as possible that the waste problems were the main major and subsequently needed help from the MOTS officers in terms of managing it. They promised that they would give the funds with the view of supporting this problem but, up until this stage, we have never received any help. We had suffered a large number of tourists from the MOTS’s tourism promotions, and we were only a small community. How could we cope with the tourists’ complaints and the welfare of our community?”.

(FC3/1, local residents, phase 1)

“As you could see, our tourist numbers have fallen not because of this place but because we couldn’t manage this waste problem. Our community has improved the English tour guides for the foreigners and engaged the hill tribes to work in our tourism team. But, as you can see, we have divided the groups of local students, officers and the rest of the community to fight for the waste. Unfortunately, we couldn’t cope. The MOTS came to visit us a lot and promised us to put this project on the process. But, as you can see, we have been waiting for more than ten years and nothing happened. So, we are not surprised why the number of tourists declined”.

(FC6/3, local residents, phase 3)

According to both focus groups, it appeared that engagement with locals also requires coupling with action, or trust of the local communities in tourism destinations is lost. Other villagers also raised concerns about MOTS’s approach to engaging with local communities:

“While the MOTS officers were collecting data from their communities, they did not care much about who the participants were because they only came to do their jobs for a short period, they never assumed that everybody they met were local people. Mostly, the information they collected came from the newer residents, and not the established ones. Thus, this is one of the reasons why problems were not solved”.

(Local residents, research diary, phase 3)

In January and September 2008, the government changed hands to a new administration. Mr. Weerasak Kowsurat was the MOTS minister during these two periods. The slogan ‘Amazing ‘ or ‘*Pra Tub Jai*’ Thailand was introduced to appeal to the worldwide tourism market (MOTS, 2008). The minister sought to boost tourism with this approach, by providing improved services to domestic and international tourists (MOTS, 2008).

Following the end of 2008, Mr Chumpol Silapa-Archa was promoted to the position of new minister of MOTS. He promised to follow some of the strategies that Mr Weerasak Kowsurat had established, focusing on the strategy to increase the numbers of domestic tourists (MOTS, 2008), involving the local administrative authorities as part of tourism strategy and improving tourists’ trust in Thailand. Moreover, he stressed that the promotion of tourism activities (local food tourism) as well as creating niche tourism markets would support tourist motivations in the future (ecotourism, cultural heritage tourism). He believed that these strategies had the potential to last until the end of the government period (depending on the next election), so the Thai population would be able to see how these new approaches benefitted the Thai tourism industry (MOTS, 2008).

The main airport in Thailand was shut down for almost two weeks in 2008, after antigovernment protesters besieged the facility and the Erawan Shrine explosion occurred in

Bangkok in 2015. Mrs. Kobkarn Wattanavrangkul, the new minister of MOTS, decided to launch a new tourism concept, 'Open to the New Shades of Thailand', as an approach to promoting new activities for tourists, so they could stay and spend more time in Thailand (AmazingThailand, 2018). She also suggested that more than 60% of tourists who travel in Thailand are Free Independent Travellers (FIT²⁰). These travellers are tech-savvy, so it is not possible to bend the truth with information now more available and accessible (AmazingThailand, 2018). Mrs. Kobkarn Wattanavrangkul also pointed out that the Asian tourists prefer to travel less but spend more money, while the European tourists were staying longer but spending less money. The campaign to attract the international tourists to stay longer in Thailand was designed to address this, and to increase the number of international tourists. Unfortunately, this period illustrated that the MOTS was less focussed on local stakeholders than tourists.

However, in 2018, Mr. Weerasak Kowsurat suggested that while Thailand received about 20% of its GDP from tourism, the MOTS was under pressure because it had a limited number of staff to work on projects. So, he decided to create jobs in the MOTS, to focus on further development. In addition, Mr. Weerasak Kowsurat also explained that even though MOTS is a ministry, it lacks power and influence. This was because the authorities with which MOTS collaborates, including hotels, tourism operators, airlines, tourism destinations, already had their own authorities that control them. Thus, people only tend to notice that the MOTS only promotes tourism destinations in Thailand (AmazingThailand, 2018). This theme emerged during the research for the thesis, namely, that stakeholders associated with the Thai state have been wedded to the idea of promoting tourism to tourists, rather than engaging with local people and local tourism stakeholders.

²⁰ The tourists who booked flights by themselves, travel independently and rely on GPS and mobile phones

During his term in government, Mr. Weerasak Kowsurat, suggested that he wanted to apply three tourism strategies. He explained that the first strategy should allow tourists to report concerns to the MOTS, so they can help the tourists deal with tourism-related crime. Second, tourism operators should help the MOTS reach sustainable development goals. Finally, the MOTS must liaise with the educational authorities, so they could discuss their needs in term of producing the staff for tourism markets (AmazingThailand, 2018).

7.2.1.2 The Engagement of Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE)

The main activity that the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment undertakes in relation to tourism is to make policies and strategies to help, sustain, protect and develop natural resources, national parks, wildlife and environment. Moreover, the MNRE also cooperates with national park officers and multi-stakeholders involved in the MNRE sector. Since nature (including natural parks) has become one of the major facets to which tourists have paid attention, the landscapes and the national parks have been a resource that has benefitted local residents.

At the beginning of the Thai tourism era, the large numbers of tourists arriving in the national park areas each year led to negative impacts on local communities, such as the dropping of rubbish, disturbance of fauna and the picking of rare flowers (Calgaro and Lloyd, 2008; Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen and Duangsaeng, 2014; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, not only tourists have been responsible for creating such problems but also tourism stakeholders, such as local communities and tourism suppliers (Cohen, 2008; Sangpikul, 2020). This is because stakeholders do not pay attention to maintaining and sustaining the local areas in which they operate, nor do they strive to make them last for future generations. Instead, some tourist areas are full of waste. There is also a shortage of water (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004a), as well as overcrowding and increases in crime, noise pollution,

water pollution and soil pollution. All of these aforementioned issues are now becoming problematic in Thailand and extend into areas where ecotourism is established.

Each of the problems has affected the number of tourists arriving in the country, both domestic and international, and accordingly reduces the gross income within the country. The World Bank (2004, p. 127) illustrated that “the economic costs of environmental degradation have been estimated at four to eight percent of gross domestic product (GDP) annually in many developing countries”. This may indicate the need for governments to have more concern for the environment. In addition, the Thai government should consider how to maintain and sustain the environment and the cultural areas within the National Development Plans, such as in Nepal and Thailand, included in the NESDP (National Economic and Social Development Plan).

The Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment is known to be different in terms of how each department engages with stakeholders. For example, in the Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation (DNP), the staff are tasked with protecting and maintaining the protected areas, such as national parks and their natural resources. However, this has caused problems between the national park officers and local communities. Local communities think that they have the right to enter protected areas and to protect their land, seek food and medicine and protect their water irrigation systems in the locality, now national park space. The problem of local community encroachment has become a major issue within the development plan for the DNP.

Moreover, the fact that the DNP officers’ could not secure funds from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment to support the projects the national park officers introduced exacerbated problems. Those national parks that receive high numbers of tourists each year would secure more funds from the DNP than those national parks that attract a low number of tourists. This caused problems for the national park officers and staff, in terms of

how to deal with the problems in its own organisation, as it lacks funds, especially for locations that do not yet attract significant numbers of tourists. For example, the benefits from tourists, such as their entrance fees for national parks, can help increase their animal protection and enforcement activities (Ham, 2011). This is one of the problems that occur in the developing countries. The government will come and help if the areas have attracted significant income for the economic sector; otherwise, assistance is lacking.

One of the MNRE officers mentioned that to solve the problem requires countries acting now instead of letting such problems grow, ultimately resulting in having to ‘clean up later’ (Goodman, 2006). In addition, Ferraro and Hanauer (2014) note that often, the evaluators are overlooking the identified problems in ecotourism areas. They often ignore the signs, but these problems can lead to future problems. During 2005–2021, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment changed hands, with nine different ministers leading the ministry: Mr. Yongyut Tiyaipairach (2005–2006), Mr. Kasem Snidvongs (2006–2008), Mrs. Anongwan Thepsuthin (2008–2008), Mr. Suwit Khunkitti (2008–2011), Mr. Preecha Reangsomboonsuk (2011–2013), Mr. Vichet Kasemthongsri (2013–2014), General Dapong Ratanasuwan (2014–2015), General Surasak Karnjanarat (2015–2019), and Mr. Varawut Silpa-archa (2019 to current).

Tellingly, during these past fifteen years, determining which projects have been completed and which have continued has been difficult. This is because in different political periods, new projects have been introduced due to personnel changes. This means that the projects from the earlier political period do not have continuity. For example, comparing works undertaken from 2005 to 2021 shows that the main projects nine ministers introduced suffered after they finished their periods. This was probably due to their focus on interests that changed during the period, the changes of responsible names in the projects and also the

budgets the government gave to support the projects need rechecking before being transferred to the next minister. Thus, each minister creating new projects would be easier.

7.2.1.3 The Engagement of the Ministry of Culture (MOC)

The main aim of the Ministry of Culture is to create, sustain, maintain, develop and provide ways of protecting culture, heritage, identity and religion within the country. Moreover, it provides education related to culture. The ministry is divided into departments; this research only focuses on the Fine Arts Department. Its *raison d'etre* is to ‘preserve, conserve, revive, promote, create, educate and disseminate the knowledge, wisdom and the nation within the areas of culture, archaeology and history’ (FAD, 2021).

The FAD has sometimes been criticised as the local communities—as well as other actors — see this department as one with insufficient funds available to sustain and maintain cultural and built heritage. While some local communities believed that the Fine Arts officers would come and declare that these areas are now under the FAD policies (based on a focus group in Chaiyaphum province), the local populations could not move or partake in local activities within protected settlements unless they received the rights to do so from the department. This has consequently caused problems, not only to the local communities but also in the form of conflicts and tensions between the departments, local communities and the regional and local authorities. Local communities see the FAD as slow to act and unwilling to devolve power down to the community level, something the government has also been reluctant to do. This issue has been apparent since the department was established and has opposed the recent governmental drives to devolve decision-making down to the local level.

Moreover, the FAD funding contribution would mostly be considered in terms of areas where tourists would go and travel, more than those with fewer tourists. In this case, the not-so-popular destinations would feel powerless because they cannot maintain the tourism

areas unless they find some money somewhere else (such as a nongovernmental agencies or educational institutions) to support themselves. However, in reality, it would be difficult for local residents and regional and local officers to pay money to restore the cultural heritage because this would cost them a significant amount in maintenance, with no guarantee of when the cultural heritage areas would get a return on investment. This is ultimately one reason why the local residents and regional and local officers would prefer to do nothing about the cultural heritage areas.

Between 2005 and 2021, the Ministry of Culture changed hands with twelve different ministers: Mrs. Uraivan Thienthong (2005–2006), Mr. Surakiart Sathirathai (2006–2006), Khunying Khaisri Sri-arun (2006–2008), Mr. Anusorn Wongwan (2008–2008), Mr. Somsak Kiatsuranont (2008–2008), Mr. Woravat Auapinyakul (2008–2008), Mr. Teera Slukpetch (2008–2010), Mr. Nipit Intarasombat (2010–2011), Mrs Sukumol Khunpleum (2011–2012), Mr. Sontaya Khunpluem (2012–2014), Mr. Veera Rojpojanarat (2014–2019) and Mr. Ittipol Khunpluem (2019–current). For example, during 2008 to 2010, Mr. Teera Slukpetch, the minister of MOC, introduced a new plan with the objective of helping the government’s strategy (improving trust and promoting Thai tourism to other countries) to achieve its aims in the near future. The Ministry of Culture decided to actively promote two events—communities’ lifestyles in Thailand and the cultural events in Thailand—that were to be promoted at the Cultural Global fair and festival called ‘the Incheon 2009 Global fair and festival, September 2009’ (Zzangpen, 2009).

Moreover, in the current political cycle (2019–Current), Mr. Ittipol Khunpluem, the new minister of MOC, has considered the idea of a cultural economy within his new strategic plan. He focuses on increasing the values of the products those involve with the uniqueness of Thai cultures (Matichon, 2020). Unfortunately, while he accepted this job, many academics related to this field complained that his strategy is not working and he needs to improve his

departments, such as the Fine Arts Department and the Department of Religious Affairs, in terms of staff competence, financial budgets and laws and policies (Matichon, 2020). The issue of staff and ministries understanding local need is a recurring theme arising from the research.

7.2.1.4 The Engagement of Ministry of Interior (MOI)

The Ministry of Interior creates policies and strategies within the four main domains of political, economic, social, and physical development. However, in each period of political government, the Ministry would determine what participation they were required to consider and follow during that specific period of time. The ministers include Air Chief Marshal Kongsak Wantana (2005–2006), Mr. Aree Wongarya (2006–2007), H. E. General Surayud Chulanont (2007–2008), Police Captain Chalerm Yubamrung (2008–2008), Police General Kowit Wattana (2008–2008), Mr. Chaovarat Chanweerakul (2008–2011), Mr. Yongyuth Wichaidit (2011–2012), Mr. Charupong Ruangsuwan (2012–2014), and General Anupong Paochinda (2014–current).

For example, during 2005–2006, ACM Kongsak Wantana decided to create policies to help maintain the infrastructure of the places of interest, as well as to construct transportation networks to make Thailand one of the most accessible countries in Southeast Asia, internationally and to neighbouring countries. Moreover, during this time, the money the government had assigned to each province — otherwise known as the ‘CEO fund’ — would go through the Chief Executive Officer (CEO-Retreat, 2006). This individual is the manager within the programme, responsible for making decisions regarding which aspects of tourism should be managed and developed within the province, districts and villages, i.e. road facilities and career development (MOI, 2008). This fund could be tracked quite easily after some organisations within the province asked for support: if they received funding, the CEO

would need to evaluate their works and report back to the government. This aid was targeted at helping the provincial CEO to solve problems within a shorter timeframe, through clearer information.

During the Kongsak period (2005–2006), the number of local communities who created OTOP programmes had increased, in accordance with the interest of residents, as the government and the ministers had created loans to support those OTOP members in relation to producing products for the market sellers (OTOP, 2007). In addition, after they had earned some income and profit, they were then required to return the money to the government. The OTOP programme was halted in 2006 because of the new election and an unstable political situation within the country. Nevertheless, the programme aimed to allow the local residents to secure jobs, earn more income within the communities, reduce the number of rural residents who move to urban areas and introduce new areas as tourism destinations.

During 2006–2020, the participation of the ministry officers did not differ much from that of the Kongsak period, but they could not continue or set plans for the long term, with politics in Thailand still unstable. For instance, they could not request financial help to support the programmes, i.e. those related to the last government period, as the new minister wanted to initiate new projects as opposed to following up previous administrations' old projects. During this period, the resident groups within the village started to earn less income, and some of those unsuccessful groups had to close because they would receive no support from the government or the ministry.

During 2008, the new Minister of the Interior, Police General Kowit Wattana, decided to release his strategic plan covering two main periods: a one-year strategic plan and a second one called 'a MOI strategic plan' (MOI, 2009). Within these two plans, Police General Kowit Wattana illustrated what topics would be the main focus during his term. Both plans focused on many topics, including peace, drug suppression and tourism. Regarding the issue of

tourism, he stated that he would like to try to develop more tourism destinations and, at the same time, allow communities to use their own voices and powers to control tourism industries within their areas (MOI, 2009). Moreover, he also reintroduced the OTOP programme and tried to focus on specifically promoting the products to both domestic and international tourists, organising the educational centres for the villagers and tourists to better understand cultural heritage within their communities (MOI, 2009).

During Mr Chaovarat Chanweerakul's ministry of MOI from 2008 to 2011, the problems (principally the lack of trust between Thai residents and international tourists and economic issues) remained evident. However, the minister aimed to improve these problems by introducing strategic plans. For example, he wanted to create a way of improving trust amongst Thai residents as well as other Asian countries, and he wanted to create trust with international tourists, to assure them that Thailand was now a safe place to travel (BangkokPost, 2012). Specifically considering tourism, he preferred to focus on promotion, reducing the tax on tourism-related services, using tourism facilities and reforming the organisation of the administrative authorities, creating, supporting and educating only some of the big tourist destinations (MOI, 2011). He also focused on creating and promoting to the Thai residents tourism in Thailand, by creating more events for Thai people, such as Songkarn and Loy krataong (MOTS, 2012).

From 2014 to the present, General Anupong Paochinda, the new minister of MOI, decided to continue to decentralise power to a degree, from top-down to bottom-up. He still adopted the sufficiency economy (see **Chapter 2**), a Thai-originated philosophy that stresses the middle path as the overriding principle for appropriate conduct and way of life by the populace at all levels (individual, family, community), and the OTOP (One Tambon One Product) as an economic strategy to help reduce the wealth gaps between rural and city residents (OTOP, 2021).

7.2.1.5 The Engagement of Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)

The engagement of TAT within the Thai tourism system has been based around sustaining, maintaining and developing tourism destinations. TAT also creates plans and strategies and promotes and markets Thai tourism worldwide (MOTS, 2020). These participation structures have been in place since 1979.

Between 2005 and 2020, the TAT governors launched several campaigns (e.g. Thailand Unforgettable, Amazing Thailand, Open to the New Shades, 60 Happiness Routes), attempting to promote to tourists worldwide and domestically (Zhang, Qu and Tavitiyaman, 2009; TATnews, 2018; TAT, 2019). Most of the campaigns were created through TAT strategies (which always follow the MOTS plans and strategies), first to increase the number of tourists (domestic and international), second, to satisfy tourist experiences and needs and, third, to promote Thai natural and cultural heritage.

In 2005, TAT released a new marketing campaign called ‘Tourism Capital of Asia’, a slogan aiming to help TAT increase the number of international tourists in Thailand, following the Tsunami crisis (TravelDailyNews, 2003). The TAT governor stated that this particular slogan not only focuses on increasing the number of international tourists but also pays attention to increasing the number of domestic tourists. The slogan also attempted to develop, improve and maintain five main themes of tourism sites in Thailand, including ‘beaches, cities, historical sites, natural sites, and cultural sites and special interest’, as well as focusing on those visitors, such as business travellers, young people and golfers (TATnews, 2005). With the slogan’s release, the number of tourists started to increase, especially within the domestic tourist sector, rising by almost 6.33% in 2005 (Chaiyaphum-Tourists-Statistic, 2008). Unfortunately, international tourist numbers dropped by 1.51% (Chaiyaphum-Tourists-Statistic, 2008), but according to the TAT governor, ‘this was quite manageable for TAT’ (TATnews, 2005).

During 2006, TAT released a new tourism slogan, 'Thailand Unforgettable', aiming to focus on tourism areas that included 'Sea, Sand, Sun; Modern and Traditional'; and shopping, dining and golfing. TAT mentioned that these three main categories would best fit such areas as Bangkok, Phuket, Pattaya, Samui and Chaing Mai (TAT, 2006).

During 2007, the tourism slogan that TAT introduced in the previous year continued to appear in promotional settings ('Unforgettable Thailand' or 'CHIC by Thailand') (Wood, 2007). However, this slogan has changed in focus and emphasis, towards targeting the needs and interests of middle-class tourists. Accordingly, ways of attracting rich tourists are to introduce luxury services (e.g. boutique hotels) on the east coast of Thailand, such as Trang province (Wood, 2007).

However, with the 2008 elections, the new head officer became Ms Pornsiri Manohan. She had different ideas than her predecessors for focusing on increasing the number of international and domestic tourists, by reducing the tax on tourism services and facilities and creating more events, including travel by train and respect for the Buddha (TAT, 2009).

During 2013–2015, Thailand faced additional political unrest and, accordingly, declining numbers of international tourists and their expenditures. These dropped by 6.6% and 5.8%, respectively, in 2014. Unfortunately, the statistics got worst because the government decided to apply Article 44 of the provisional constitution, granting unrestricted powers to the prime minister. This affected the Thai reputation internationally and impacted Thai tourism receipts (Bangkokpost, 2015).

In 2015, TAT decided to introduce a new campaign called 'Discover Thainess', an approach to help boost the number of international tourists coming to experience the remoteness cultures, such as those in the Northeast region. Ms Somrudi Chanchai, Director of the TAT NorthEastern Office, forecast that the number of tourists visiting the NorthEast

region could rise to nearly 28 million, generating 65 billion Baht in revenue (£1.69 billion)²¹ (NNT, 2015). This linked to the wider concern over Thai culture not being promoted, and the Nationalist conservative government wanted this vision to appear in tourism promotion.

From 2015 to the present day, Mr Yutthasak Supasorn, the new governor of TAT, has attempted to increase the number of international tourists coming to study Muay Thai (Thai Boxing) in 2016. In 2017, he decided to promote the gastronomy project in Thailand, believing that this gastronomy business could increase up to 5% the next year (BangkokPost, 2018). In 2018, TAT also decided to focus on their strategy for marketing to domestic tourists, especially those categorised into groups, such as Silver Age, Millennials, Families, Gen-Y, Multi-Generation and Solo Travellers (including females). He hoped these groups could travel during weekdays rather than on the weekend, to help recirculate money across local communities, as well as strengthen society and preserve the environment (ThailandTourism, 2018). In 2020, TAT announced its attempt to save the country from tourism ruin related to COVID-19, introducing the ‘Amazing Thailand Safety and Health Administration’, hoping this could boost the number of domestic tourists travelling around Thailand during the pandemic (TourismThailand, 2021).

7.2.2 The Engagement of Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO)

The second group in the Administrative Organisations is the Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO). Within the regional communities, head officers from each province follow the structures of the Ministry of Interior by managing, encouraging and supporting local residents within different parts of the province (MOI, 2021). These practices help the head officers of RAO to promote and ensure that the local community voices reach the Central Administrative Organisation (CAO).

²¹ Exchange rate on February 11, 2021, 1 GBP = THB 38.54 (MandS, 2021).

The Ministry of the Interior selects the head officers of each province. The main responsibilities of provincial officers are to ensure the problems that occur in local communities come to the attention of the provincial officer. If the provincial officers believe that these concerns require action, they grant permissions and approve money for those staff to work on the areas of concern and contact the local administrative officers to solve these problems. However, the provincial officers can transfer from one place to another quite easily. This is a problem in those projects that do not reach completion, due to key personnel moving on. Moreover, the strength of the relationship between provincial officers and members depends on the variable level of communication amongst the officers, other local officers and residents.

7.2.3 The Engagement of Local Administrative Organisations (LAO)

This group consists of district and subdistrict officers, each of whom lives within the district and subdistrict areas. Their main aims are to make sure that the local residents receive basic facilities, such as water and electricity, and to support and engage residents through activities within the communities.

The level of participation between villagers and the head of the district and subdistricts is closer than those of other sectors within the Administrative Organisations. This is largely due to the villagers having voted for the representatives who they believe will help them to improve their living standards (see **Chapter 4**).

7.3 The Engagement of Different Stakeholders Through the Governmental Organisations (Central, Regional and Local)

The varying levels of participation amongst the members of the governmental organisations and other actors, such as the nongovernmental agencies, tourism operators, local

residents and tourists, correspond to relationships between the stakeholders, assessed through the interviews, focus groups, open-ended questionnaires, research diary and secondary data.

The following interview illustrates a common view of local residents towards the power of the local officers, in terms of gaining recognition or participation from the local residents through the areas they serve. FC2/1 (phase 1) and FC4/2 (phase 2) express:

“I have to say that the closeness of our community is different from others because we have got the best local leader who always helps to guide us through every situation. We know that we can trust him. From this strong relationship, all the provincial officers as well as other local officers would come and ask us to go and help them if they have the festivals or other activities those related to the province or district because they know that if our leader ask us for help, everyone will be happy to go and help them straight away”.

(FC2/1, Local residents, focus group, phase 1)

“Our community leader is talented and skilled. She knows how to treat us and also asks us for the opinions on most of the situations. This has delivered what we want in our community. So, our projects including tourism are more successful than the rest of tourism in this province. No doubt why! She is well-known with the Regional Administrative Organisations officers (RAO) because we help her with everything”.

(FC4/2, Local residents, focus group, phase 2)

In the interviews, FC2/1 (phase 1) and FC4/2 (phase 2) commented that the power of the leaders' voices (their local officers) could ultimately influence the residents not only in terms of improvements to the quality of planning but also incorporating local views into key decisions (Beierle and Konisky, 2000; Carmin, Darnall and Mil-Homens, 2003; Ruhanen, 2013). Through the local officers' actions, the local residents believed that they could gain an understanding of the community's opinions and, subsequently, help residents to understand what their involvement is. Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018, p. 324) also suggest that "power and authority, negotiation and conflict, organisational arrangements, and participation in decision-making" are important factors to influence the success of tourism development within the tourism areas. Moreover, Marulo (2012, p. 50) even suggests that to enable ecotourism to achieve success within different destinations, the stakeholders must have good level of "cooperation, communication and involvement between each other".

LC2/1 (phase 1) and LC10/2 (phase 2) mentioned how the leader of their districts influenced local residents in returning valuable cultural heritage tools to where they belong and managing their waste. LC2/1 (phase 1) and LC10/2 (phase 2) commented:

"From what I can see, our district leader is really working hard to build the relationship between both himself and local residents. He always goes down to visit us and explains why tourism is important in our areas or how could it help us to improve our economics within the areas. Consequently, when he asks everyone about issues related to tourism. He always ends up with a large number of residents to come and help him. For example, in the case of cultural heritage area, he has asked the residents to return all of the cultural heritage items that are related to the cultural heritage area. At first, the residents had ignored to return and dealt with the local officers because they think that if

they return items, the governors would come and punish them. However, after the head of the district came to see them and explained that he would like us to return the cultural heritages, people feel more at ease. Thus, he and his colleagues could promote the areas as one of the tourist destinations in Chaiyaphum. Surprisingly, everyone within the areas has returned the cultural heritage items and has a renewed focus about caring for the cultural heritage areas and artefacts more than before”.

(LC2/1, Groups of local residents, research diary, phase 2)

“Our new local villager, he is the best! He has not only created the new ideas to get our children to get involve with waste management; he also shows us what to do. Since then, we can see that every time the tourists come here, they always give us compliments about how the areas are really clean and look nicer than other communities. If we haven’t got him, our area would not be this clean”.

(LC10/2, Local residents, research diary, phase 3)

On the previous point, LC2/1 (phase 1) and LC10/2 (phase 2) took place in different places and periods, yet they illustrated the local villagers in both places, describing the relationship between local residents and the Chief District Officers as ‘connected.’ Koens Dieperink and Miranda (2009, p. 1234) noted that “a further development of ecotourism requires a better institutional capacity and more integrated planning on the local level”. Local people generally trust village chiefs and local leadership more than stakeholders associated with the Thai state and governmental ministries. My research has confirmed this finding.

Moreover, LC2/1 (phase 1) and LC10/2 (phase 2) also pointed out that the ideas about leadership (see Giddens, 1968, p. 263) and trust are important, especially when the leader requires the cooperation of the communities (Jones, 2005; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Laverack and Thangphet, 2009). Wondirad, Tolkach and King (2020) also note that transparency and trust are vital for good relationships.

LC2/1 (phase 1) and LC10/2 (phase 2) share the expressions of LC2/1 (phase 1) and LC10/2 (phase 2). To create a practical way of sustaining aspects of local heritage (such as maintaining stocks of cultural heritage items and promoting waste management), the leader must understand the community's point of view and the reasons behind why they may initially resist new projects. Similar to what Okazaki (2008) and Chia *et al.* (2018) found, multiple stakeholders, rather than a standalone stakeholder, generally identify problems and solutions. Thus, if the communities understand these aspects, to improve and ask for collaboration would become easier for administrative officers later on. As Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) and Towner (2018) mention, stakeholder collaboration is crucial for sustainable tourism development if it involves power, trust, financial capabilities, external support, social and cultural backgrounds, awareness level and entrepreneurial skills of actors.

Local residents from the other focus groups commented further on the developing relationship between the park staff members and the local residents:

“Every year, there is the festival called “Ngan Kauen Taung Daog Kra Jaeow” or ‘Growing Siam Tulip festival’; this festival starts before the opening day of the Siam Tulip field. It contributes the ideas between national park officers and local residents, especially the students around the communities to come and help each other to grow the Siam Tulip within the national park. Later, this has started to be well known through the province and has helped the

communities and staff members to get to know each other. In addition, this activity also helps the local areas to sustain, protect, love and understand how to grow and raise the Siam Tulips”.

(LC3/1, local residents, focus group, phase 1)

LC3/1 (phase 1) illustrated that the national park officers create activity through the sense of connection between themselves and the local residents, by providing opportunities for them to help each other to sustain and expand the number of Siam Tulips within the national park. Adopting the principle of sustainable development, which involves a holistic approach across economy, environment and culture, can help to improve relationships amongst ecotourism stakeholders, enhance financial performance, broaden market opportunity, formulate inclusive decision-making and increase destination competitiveness, thereby boosting destination benefits (Dwyer, 2015). The difficulty in Thailand comes from how to measure the environment in monetary terms. An earlier section explores the engagement of the administrative officers. This has helped the local communities and officials to understand each sector’s role, allowing them to sustain and cherish their environment as well as cultural and heritage sites within their localities. Elsewhere, it has helped to reduce the conflict and built engagement between local communities and park management in different places, such as Ecuador and India (Wunder, 2000; Martin and Vigne, 2012; Das and Hussain, 2016). This indicates that the administrative officers must help the local residents to implement and manage first, rather than focus purely on place-based promotion (Stronza, Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2019). In addition, Chong (2020, p. 159) suggests that “the government also needs to value and understand multiple perspectives from every stakeholder involved in sustainable tourism development before moving on to strategic planning”. This would help the rural communities to provide the basic facilities not only for the residents themselves but

also the tourists (Gunasekaran *et al.*, 2018); government-organised and funded tourism facilities are one of the essential investments required for tourism programme success (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2016).

However, in addition, the misuse of power, misleading and misunderstanding amongst the central officers, regional officers, local officers and communities have consequently created negative impacts within the communities and different organisations. This could also create negative issues in relation to the surrounding areas and the destination sites. Similarly, Ferraro and Hanauer (2014) note that often, the local stakeholders as well as evaluators overlook the problems that the other ecotourism areas have raised. They often ignore the signs that these issues can lead to future problems. Wondirad, Tolkach and King (2020) mention that poor governance, lack of awareness, poor community participation in ecotourism, dependence on traditional economic activities, increasing population pressure and poor stakeholder collaboration are top factors responsible for the destruction of ecotourism resources. Moreover, inappropriate management and insufficient government funding could lead to the degradation of natural resources and conflicts between the local communities (Neth, 2008). The nongovernmental agency officer was questioned about the hidden power of certain people within organisations. The nongovernmental agency officer stated:

“I used to attend the meetings with the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), but recently I stopped because I felt if I stay there or not, it would not make any difference as they are only interested about the trips in the North and the South of Thailand, not within the Northeast. Moreover, I am also gutted about what they did to me, the province and I agreed that I could organise the Marathon with the specialised company for the Opening Days of Siam Tulip Field Festival. However, it ended up that TAT allocated another company the

same activities to do and action and allowed them to run the same activity at the same time as us. At first, I thought I could raise money to support the tourism in Chaiyaphum province but we ended up losing money to the outsider companies instead”.

(NGA, Nongovernmental agency, phase 1)

This interview demonstrated a difference of views between the nongovernmental agencies and central Thai governance whereby NGA (phase 1) viewed the government actor as being selfish and unwilling, in the sense of not allowing the nongovernmental agencies to vote against other government members. This interview also highlighted the fact that the government officers do not support the ideas that can benefit the local residents, as they chose to hire external companies to do the large jobs within the destinations. All the funds would go to the outsiders, with little left for the communities. Jamal and Getz (1995, p. 193) indicate that “external forces . . . also influence the destination’s stakeholders. The destination domain is thus characterised by an ‘open-system’ of interdependent, multiple stakeholders, where the actions of one stakeholder impact on the rest of the actors in the community”. Moreover, Diamantis (2018) also suggests that the reason ecotourism might not achieve success for their local communities is the complexity of stakeholder networks. Each stakeholder has a diverse set of personal self-interests, which often conflict with the end goal of sustaining ecotourism in more remote rural locations in the Northeast of Thailand.

The previous argument has some currency. Outside of Northeast Thailand, such stakeholders as TAT are very much linked/locked to the strategic direction of the MOTS, highlighted earlier in the chapter. Local stakeholders, including the local community, hotels and tour operators, are actors with whom agencies like TAT have little experience because they are used to promoting mass tourism in Thailand by growing both tourism numbers and

revenue. Factoring in smaller destinations attempting to develop niche ecotourism offerings is not something familiar to such stakeholders.

Similarly, GA6 (phase 1), GA17 (phase 2) and GA22 (phase 3) commented on their discussions with the Regional and/or Local Administrative Organisations. They noted a sense of ‘powerlessness’ after a key meeting:

“I went to the meetings with the Administrative Organisation, but, when they asked me do I have any suggestions to raise in these meetings on something, of course, I did raise some issues about tourism activities which could be considered within my subdistrict. I just thought that they did not like my ideas at all, I knew some of them did not like what I just said. I felt really upset as they did not care about what I said at all, this time is not the first instance”.

(GA6, Regional government officers, phase 1)

“During the meeting, me and the rest of local government officers preferred to sit and did nothing. We didn’t see the point, why they need to invite us to come to the meeting inside the city. This was a waste of time, because whatever they want us to do, they won’t listen to us anyway. If we don’t deliver what they want, the local residents and me always get into trouble. We will do as minimum to finish the task, so we don’t obey their orders”.

(GA17, Local government officers, phase 2)

“After finishing serving this term, I think I would like to stop being the representative for the local residents. Because I am here to make sure that the local people’s voices reach the regional and central government authorities.

But since I accepted the position, every time when I am at the meetings, I tried extremely hard to make sure that the regional and central government officers recognised our views. They listened but nothing has been done, except what they want!”.

(GA22, Local government officers, phase 3)

These interviews from different periods confirmed that the relationships between different governors within the same organisations can come into conflict. GA6 (phase 1), GA17 (phase 2) and GA22 (phase 3) indicated that officers cannot undertake activities autonomously and in a sustainable way. They also clearly needed help from the central and regional government authorities as well as local residents living inside the areas. With this in mind, if they do not receive care from the central and regional government authorities, it would end up as the fault of those who must deliver to residents. As we could see, some of the local government officers and the residents were forced to carry out the activities that the governors want them to, without giving them an adequate explanation. This led to local residents taking actions into their own hands, due to bureaucratic delays. Similarly, Pornprasit and Rurkkhum (2019) found in their research that the local authorities not participating can lead to conflict within their organisations. Moreover, when local villagers provide the officers with information, if it is not used to benefit communities, the local residents would not collaborate in the future. Local populations must feel empowered, even if their suggestions are not always put into practice. Cheong and Miller (2000, p. 381) mention that “having the least control can translate into having the least involvement”. The following interviews from FC5/2 (phase 2) clearly illustrated the tension between the local officers and local communities:

“We think the tourism in Chaiyaphum province still has got its own weaknesses, because TAT and the Regional Office of Tourism and Sports do not do their jobs properly. They only come and ask the residents for what we want and what we need but they do not give us the information about tourism at all, how could we help to sustain the environment then, this is opposite from what NGA (nongovernmental agency) does for us. I think if they would like to get the information from us, it would be better if they come and get involved with those residents who are involved within tourism, not those who are not interested about tourism or those who are not involved with the communities. Then, they would understand how this place has run the tourism and the evaluation from the governors could become useful in the future”.

(FC5/2, Local residents, focus groups, phase 2)

This comment showed the fractious relationships between the administrative officers and local residents. In this sense, the practices and methodologies of the officers only allow them to get the ‘information they want’, and to collate the information the residents have already known for quite some time, to help improve the communities. However, what the governors really need is to ensure that they provide residents with the knowledge and socialise informally with them more. Thai culture is highly socialised, and ‘getting to know’ local populations is crucial to convince people that a policy should be implemented for their benefit. From this point of view, FC5/2 (phase 2) illustrated that the residents possess closer relationships with groups other than the administrative organisations. LC3/3 (phase 3) also stated:

“We are not quite sure that the tourism officers who came to seek the information from us really understand what the tourism is. We still see that they are in conflict with each other, whilst they tried to explain us about the tourism issue. However, this is never occurred with NGA staff, we could ask anything about tourism topics, if they know they will tell us, if they do not they will try to find out for us and show us what they found later. I feel like I trust NGA staff more than the tourism officers”.

(LC3/3, Local residents, research diary, phase 3)

The quote illustrated that the local villagers consider some tourism administrative officers to have inadequate knowledge concerning tourism. For that reason, the local villager felt that other tourism sectors have a wider body of knowledge that could be shared with the villagers, and in turn, this could generate more discussion concerning the relationship between the stakeholders and how they communicate and work together. McKercher and Ritchie (1997) note that if the tourism officers lack expertise and skills in the tourism fields, this will affect the development of tourism and its ability to add to economic growth. In addition, to introduce ecotourism education to the local areas, the officers must make sure that they are not misleading and understand the importance of environmental education (West and Carrier, 2004). This could lead to complexity in the relationship between local traditional and scientific knowledge, and cultural change (Jamal and Stronza, 2009). Thus, Pornprasit and Rurkkhum suggest that in Satun province, within the Southern region of Thailand, the local governance structures also must ensure that the training courses within their ecotourism development plans include their local staff and the specific knowledge they require — i.e. “the history, ethnicity, geography, and natural history of their local area” (Pornprasit and

Rurkkhum, 2019, p.55) — because this can help the local residents to learn more about their background and apply it in their daily lives.

In addition to this, a comment from GA10 (phase 1), considered an ‘expert’ in the field, illustrated the view of the relationship between the national government agencies and local people. GA10 (phase 1) stated:

“I think the relationship conflicts are not taking place within the stakeholders in different sectors, but they are occurring within Departmental structures themselves. Our opinions sometimes are different from tourism development officers. We think more about sustaining the environment, but TAT only focuses on how to benefit local communities and investigate new tourism destinations. We discuss with them about how to improve the tourism destinations, but some staff within TAT have inadequate knowledge about tourism. For this reason, we end up not to make any progress on improving the quality of tourism destinations”.

(GA10, National government officer, phase 1)

As a result, this member mentioned that the problems causing the conflicts between some departments relating to the environment and TAT include the limited knowledge of staff, the different interests within each department and the lack of communication.

Similarly, an interview with an ‘expert’ in culture also clarifies how knowledge and objectives in different departments are a hindrance to building relationships and trust between GA12 (phase 1) and other groups of stakeholders:

“For me, I see myself and colleagues as someone who tries to help and pay attention to the cultural heritage areas. More than half of us have a qualification in cultural heritage specialisms. However, for those from tourism-development perspective, I think they see themselves as the people who focus on how to boost the economics within the host communities. I understand that this department has just opened and the staff those work in there are new and not familiar with the tourism field. For example, while they have produced the ideas about the signage within the tourist sites, we and other sectors thought that this was a great idea to do. However, when these signs have been erected, they ended up covering some parts of the cultural heritage sites, we question their expertise. Moreover, the information on there is displayed too small and I and my colleagues think it is not representing the information about the area accurately, but instead, is only representing the sponsors who have provided money for producing it”.

(GA12, National government officer, phase 1)

Over time, the lack of knowledge within government departments has gradually decreased the confidence and trust in working with tourism development. The relationships between the departments and how they operate in isolation from one another is a consistent theme found from the field research. The discussions so far make clear that the villagers tend to have negative views of the government authorities but a more favourable opinion of the nongovernmental agencies. The following section discusses this point further.

7.4 The Engagement of Nongovernmental Agency (NGA) in Ecotourism

The NGA deals with marketing through the provinces, to ensure that their province will become one of the leaders in their respective region and Thailand (e.g. job creation for local people). NGA engages more closely with the administrative organisations, tourism operators and local populations.

The distinctive relationships between the NGA and other tourism stakeholders may appear different from the perspective of other types of stakeholders. The NGA is not part of the government authorities; it can act and initiate activity more quickly than other tourism government stakeholders. Those in the NGA do separately the types of jobs that must be undertaken, including the tourism sector within their remit, as they pay attention to how to improve tourism so as to benefit the Chaiyaphum residents. From the following discussions with the focus group, ‘trust’ was an apparent issue; FC3/1 (phase 1) and FC5/2 (phase 2) stated:

“We think without the help of the NGA, the Siam Tulip Fields would not be able to become quite as popular as it is. Because with the help through the promotion from TAT, this would not help us to understand what we should do to help our communities that used to be poor to bring them profit. However, the NGA come and helps us by providing the support as well as some small equipment for us to make some souvenirs to sell while the festival runs”.

(FC3/1, Local residents, focus group, phase 1)

“For us, it was quite easy to get involved with the NGA. They helped us straight away. We did not need to wait for a long time for so many different government authorities to approve. At this time, we didn’t ask for money but

we asked them to help with the facilities. They just signed off straight away because they knew who the owners are. They also provided the staff to teach us what we need to do. So the result came out well”.

(FC5/2, Local residents, focus group, phase 2)

FC3/1 (phase 1) and FC5/2 (phase 2) noted two things of interest here: first, the closeness of the relationship between NGA and the community; second, the residents also must understand tourism, as well as how to make this tourism situation more beneficial to them. Kry *et al.* (2020) mention that in a similar situation in Cambodia, the nongovernmental agencies also taught them about tourism and how to make a living from tourism (such as driving motorboats). Aside from these two purposes, FC3/1 (phase 1) and FC5/2 (phase 2) mentioned that the local and provincial officers are not willing to help and provide knowledge to the residents, indicating that they cannot provide the good relationships and services embedded within their organisations.

Similarly, FC2/1 (phase 1), FC4/2 (phase 2) and LC7 (phase 3)—members of the women’s village sectors—produce silk and souvenirs as products to sell, to raise the funds for the communities and families. They mentioned:

“The NGA and other nongovernmental agencies always come, teach, support as well as help us by trying to sell the silk products or attract tourists to the local areas to see and buy local products. In addition, when the officers have turned down helping us with some projects, we went to ask and present the work to NGA about what we need and why we need them to help us to make silk products in time before the customers arrive. If they think it would be

useful, they will provide new items to us, instead of the old equipment or items requiring maintenance like the governors do”.

(FC2/1, Local residents, focus group, phase 1)

“The NGA had come to help us to set up the group. At first, we were only a small group with only four members. We said we do not know how to do this in a commercial way. We only produce to use in our family. But, since someone from NGA found out about our products, they decided to promote us to the province. That’s how our group started”.

(FC4/2, Local residents, focus group, phase 2)

“At first, our groups decided to put our products for sale. But it didn’t work at first. So, we decided to ask the other communities to help. They suggested we should go and see the NGA. So we did. Well, we told them briefly this are what we do and this is what we would like to sell. They helped us to improve our local products as well as the packing. At the same time, they also taught us how to sell. You can see, if we waited for the government authorities to come and help. We don’t know when they will come. They only come to see you when you are already established and claimed the credit about it”.

(LC7, Local residents, research diary, phase 3)

These comments illustrated that the relationship and trust between the NGA and local residents is different from that of the administrative officers and the communities. In particular, this indicated that the practices of the members of NGA are faster and more reliable than the official channels. Unfortunately, this case study is opposite to the case of

Cambodia; even though the NGA were reliable, in terms of help, when it came down to meetings with the local residents, the Cambodian governments seemed more reliable in organising regular meetings than the Thai NGA (Kry *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, the comments demonstrated that tourism has helped and improved women's status and empowerment to sustain their livelihoods without depending on men (Scheyvens, 2000; Rout and Mohanty, 2015; Vukovic *et al.*, 2021). Kry *et al.* (2020) even suggest that in Cambodia, women would require additional skills and training regarding how to work with tourists in foreign languages, so they could increase their household incomes. Unfortunately, in the case of Vietnam, men were still largely preferred over women for leadership and administrative positions (Tran and Walter, 2014). However, in Thailand, this has continued to change, and women have taken on more influential positions at both local and governmental levels. Indeed, women are increasingly educated through university, and their representation at all levels from the Thai state to local organisations has improved rapidly.

Next, I discuss about the engagement of tourism operators via Thai rural ecotourism.

7.5 The Engagement of Tourism Operators Through Ecotourism

This group only consists of tour operators run by Thai companies. Their engagement with ecotourism includes organising and providing holiday packages for tourists. While they organise the tour, they also must contact other tourism sectors within the host communities (e.g. hoteliers, transport, restaurants, souvenir shops) to make sure that when travelling within the host tourist destinations, their choices will completely satisfy the tourists. Tourism Operators state that they can be recognised as one of the organisations that also play an important role in the ecotourism market. However, the strength of relationships between them and other stakeholders — such as administrative officers, nongovernmental agencies, tourists and local communities — is variable. I return to this point later in the chapter. In this thesis,

the information from the Thai tour operators providing trips to Chaiyaphum province is all that is discussed; those run by international organisations were unwilling to take part in this research (see **Chapter 5**).

The practices of the tour operations have subsequently led to concerns over the strength of the relationships between the tour operators, administrative organisations and nongovernmental agencies. However, for others, such as communities and tourists, the relationships between the tour operators differ from the relationships with the administrative organisations. This is because not all tour operators can get involved with the local residents and tourists, due to the limitations of the tour operations within the province, the size of tour operators and tourist requirements.

The members of administrative officers, each of whom is considered as an ‘expert’ in relation to the Chaiyaphum tourist destinations, discussed the relationship between the tour operators and administrative officers:

“In reality, the tour operators who bring tours to Chaiyaphum would prefer not to get in touch with us because they could directly seek the information about the province, where they need to go, stay and eat through the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT). In addition, I also think that the tour operators do prefer not to contact us because they already know the hoteliers and restaurants within the province as well as to keeping away from government authorities because of the laws and policies that were created to look after the customer experiences”.

(GA3, Central government officers, phase 1)

This confirmed that the relationship between the tour operators and the administrative officers is not close. The GA3 (phase 1) mentioned that the tour staffs prefer to seek information and ‘make deals’ with the hoteliers and restaurants; they do not recognise that the province has a tourism officer that may be of help in providing information that the tour operators need. Moreover, the tour operators sometimes like to avoid contact with the government authorities, due to the tourism regulations and policies that may ultimately affect their companies in the future. A lack of expertise within the local and national government settings is a recurring theme.

In the same way, another interview with a member of the TAT mentions:

“TAT is known as an organisation that helps to advertise the tourism destinations within each province and at the same we provide the courses for the tour operators, such as those concerning security for tourists, ecotourism and tour guides. Moreover, we also provide the tour operator registrations to make sure that they are legal within the Thai tourism market. However, we do not have the right to ask them to attend the courses as well as ask them to register their tour operations under TAT regulations. However, after they registered, we only hope that they will not take this for granted, and at the same time, we are not too worried as tourists would judge them from what they do. So we think that they are not going to risk their business by doing something illegal”.

(GA4, National government officer, phase 1)

According to the interview above, TAT provided the information, tourism courses and registered papers, as well as face-to-face meetings. However, the tour operators preferred to

receive information from TAT via their website, instead of more traditional means of communication. The member of TAT also recognised that tourists have the power to influence the tour operators. GA4 (phase 1) also reported that the tour operators would prefer to closely maintain their relationship with the tourists as the ones who can make or break their businesses.

From the researcher's own personal experiences as a tourist who came with a tour operator outside Chaiyaphum province, the following account from my own notes describes the relationship between the tour operator and tourists:

“When I entered into the coach, the members of the tour operator started to greet me with friendly gestures. On the way to tourism destination, we started to play games and sing songs—these activities started to get the tourists to know each other as well as becoming familiar with the members of the tour operator, too. Once we arrived, the tour guide provided us with the information about the place, took us to the restaurants where they already provided us the food and took us to the souvenir shops. In addition, when the tour members went inside these places, such as the restaurant and souvenir shops, I felt that they knew each other well”.

(Author field diary, phase 1)

This experience confirmed that the relationship between the tourists and members of tour operators is close. The domestic and international tourists could also confirm the comments above. DT8/1 (phase 1) and IT5/1 (phase 1) stated:

“I thought this company help Chaiyaphum province and their local communities a lot. We brought a large amount of money to local communities. From what we could see, the company was closed to the local owners and the staff in the national park. We were happy to join this company, we had used them for a long time. Nothing we could doubt about their services and the idea of giving back to the communities”.

(DT8/1, Domestic tourist, research diary, phase 1)

“My Thai friends suggested me to join this company. It is well-known for ecotourism programmes and also involves the local communities to participate. In this trip, I saw that this company has tried to involve the local residents as much as they can. For example, we used the local tour guides, the local transportation, the local food sellers and souvenirs. I was extremely happy to participate the tour with them and I am looking forward to use them again in the future”.

(IT5/1, International tourist, research diary, phase 1)

In addition, the researcher (phase 1), DT8/1 (phase 1) and IT5/1 (phase 1) also indicated that the practices between the local communities and the tour operators have increased their level of involvement, in terms of tourism activities within the community. However, the ecotourism operators rarely received the information about natural resources and the local cultures within the destinations and immediate localities (Sangpikul, 2020). This was also the case in the aforementioned quote.

The following focus group conversations illustrated the opinion of the local residents towards the tour members:

“The tour operators, I would like to say that they are helping us in some sense because they bring the tourists to us, not only Thai citizens but also international tourists to visit and also buy the souvenirs from our local residents. In addition, I also think that it helps the local populations to start to think that tourism is beneficial. So we need to get involved into it, then we could earn money like in other groups, such as the silk woman group and wood decoration group”.

(FC1/1, Local residents, focus group, phase 1)

“We love to see the tour operators and all the tourists. They have helped us in terms of financial issues, promote our local groups and our areas, and also help my kids to improve English and learn how to save money. At first, we all against the tourism but we can now see the benefits of it more than the drawback”.

(FC3/1, Local residents, focus group, phase 1)

These conversations demonstrated that the local residents create a sense of connection with the tour operators, expressing the belief that the tour operators have helped them to improve the income within the local community by bringing both domestic and international tourists. However, in the case of Southern Ethiopia, Wondirad, Tolkaach and King (2020, p. 11) illustrate that “the linkages between communities and tour operators are almost non-existent because they are privately owned”. As a result, conflicts have risen between the local residents and tour operators. Furthermore, in the case of Chiang Rai, Thailand, Palmer and Chuamuangphan found that:

“The villagers used to earn more income before the tourism agencies became involved: Tourists often came to the village via tour operators and they had just looked around the village without doing any shopping . . . They [tourists] just looked around the village for elephant riding, watching hand made products and seeing our [villagers] local ways . . . In the past, they [visitors] came for days and spent time with local people, stayed overnight with us . . . Yes, we got more money than now”.

(Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018, p. 330)

In addition, FC1/1 (phase 1) and FC3/1 (phase 2) also expressed their feelings about the tourists (domestic and international) by mentioning that tourists have helped them and their colleagues to earn money from selling their local homemade products to tourists.

Next, I move on to discuss the engagement of tourists through Thai rural ecotourism.

7.6 The Engagement of Tourists Through Ecotourism

These groups consist of two types of populations: domestic and international tourists, those who travel to somewhere different from their normal lifestyles, by being inside or outside of their home countries for no longer than a year. The main engagement of tourists is to respect the host communities and to follow the rules and the culture within each country or tourist destination they visit. For example, Pornprasit and Rurkkhum (2019, pp. 51-52) point out that some government authorities decided to create “rules for the visitors such as the time to sleep, not being noisy, not drinking alcohol, and not smoking, so visitors need to follow the rules of the community”. Alternatively, when the tourists enter the national parks, they are not permitted to damage the biodiversity surrounding the tourist areas. Moreover, for those tourists who visit the heritage and cultural areas, they must ensure that they do not touch or

create negative impacts on something that could consequently cause problems to destinations. For example, tourists should not attempt to take stones for personal collections. In this sense, ecotourism presents several boundaries to tourists.

Relationships between the tourists and other ecotourism stakeholders, such as administrative authorities, nongovernmental agencies, tourism operators and the local communities, vary depending on tourists' characteristics and the power of rulers within localities. Discussing opinions expressed through the tourists' perceptions would occur mostly via the interviews, focus groups and research diaries.

This section has two parts: first, discussing the power and relationship between both types of tourists (international and domestic) and other stakeholders; second, demonstrating the differences in stakeholders' behaviour toward Thai and international tourists

In an interview, a member of TA1 mentions the hidden power of international tourists, who have driven the local destinations from agricultural to industrialised communities:

“Before we considered to take any international tourists to visit the tourism destinations, we needed to make sure that we had organised the right packages for the tourists, especially for those international ones because they have set the high standards while they are being served. I could not let them stay with the local residents; I need to make sure that the province has the nice hotels for them to stay in and the good quality of food for them to eat. The local residents start to turn their rice fields into hotels, as well as borrow some money to build up the entertainment facilities such as bars and golf clubs. Additionally, some tourists also suggested to the local residents about making small souvenirs for those who do not prefer to buy big pieces. Since then, when we go back to the same shop, we start to see some small and medium

souvenirs around the shops. Moreover, I was also shocked that the souvenir shops have increased quite a lot within one year, and I nearly forgot the shops which I had known since the last trip”.

(TO1, Tourism operators, phase 1)

In this interview, TA1 (phase 1) clearly illustrated the close relationships between tourists and tour operators and identified the tourists’ values that have contributed to driving revenues within the company. His comments also demonstrate the practices between the tour operators and tourists and fewer conflicts between the tourists and other stakeholders, in part due to tourists being the main driving force behind the generation of money for the company. He also demonstrates that the relationships between tourists and local communities are close, because the local residents and the tourists share opinions concerning what they should do to benefit and increase incomes within the local communities. Moreover, he points out that tourists not only influence the local communities through the making of souvenirs; they also influence lifestyles. For example, he mentions that local residents have converted their rice farms into hotels or resorts, to meet the needs of the tourism market within Thailand, and that other local residents’ have gravitated away from traditional farming, towards a more commercial, market-oriented mentality.

Moreover, Sofield and Li (2003) mention that while introducing the Moli Forest Scenic Reserve, China, as a tourism destination, the park officers had to make sure it met the needs of tourists, so the number of tourists will increase. In turn, this helps to protect nature and local residents because of the income-generation potential.

Similarly, GA1 (phase 1), considered the core member of the provincial and local administrative organisations, noting:

“I think to persuade tourists (domestic or/and international) from different places to visit Chaiyaphum province could be identified in the provincial strategy plans. Because when tourists are arriving within the destinations, they have created jobs within the sectors, such as hoteliers, restaurants and souvenir shops. He also identifies that if one tourist buys a bowl of noodles, the money does not go directly to the restaurants alone, but it filters down to those people who grow the vegetables and run pig farms, too. However, I do not say that these jobs should become the main jobs within the areas because the seasons of tourism are short, so I would not ask people to quit their main job but use the tourism as a second job to help increase their family incomes instead”.

(GA1, National government officer, phase 1)

This interviewee comments that the relationship between the local residents and tourists is one in which they rely on each other, as the tourists must buy food from the local sellers, and the sellers need the tourists to buy from them. Moreover, GA1 (phase 1) also pointed out that the tourists visits are seasonal, only during a limited period, and that is one reason why the tourism jobs cannot completely replace existing work. Tourism constitutes additional income for those people who rely on their main income from seasonal periods, such as farmers and fishermen (Ford and Acott, 2015; Gao and Wu, 2017; Syamimi *et al.*, 2019).

However, the influences from tourists also can be disadvantages for those countries or communities where tourists are a significant source of income, as the tourists’ practices were often represented as careless. The following interview demonstrates how the increasing numbers of tourists have caused problems in the local tourism destinations within Chaiyaphum:

“Recently, tourism within Chaiyaphum province has started to increase each year, especially during the rainy seasons. This has caused problems especially to us, the members of the national park, as well as the animals inside there. Because people who like to stay here sometimes leave their waste where they stay and made loud noises. This not only disturbs humans but it also scares the animals. It is quite sad that the animals that we used to see are not showing themselves close to these areas, but they start to live farther away from the people’s tents”.

(GA9, National government officers, phase 1)

The interview indicates that some Thai tourists do not pay much attention to environmental issues and community engagement, especially in relation to the tourist destinations. GA9 (phase 1) emphasises that if the tourists still continue to undertake irresponsible behaviours in the tourist areas, the local people will lose all their unique flowers, on top of the documented changes in animal behaviours within the national park. My findings reflect that tourists do not see themselves as stakeholders, perhaps due to the temporary nature of their stay in ecotourism sites in Northeast Thailand.

Similarly, an interview with the member of Local Administrative Officers (LAO) illustrated how the presence of Thai and International tourists had led to concerns within local tourist destinations:

“The problems of tourism within Chaiyaphum province include being deprived of Thai tourists, not international tourists. Thai tourists tend to leave waste around the sites. I am not going to blame them all because sometimes the members of the parks could not clean adequately because of staffing

issues. However, if the local communities start to get more involved within the Siam Tulip season, this would definitely help the members of the park to clean and at the same time, we satisfy the tourists with the cleanliness and this would help them to come back again with joy and happiness”.

(GA2, Local government officer, phase 1)

“We could see that both types of international and domestic tourists are creating the benefits not only to the rural tourism areas themselves but also increase the welfare of the local residents within the areas. I couldn’t see why local people would not like them unless they create more drawbacks within the areas. I could give example to you today, as I have involved with numerous of both kind of tourists, Thai tourists often have less environmental ethics than the international tourists. They often ignore the signs those local residents and government staff put them on. But this is opposite to the international ones”.

(GA16, Local government officer, phase 2)

“As an officer, I often see how tourists behave via the office. The international tourists always bring less stuff while they travel around the site. However, for those domestic ones, they often carry a large amount of stuff while they travel. So often when my team and I walk around the site, we often see the products those domestic tourists bought and left around the sites. I am not saying that most of the domestic tourists are naughty. Because, I have started to see the changes of the domestic tourist, especially on environmentally friendly behaviours”.

(LC9/3, Local government officer, research diary, phase 3)

GA2 (phase 1), GA16 (phase 2) and GA24 (phase 3) demonstrated the way in which they see international and domestic tourists. While they are good sources of income, they also contribute negatively to local economic, cultural and environmental issues. In addition, they also illustrated that not enough people help to clear the waste after the tourists leave the sites.

The following interview illustrates the opinion that Thai stakeholders have of international tourists. TA2 (phase 1) clearly stated:

“Every programme we have created, has relied on the international tourists, not the domestic ones. We need to make sure we have impressed the international tourists as much as we could, not only with the tour itself but also with the services, too. Thus, they could feel happy and come back to buy the tour packages from us again in the future”.

(TO2, Tourism operators, phase 1)

This interview confirmed that international tourists are a key demographic for the tour operators, more so than the domestic tourists. TO2 (phase 1) demonstrated that the services they have provided to the international tourists differ from the Thai tourists, as the tour operators can earn more income from the international tourists and, subsequently, felt that they must provide better hospitality in order to influence international tourists to rebook with them again. However, for the Thai people, the tour operators felt that Thai tourists are the minority groups, who top up tourism operator income, but an added extra and not as essential. Thus, they treat Thai people differently from international tourists.

From the researcher’s personal experiences as a tourist and an interviewer, the tour guides were nice and paid keen attention to the international tourists, more so than the domestic tourists, as illustrated below:

“During the trip, both couples sat in front of me; older couple from Australia and young couple from Thailand. The Australian woman asked the tour guide about the trip information and other cultural heritage destinations, the drinks, where to eat and so on. Since the Thai couples saw this, they thought they could ask the tour guide about the drinks like the Australian woman did. When the tour guide arrived, I personally thought she was a bit rude to the young Thai couple. She pulled a face at them and complained while she walked past me to get them something as they had asked her so often”.

(Author field diary, phase 1)

“While I collected data in Pa Hin Ngam national park, I went up to the tour guide lady and mentioned that “I am doing fieldwork for my PhD, is it possible for me to ask their customers about how did they hear about Pa Hin Ngam national park and what they liked about their experiences?” While she headed to contact the bus to take the tourists to see the Siam Tulip field, she turned around and replied to me in a really rude tone, “No, who are you? Get away from my customers”. Umm , . . I turned around and saw her talk to the customers in different tone and she said to them, ‘Please wait here, we will bring your tickets and take the buses to come and pick you up here’”.

(Author field diary, phase 1)

These two experiences confirmed that the way in which tour operators treat Thai customers can be different from the international tourists, bordering on discrimination. In addition, the researcher also indicated that domestic and international tourists have different motivations when travelling with the tour operators. TO3 (phase 1) mentioned:

“I think the way to impress the international tourists is easier than trying to impress those tourists from the same countries. Because most international tourists would like to be away from home and of course, when they arrived in Thailand, they would like to be treated differently from their home. If we provide the luxury facilities or take them to see cultural heritage, they would feel happy about it. However, for the domestic Thai tourists, we hardly provide the activities to meet their needs, especially trips relating to cultural heritage areas. I think Thai people are not interested to see such places. Moreover, they also complain about food the hotelier is providing for them because they think it is more expensive than other locations and the taste of food is different. But we have selected the hoteliers that can provide the standard taste for both types of tourists”.

(TO3, Tourism operators, phase 1)

The interview demonstrated how the tour operator feels while serving both customers (international and domestic tourists). TO3 (phase 1) expressed that to meet the needs to both tourist groups' satisfaction, the tour operator and the hoteliers chose to maintain the needs of the international tourists and, as they are in the same group, those that could afford the luxury services more than those groups from the domestic tourists. Additionally, TO3 (phase 1) also mentioned that the consumption habits of Thai tourists and international tourists vary, such as considering tourist destinations, tourist facilities and related services (see MOTS, 2017, as an example). In the same way, several focus groups with the local villagers gave opinions relating to how these differing consumption practices have affected the local residents and services:

“Personally, I think the international tourists have different tastes from the local tourists. The international tourists would like to know how we produce silk, how we live, what do we do in our life, then later they head to look for the souvenirs or decide to stay with our home stay accommodation. But for the domestic tourists, they head straight to the local shops to buy silk products straight away and head home. In the local shops, the products mostly sell to those local people because the international tourists only spend some of their spare money on the small products made by silk. Consequently, I can say domestic tourists are interested about the products, but international ones are interested about our communities. For me, I think international tourists have paid less money into the communities than the Thai tourists”.

(FC2/1, Local residents, focus group, phase 1)

“To sell the local souvenirs to the international tourists could become the most challenges in our lives. We have tried to observe what they like and what they eat. But, every time, when they came into the souvenir shops, they often leave without buying anything. This is opposite to the domestic tourists; they mostly left the shops with something”.

(FC4/2, Local residents, focus group, phase 2)

Another local resident responded:

“I think international tourists are better than the domestic ones because their interests are diversifying, not only with the tourist destinations but also with the cultural aspects occurring in local communities. For me, to sell the

products to the Thai tourists, I have to try to make sure that I do not lose my profit on the product. But for the international ones, I do not need to explain anything; they just come and buy it from me without bartering at all. For me, I would say both tourists are important in different ways, Thai people would like to come over here for fun and relaxation, but the international ones come here to learn, live and experience some new aspects that are different from their home country. About the money, which ones spend more? I would say domestic ones because there is a large number of domestic tourists arriving in our community compared to the international tourists and the products we have sold mostly are attributed to domestic tourists”.

(LC6/3, Local residents, research diary, phase 3)

These messages, as a result of these discussions, noted two points of interest: first, the motivation of tourists; second, which types of tourists spend the most money in the local community. Aside from these two purposes, FC2/1 (phase 1), FC4/2 (phase 2) and LC6/3 (phase 3) also demonstrated that the money they received comes from domestic tourists, indicating that the local community is still not up-to-date in terms of what they should provide within the areas they serve, so as to meet the needs and the demands of both types of tourists. In this case, the international tourists are the group who are willing to learn and live inside the local community, but they are not there to buy local products. In order to cultivate this idea, the administrative officers must help the local residents to provide facilities as well as ways of demonstrating their local community knowledge to both types of tourists, international and domestic, in an engaging, proactive way. The communities recognise the need to do this, as opposed to the Thai state that directs funds to established tourist destinations and does not take a holistic approach.

Next, I discuss the engagement of local communities through ecotourism in Thai rural areas.

7.7 The Engagement of Local Communities Through Ecotourism

Williams and Gill (1994) suggest that within the process of positive tourism development, local residents were actively needed, especially their support. Those who live within their area for more than a year constitute local communities. Their main engagements (determined by the Ministry of Interior) are to respect, share opinions and maintain, preserve and sustain the environment, culture and historical heritage within the town. These practices help to promote a friendly atmosphere between the residents within their localities, as well as create relationships amongst administrative organisations, the nongovernmental agencies, tour operators and tourists. This level of relationship could ultimately vary, depending on the level of trust, participation in local activities and the responsibilities present in the relationship. However, Tosun and Jenkins (1998) and Nicholas, Thapa and Ko (2009) mention that even though the host communities appear important to the tourism operators or the policy makers, they have nevertheless been left behind during tourism-related implementation, especially within developing countries.

The local communities are significant actors within local ecotourism development, because they must have a close relationship with all the stakeholders, the people who ultimately live within the localities surrounding tourist destinations. As such, if the insiders do not feel proud and take good care of what they have, why would tourists care and help to sustain the tourist destinations? However, in Chaiyaphum province, the level of relationships could become close and complex with certain stakeholders. Tellingly, the level of relationships between the tourists and local communities is close, due to the tourists help in

local residents earning some income. However, the local communities fear over-dependence on tourism, as some residents have lost interest in traditional jobs, i.e. agricultural work.

To take some other examples by way of comparison, in India, while most Thenmala villagers are happy with the ecotourism programme, some have concerns about jobs and financial security, as well as their wages, job security, job discrimination, the recruitment practices and unequal job distribution among the local communities (Ashraf and Sibi, 2020). This has caused concerns regarding the issues of social problems and rural-to-urban migration. In Nepal, not many young people prefer to live in rural locations, due to the number of jobs in cities, and they decide to migrate to the main city to earn more income. So, it is only older generations who serve in the tourism sector because the tourism wages are relatively modest and seasonal. Thus, the local residents see that “their culture has changed and became a source of earning money from the tourists” (Thapa, 2010, p. 55).

The following interview with the NGA explains this situation in the Thai context:

“While there are a large number of tourists arriving within the silk village, we could see that the areas that used to be normal local shops have transformed themselves into the big markets along the road for more than a mile. The normal lifestyles of local residents where I used to live are hardly to be seen in the main village now because they are known as the marketing areas. So, if the tourists would like to see how they produce silk, they need to go to the other villages nearby. I think this situation is such a pity because the young local residents now do not really care about how to make silk and do the agriculture because they think this job would not be able to help them to earn more

money. So, that is why they prefer to move to the big cities such as Bangkok, instead”.

(NGA, Nongovernmental agency, phase 1)

The interview showed that the NGA creates a sense of connection with the tourists and local communities. The NGA (phase 1) illustrated that the silk village now has turned itself into a market area where tourists can visit, purchase the products, then go. Thus, the tourists cannot benefit from other parts of the village, which is ultimately why it has received the younger people looking for employment opportunities in Bangkok. The benefits of tourism also depend on the distance from where the local people stay. Das (2017) found that at about 1 km, the local people receive the most benefits from the tourists; the farther you live, the less you will get. Accordingly, the closer the local residents live, the more positive perceptions of tourism development impacts tend to be (Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Almeyda *et al.* 2010; Syamimi *et al.*, 2019; Mree *et al.*, 2020).

However, the following interview illustrated how administrative officers and local residents have improved relationships with each other, as well as their enthusiasm about activities in their localities:

“At first, all the members of the national park went down to talk to local communities about why we need to look after the locality and why the park must have restricted access, compared with the recent past. At that time, they do not like us at all, the villagers tried to do the opposite from what we have asked them to do. But recently, we went to the schools instead, showing how Siam Tulips are so important to them, and later we create the festival called ‘Growing Siam Tulip’ by asking all the members in the communities to come

and get involved. We could say that this programme is one of the primary activities that integrate us within the local communities”.

(GA9, National government officers, phase 1)

One aspect from the interview that the member of Pa Hin Ngam national park indicates is that the local communities and national park members have developed trust with each other. GA9 (phase 1) emphasised how the members prefer the practices of a friendly relationship to develop close relationships between the two stakeholder groups. In Thai culture, in order to build both trust and a sense of community spirit, people prefer to be friendly rather than showing anger, and local residents have a preference for not getting involved in conflict. Nicholas, Thapa and Ko (2009) report that whilst local communities have positive thoughts concerning tourism and other stakeholders, the local residents and the locality would receive significant benefits, i.e. employment and management (Anyaoku and Martin, 2003; Smith, 2003; Choi and Murray, 2010; Qian *et al.*, 2017; Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, 2019). However, this may not be well received if there are some conflicts with local politicians. The following suggestions came from GA13 (phase 2) and LA25 (phase 3):

“I think if the local communities have networked with the politicians, all the work would become easier for them to manage. However, while they still have got politicians within their localities, their tourist destinations would end up as places where they seek more money and investment instead of sustaining and earning money long-term”.

(GA13, National government officer, phase 2)

“I don’t want to talk about this, but the conflicts are often coming from the involvement of politicians. They often drive the tourism project in a non-ethical and unsustainable direction. The money is often blown on things we don’t need. But we couldn’t say much about it”.

(LA25, Local government officer and residents, research diary, phase 3)

GA13 (phase 2) and LA25 (phase 3) demonstrated that politics is one of the core aspects in terms of guiding tourism in local communities. For example, if politicians within a community feel enthusiastic about tourism, the residents will accordingly feel the same way. The residents have realised that the tourists will bring them money, and at the same time, the tourists also help to secure focus on the issues of concern, namely, sustainability and maintenance through different aspects, such as environment, culture and heritage sites. However, for those other politicians, rather than showing an interest on how to protect the local areas, they view rebuilding and/or resurfacing roads as a greater priority. Similarly, GA12 (phase 1) commented on the relationship between local communities and tourism:

“I think the Thai local communities only worry about income more than maintaining and sustaining the nature and heritage sites. Because they think that it is all the government officers’ responsibilities. They only think that to sustain is to create something to overcome the problems within a short time frame. However, for us, we need to analyse and evaluate those materials if they would help to sustain the localities or not. I think that for real ecotourism to prosper, the residents should not do anything inside the place, apart from look after the place, make the place clean and make friendship with tourists”.

(GA12, National government officers, phase 1)

The interview showed that initiative and goal setting is rare in Thai society, and the local communities were sometimes found to be greedy concerning the value they could secure from customers, rather than dealing with what they should do in order to make the tourists feel that they should visit the place again. The choices made whilst building roads and track trails could become problems later on, in consideration of the environment and heritage areas. If ecotourism locations become over developed, they become less attractive to ecotourists.

7.8 Conclusion

The administrative organisations confirmed that the engagement and relationships between different governors can come into conflict if the leadership does not foster relationships and build trust with other sectors. Moreover, the use of power and the expertise of the tourism field can be crucial in helping ecotourism become sustainable. The rapid changes of key personnel within government departments also cause disruption not only to the collaboration of different stakeholders but also to the tourism projects themselves. Unfortunately, in terms of listening to the voices of others, the Thai administrative organisations are still considered at an early phase of forming multi-stakeholder partnerships.

The NGA are known to be quite the opposite of the administrative organisations, in terms of forming close relationships and developing trustworthiness within the local communities. This could be because the NGA are not involved with many different organisations, in terms of exercising participation and engagement. Moreover, within the NGA themselves, they do not change the team of staff frequently like the administrative organisations, so they have known exactly what they need to do. Thus, the processes are faster and less bureaucratic than the administrative organisations. Moreover, in terms of listening to others, the NGA are the most productive, due to the positive responses received from local communities.

In reality, the tour operators only engaged and had close relationships with some tourists and some local communities. This varies, depending on the local communities and the group size of the tourists, in addition to the personal contact between those aforementioned groups. Although there are some close engagements amongst tourists, local communities and tour operators, nevertheless, those administrative organisations and the nongovernmental agencies do not have the close engagement with the tour operators that tourists and local communities do. This is because the administrative organisations and non-administrative agencies only allow contact via phone and short conversations, and, thus, the level of engagement via the tour operators is low. In terms of their voices, even though the tour operators seem an essential core group within the ecotourism destinations, unfortunately, their voices are minor in policy making but influential in decision-making for the local communities.

The tourists are known as being the core group because they and the stakeholders rely on each other for integrating tourism development within the local areas. If one does not get involved, the others' work is delayed or collapses altogether. For example, to create tourist infrastructure, all stakeholders must first get involved with each other; if the communities do not allow it, then other members of administrative organisations, the non-administrative agency, tour operators and tourists could not build roads²² or facilities, promote the area as a tourist destination, bring tourists to visit and ultimately benefit the local communities. Although they have a strong engagement and relationship with other actors, this does not mean that the engagement can bring in valuable jobs in ecotourism destinations. Similarly, in terms of their voices, the tourists have played a vital role for all ecotourism stakeholders because they are a main factor driving ecotourism towards new locations, such as the Northeast of Thailand.

²² The road was built by the Ministry of Transport (Department of Highways).

The final group — local communities — are one of the core groups to which all stakeholders should pay attention. They are the stakeholders who directly receive the benefits and disadvantages from all types of activities, from all stakeholders. They must maintain and sustain the tourist destinations in the future and, ultimately, live within the localities. They also have the most experience. Therefore, in order to improve engagement and relationships within local communities, as well as with other actors, we first must make sure that we have the involvement of local communities (not only in terms of money but also via personal contacts) and share in the diverse belief systems of different people and trust. In addition, other stakeholders also must pay attention to the local community voices. Acknowledging local people can provide long-term benefits not only in terms of welfare but also the ecotourism projects themselves.

The next chapter summarises the research findings and the main arguments of this thesis and discusses its contribution, suggesting possible ideas for future research work.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This thesis set out to examine the Thai stakeholders and their ecotourism experiences, in the context of the recent growth of tourism in the rural areas. Its aim is to contribute to the ecotourism literature by researching the significance of a plethora of Thai stakeholders.

The chapter comprises three main areas. The first summarises the research findings and the main arguments of this thesis by demonstrating the extent to which it achieves its the objectives. The second discusses its contributions. The third evaluates its approaches and to queries how doing anything differently during the research process would have affected the outcome. Suggestions for future research in the area of ecotourism are also considered.

8.2 The Research Questions Re-examined

Chapter One introduces the main focus of the thesis. In particular, the researcher primarily planned to investigate how Thai stakeholders experience ecotourism in the context of the recent growth of tourism in the rural areas. The three objectives focused on describing the Thai rural ecotourism stakeholders (see **chapter 4**), how the Thai ecotourism stakeholders construct the concept of ecotourism (see **chapter 6**) and, finally, Thai ecotourism stakeholders' views on managing ecotourism at the local level (see **chapter 7**).

The three tourist destinations (Prang Ku, Ban Khwao and Pa Hin Ngam national park) in Chaiyaphum province contextualised the study's main focus, as this could help to widen the lens for understanding the barriers to implementing ecotourism in rural areas, especially in Northeast Thailand. The researcher used interviews, focus groups, open-ended questionnaires, a research diary and secondary data to extract answers relating to the three objectives.

Numerous studies focus on ecotourism in Thailand (see Hvenegaard and Dearden, 1998a, 1998b; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004a; Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen and Duangsaeng, 2014; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021), especially local community-based ecotourism (see Leksakundilok, 2004; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005; Laverack and Thangphet, 2009; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018; Meemana and Yujun, 2019), and the relationships among ecotourism stakeholders (see Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004b; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Pornprasit and Rurkkhum, 2019; Sangpikul, 2020; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021). Nonetheless, few studies focus on the different perceptions, or *constructions*, of ecotourism and, thus, defining ecotourism within Thailand and developing countries. However, a handful of studies address the context of established ecotourism destinations in developed and developing countries, such as Canada, Australia, the UK, Thailand, African countries and Sri Lanka. Only a few studies focus on the less popular ecotourism areas in Cambodia, Vietnam and Thailand. This study attempts to fill this gap, especially in the rural areas in Northeast of Thailand. The next section re-examines the thesis's three objectives.

8.2.1 *Who Are the Thai Rural Ecotourism Stakeholders? (Research Question 1)*

The thesis identifies a list of stakeholders involved with ecotourism in Thailand — i.e. Central Administrative Organisation (CAO), Regional Administrative Organisations (RAO), Local Administrative Organisations (LAO), The Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA), tourism operators, tourists and local communities. It notes similarities in terms of Thai stakeholders' involvement in ecotourism, compared to ecotourism stakeholders in other developed and developing countries (Diamantis, 2018; Osman, Shaw and Kenawy, 2018; Chen, Lai and Huang, 2020; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020; Neger, 2021). Unfortunately, few studies (Leksakundilok, 2004; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Homklin, 2020; Hongjamrassilp,

Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021) focus on explaining what the key ‘government’ institutions do in terms of ecotourism. In this research, I have moved beyond explaining the key government institutions by adopting the scheme of Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) and analysing who and what organisations should appear as Thai ecotourism management stakeholders. The results of **Chapter 4**, illustrate that most Thai government administrative authorities, tourism operators and tourists held the power to keep ecotourism programmes running. Sadly, not many Thai local people know where to pursue help from the Thai government administrative authorities. Thai nongovernmental agencies and local communities have an active role in some aspects of the ecotourism programme. The least powerful and influential group of Thai ecotourism stakeholders were from the government administrative authorities: the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (MNRE) and the Ministry of Culture (MOC). Moreover, the research also examines the Thai ecotourism stakeholders’ roles and experiences within the tourism stakeholder organisations. At the same time, it also points out that the lack of specialist training for officers in an economy defined by tourism is quite worrying for Thailand going forward (see Leksakundilok, 2004; Homklin, 2020).

The relationship between Thai ecotourism stakeholders in ecotourism in rural areas is quite distinctive, compared to other developed countries. Within the developed countries, the ecotourism stakeholders generally know clearly what they need to do and with whom they can work and form relationships while they support ecotourism (e.g. Canada). Unfortunately, in the developing countries (including Thailand), the government institutions are still the main stakeholder with the power to deliver ecotourism projects (see Leksakundilok, 2004; Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Homklin, 2020; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021). This is a governance deficit, a common feature of developing countries. They control the budgets, so ecotourism destinations’ success often depends on their expertise (see Homeklin, 2020; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021).

More recently, the Thai government institutions have shown a preference towards allowing other Thai ecotourism stakeholders — i.e. Local Administrative Organisations (LAO), Nongovernmental Agencies (NGA), tourism operators, tourists and local communities — to run their ecotourism projects, by themselves. The reason is the changes in tourist behaviours towards ethical tourism (e.g. Sin and Minca, 2014; TATNews, 2022), tourism operators and changing political structures from a top-down, technocratic government approach to a bottom-up approach (neopopulism).

8.2.2 *How do the Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders Construct the Concept of Ecotourism?*

(Research Question 2)

The thesis notes the value of defining ecotourism in Thailand as tourism that helps to sustain its natural, cultural and heritage aspects and improves residents' quality of life (see **Chapter 6**). Moreover, according to the summarised findings in **Chapter 6** (see **Table 8.1**), the core element within the definition of ecotourism is 'the great emphasis on nature' (based on the first four answers from the Thai ecotourism stakeholders). Furthermore, the great emphasis on nature occupied the highest place in all four of the various stakeholders' preference rankings of (74%). Moreover, the academic literature's consensus (see **Appendix 10**) is that ecotourism should always emphasise the importance of 'natural areas' (98%). Thai tourists, international tourists and Thai authorities and residents recorded 'nature' as important (79%, 79% and 74%, respectively), but not to the same extent the academic literature emphasises it at 98%. This clearly demonstrates that Thai academic, international tourists, Thai authorities and residents interpret ecotourism differently from Thai tourists. All three Thai ecotourism stakeholders—Thai academic, international tourists, Thai authorities and residents—ranked nature as the most important aspect of the ecotourism definition. However, Thai tourists ranked nature second to economics, showing (in combination with

interview data) how different stakeholders construct the meaning of ecotourism (See **Table 8.1** below).

Ecotourism Characteristics	Academic Literature (N=80)	Thai Participants (Authorities and Residents) (N=38)	Thai Tourist Participants (N=279)	International Tourist Participants (N =223)
Nature	98% (78/80)	74% (28/38)	79% (221/279)	79% (175/223)
Economics	38% (30/80)	34% (13/38)	82% (228/279)	75% (168/223)
Culture	28% (22/80)	61% (23/38)	52% (144/279)	54% (121/223)
Heritage	13% (10/80)	53% (20/38)	28% (79/279)	51% (114/223)
Archaeology	3% (2/80)	and 50% (19/38)	38% (105/279)	66% (147/223)

Table 8.1: Combined Analysis of Ecotourism’s Characteristics Through Different Actors: Nature, Economics, Culture, and Heritage and Archaeology

This research refers to economics as that which leads to a higher material standard of living and the resulting improved quality of life within the local communities/host countries. The Thai tourists and international tourists believed that ecotourism should involve economics, by which they mean ‘to benefit the local communities economically’ (82% and

75% respectively) (see **Table 8.1**). However, the academic literature (38%) and Thai authorities and residents (34%) thought differently of this belief. Thai participants from authorities and residents showed the least interest in an emphasis on economics in ecotourism, classifying it as the lowest ranked position of all four categories in the definition of ecotourism. The reasons for this could be that Thai authorities and residents believe that emphasising economics would lead to mass (and unsustainable) tourism, leading them to emphasise economics less than nature (Martha, 2012; Neger, 2021).

The great emphasis on the *cultural* aspect ranked third, and the interest in this element scored less than 61% from all four participant groups (see **Table 8.1**). The importance of culture in the definition shows in the three highest rankings from Thai authorities and residents (61%), international tourists (54%) and domestic tourists (52%).

The quote below from one national government officer indicates that some interviewees believes that the cultural aspect should be included in the meaning of ecotourism since nature and culture are interwoven:

“People often overlook at the terminology of ‘ecotourism’, people often think ecotourism is only involved with ecological sites. But for me and the rest of my teams, we believe that ecotourism has its roots not only to nature but also to culture. For example, our team went to promote ecotourism to one of the provinces in the North of Thailand; we noticed that ecotourism has brought people, culture, religious and nature even closer. For example, the local people has tried to illustrate how their cultures and religious have taught them to live and safeguard the national parks, the wild animals and improve the quality of water around the surrounding areas. They have tried to demonstrate that culture and nature are interwoven within ecotourism. For us, we can see that,

too! Their strengths on this will definitely attract ecotourists/tourists to visit their areas. We guarantee!”.

(GA12, National government officer, phase 1)

This interview illustrated the interrelation and inseparability of culture and nature. This also illustrates the link to culture through Buddhism, which the Thais have always strongly connected nature and culture (see Darlington, 1998; Dipen, 2020). However, the academic literature (28%) also views the great emphasis on nature and culture as related but with culture as more marginal in that relationship. Moreover, Fennell (2014) also supports this idea, stating that if we include the cultural aspect in the definition of ecotourism, it would subsequently not be ‘ecotourism’ but, instead, ‘cultural tourism’. In other words, the inclusion of culture would dilute the concept of ecotourism. The argument in this thesis from a Thai perspective (which might differ in various Southeast Asian settings) is that *culture is intrinsically linked to nature*, so people cannot be separated from nature (e.g. Pretty *et al.*, 2009; Taylor and Francis, 2014; Dipen, 2020; Inglis and Pascual, 2021)

In this thesis, the researcher includes the concepts of archaeology, historical areas, geology and earth sciences within the term ‘heritage’, subsequently divided in two (heritage and archaeology) to distinguish between two different understandings of the term amongst participants. Regarding the heritage aspect specifically, the results of stakeholders assessing the four categories of Thai ecotourism were alike on including heritage. For example, Thai authorities and residents (53%) and international tourists (51%) believed that ecotourism should include heritage sites within the ecotourism definition (see **Table 8.1**). The Thai tourists and academic literature scored 28% and 13%, respectively, in answer to the same question. Thai tourists believed that heritage is not so much for domestic tourists but more relevant for international tourists. This is because; the Thai government institutions have

promoted and used heritage as an approach to attracting tourists from developed countries. Thus, most of the Thai tourists prefer to visit these places when they are less crowded with inbound tourists interested in heritage, and may be why Thai tourists are likely to feel less positive about the term ‘heritage’ (e.g. Chandran, 2020).

Results relating to the archaeology aspect were quite different. For example, only two groups (international tourists, and Thai authorities and residents) believed that the archaeology should be included in the definition of ecotourism (66% and 50% respectively) (see **Table 8.1**); whilst Thai tourists and academics believed that it should not form part of the definition (38% and 3%, respectively).

The analysis above indicates the findings that demonstrate the great emphasis on heritage, including heritage and archaeology, ranked last within Thai ecotourism definitions. However, this does not mean that we should leave the heritage aspect out of the definition of ecotourism completely. Several international tourists strongly believed that:

“In my country, ecotourism is travel that helps to safeguard the nature, culture, heritage, archaeology and also benefits the local communities in terms of their financial issue”.

(IT40/3, International tourist, open-ended questionnaire, phase 3)

Moreover, NGA demonstrated that personal beliefs, age and knowledge could influence the way the people answer and, thus, perceive the importance of sustaining cultural heritage:

“Well, I would like you to imagine! If I promoted anything linked to cultural heritage festival, who will you think you see the most?”. I could let you know

right here; they will be the seniors. But, if you say within this cultural heritage festival, it will have the singers, fairs, costume contests and food stands, this will influence different age groups of people to come and visit the cultural heritage. Well, what can we do, we can't change the way different people think and behave too much but at least we have achieved that they know where the cultural heritage is and why it is important! That is 'Good' enough for us!"

(NGA, Nongovernmental agency, phase 1)

Considering the differences in personal beliefs and culture, this could differ dramatically from the practices of international tourists and domestic tourists. The research fieldwork contains frequent mentions that Thai people tend to ignore guidance — i.e. asked to not throw litter, they will do it anyway. However, international tourists differ in this regard. Furthermore, making Thai people pay attention to the educational advertising boards, provided to help people learn about the area they were visiting, was difficult. Instead, they only came to have fun, not to learn, and they just want a break from their everyday life. Burns (1999) also mentions that contrary to popular belief, tourists do not necessarily want to receive education on a trip. However, Figgis (1999) argues that whilst coming and relaxing within the natural areas is acceptable, everyone must take responsibility and ensure that they do not destroy the environment. This further emphasises that tourists are not a homogeneous group of consumers.

This analysis suggests that the way to sustain and maintain the natural and cultural heritage areas is to change behaviours and ways of learning. This thesis was initiated to raise these concerns, especially relating to the definition of ecotourism; however, the term cannot be strictly defined. Different localities need different key definitions of ecotourism. In this

case, Thai ecotourism must include the cultural and heritage/archaeology within the ecotourism remit because ecotourism sites in Northeast Thailand interrelate to cultural heritage.

8.2.3 What are Thai Ecotourism Stakeholders' Views on Managing Ecotourism at the Local Level? (Research Question 3)

Several studies in the ecotourism field focus on exploring the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders (Silva and McDill, 2004), relationships among stakeholders (Tsauer, Lin and Lin, 2006; Hitchner *et al.*, 2009; Ferraro and Hanauer, 2014; Stronza, Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2019; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020) and stakeholders' perceptions (Oikonomou and Dikou, 2008; Jaafar, Rasoolimanesh and Ismail, 2017; Walter, Regmi and Khanal, 2018; Sangpikul, 2020; Angessa *et al.*, 2022). However, a limited number of research studies carried out in developing countries attempt to explore ecotourism stakeholders in the context of neglected rural ecotourism experiences (Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Wondirad, Tolkach and King, 2020; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021). Thus, this thesis attempts to fill this gap. The researcher pays attention to the Northeast region rather than the rest of Thailand, which tends to dominate numerous studies of domestic and international tourists.

Based on the empirical findings, inconsistent management practices and the level of engagement in improving the quality of lives for local communities in ecotourism in rural areas affect Thai local ecotourism stakeholders (i.e. administrative organisations, nongovernmental agencies, tour operators, tourists and local communities).

8.2.3.1 The Views of Governmental Organisations

The engagement and relationships between the government stakeholders and the rest of the Thai ecotourism stakeholders all depend on the Thai governments' priorities, as well as the prior relationships between the organisations. GA6 gave nearly the similar opinions as GA17 (Local government officers, phase 2) and GA22 (Local government officers, phase 3). If government officers voiced opinions on the issues that opposed the priorities of key organisations, the latter would attempt to apply their power to ignore/silence people with the potential to become opponents.

“Well, as you know a lot of Thai organisations are rarely involved with each other! They hardly share the information even though they are working in the same divisions/organisations. So why do you think, I would get some treats different from others. As you already know, my government position is really in a low rank. So, to go to the meetings, even though I tried to get their attentions by giving the suggestions/opinions, they still ignore me! Some time, I do think if I am coming from the big organisations, are they going to treat me differently!”

(GA11, Regional government officers, phase 1)

Moreover, Jamal and Getz (1995), Nunkoo and Gursoy (2016), Saito and Ruhanen (2017), and Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein (2021) say that the level of relationships, leadership and trust are also relevant to the use of power. A significant finding from the research was identifying the lack of expertise of staff officers among the key Thai government stakeholders (see **Chapter 7**), limiting the sustainability of ecotourism development in Northeast Thailand. Moreover, the rapid changes in Thai governments also

cause confusion on collaboration, engagement and trust for the other Thai ecotourism stakeholders:

“The governmental authorities have promised us that they would bring some material and equipment to support our local communities while the Siam Tulip Fields’ festival is occurred. We have waited until now but still received nothing from them. As you can see, we could not wait for the help anymore, so we decided to reach out by promoting the trips via travelling channels. We also visit the NGA as well as TAT. At first, the NGA came and helped us by providing the support as well as some equipment while the festival runs. But, recently, after the Siam Tulip Fields have become popular, TAT has also visited!”.

(FC6/3, Local residents, focus group, phase 3)

This is why the Thai administrative organisations are still considered poor at listening to others.

8.2.3.2 The Views of Nongovernmental Agency

These NGA differ from other developed NGOs in that the groups of commercial owners in each province who established them aim to develop and further the interests of local companies and businesses in the province and Thailand. For this reason, the local communities experienced closer relations with NGA than they did with the government authorities, and at the same time, they can run their system faster than the government authorities because the NGA need not to wait for other agencies and actors to undertake projects.

“For me, to ask for help between the government authorities and the NGA, we would prefer to go to the NGA first. The NGA does not take a long time to come and help us! In terms of providing the financial support and other relevant support on promoting the province. The NGA responds quicker than the government! Moreover, in terms of relationships, the NGA is easy to speak to and acts calmer than the government authorities. As you know, the government staff often look down on us and often scold us rather than talk. If we have choices, we would avoid to ask them for help!”

(FC5/2, Local residents focus group, phase 2)

8.2.3.3 The Views of Tourism Operators

My research findings illustrated that the relationships between tour operators and other Thai ecotourism stakeholders — i.e. tour operators, government authorities and NGA — were not close. However, tour operators maintained close relationships with tourists and local communities. This close relationship differs according to the size of the tour operators within the province as well as the services they offer.

“During the trip, my parents and I felt that the tourism operator staff had tried to do everything to please the tourists. They provided the games and snacks while we travelled and tried to make sure that all the services they served us had met the tourists’ standards. Since we arrived at the tourism destination, the staff didn’t have much contact with the government officers apart from illustrate the tourists’ tickets. But, for the restaurant and souvenir owners, it

was opposite. We saw that the owners took the drivers and the rest of tour operator staff to have lunch and provide them with the souvenirs”.

(Author field diary, phase 1)

8.2.3.4 The Views of Tourists

Domestic and international tourists are the key stakeholders, in that they have used the tourism facilities and brought the money into the host/local communities. However, although they are the priority of Thai stakeholders, in terms of relationships with others, this may actually vary depending on the tourists’ behaviours and the power of the authority figures within the communities.

“Since the number of both international and Thai tourists have increased in Chaiyaphum province, my team and I have noticed that the number of wild animals those we used to see were reduced. This is not related to the survival rates of animals but it’s about the changes of animals’ behaviours (i.e. animals scare to come out). Recently, we have tried to create the safe zones for the animals. Sometimes, if the tourists are lucky, they might get chance to see the wild animals, too. We aren’t against the tourists coming here because it has created more careers for the local people within this area including my colleagues’ families, too”.

(GA16, National government officers, phase 2)

The findings also determine that the ways the stakeholders treat Thai tourists and international tourists differ, as the latter are recognised as people with more money.

“During the trip, my parents and I noticed that the Thai tourists and international tourists were sitting in different areas. The foreigners sat in the front and the Thai sat on the back. At first, we thought maybe it is easier for the tourism operator staffs to look after. But, during the lunch time, the food that was served on the foreigner tables, was different from the food that was served to Thai tourists. The snacks were also different while they served the foreigners. We also noticed that while the tourism operator staff were dealing the issues with the foreigners, they were politer than the Thai tourists. We did understand that the Thai tourists give fewer tips than the foreigners. Thus, the tourism operator staff preferred to please the foreigners than the Thai tourists”.

(Author field diary, phase 1)

Both types of tourists should be treated equally; both can create negative impacts within the local communities/host countries if they forget about their roles and responsibilities whilst travelling. Importantly, domestic Thai tourists have the potential to plug the gaps left when international tourists do not travel.

8.2.3.5 The Views of Local Communities

This thesis also finds that the relationships between other stakeholders in Chaiyaphum are sometimes close and complex, depending on the level of trust between the parties, activity participation and their own responsibilities.

“A year ago, we have tried to introduce the programme about sustaining the nature and culture around these surrounded areas to the students. We hope that the students would learn about their cultures and natures as well as how to sustain them.

Can you imagine; how many students were involved at first? Only Ten! Well, our team won't give up. We went to schools and also visited the families to increase the awareness on sustaining nature and culture within the communities. The number of students has increased up to nearly 150. Nowadays, those students are helping us raise awareness not only within the communities but also in the tourism destinations, too".

(GA22, Local government officers, phase 3)

This also occurred in the similar way in the case study of Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) in Chiang Rai province, Northern Thailand. Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) found that while there is some social hierarchy in the community in Thailand, trust drives the level of involvement of local people in the community. Thus, Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) notice that some communities experienced high levels of participation while others receive less.

In summary, to sustain the cultural heritage and natural sites, all stakeholders must understand their own roles and responsibilities. With understanding, each party can undertake its role in a less harmful way. However, the researcher determined that roles, responsibilities and relationships are not the only main factors shaping ideas, in terms of sustaining the environment and cultural heritage in Thailand. Three factors listed in the analysis, namely, power, politics and the conflicts of top-down and bottom-up approaches require consideration.

Re-examining the three objectives above shows factors that could contribute to slowing Thai ecotourism management practices, in the context of recent tourism development in the rural areas: the inertia between a top-down and a bottom-up approach, and tensions arising in the context of power and politics.

8.2.3.6 The Conflicts from Top-Down (Technocratic Government) to Bottom-Up

Approaches (Neopopulism)

According to the research that **Chapters 4, 6 and 7** report, Thai government authorities started in 2012 to shift their mode of governance from a top-down approach to a bottom-up approach (neopopulism). This also spread across the rural areas (Northeast) of Thailand. Interestingly, the Thai ecotourism government authorities and rural residents only reached its initial stage of collaboration and engagement. This is because the government authorities only get involved with the rural residents when they have to proceed with ecotourism projects (also see example in Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021). The ecotourism in rural areas mostly runs for a certain period; thus, the ecotourism staff would only earn nominal income from the tourists, not enough for the ecotourism staff to maintain the ecotourism in rural areas. Therefore, they still need the funds from the government authorities to support and maintain their infrastructures within the ecotourism areas. Thai ecotourism in the rural areas must apply both top-down and bottom-up approaches.

8.2.3.7 Power

This thesis shows that power used in Thailand can be defined in three ways. First is a first dimension of power (one-dimensional view) [A forces B, B must comply even if B does not want to — see **Chapter 3**]. For example:

“Last month, I went to the government meeting, they listed what we need to do to help the provincial officers to increase the economics within their province. In our province, I have no option apart from focus on increasing the economics in terms of agricultural and tourism aspects. In addition, in terms of tourism, I

need to follow the rules those organised by CAO, MOTS and TAT. This year, tourism is focused on health and solo trips. I have no option rather than call the local government officers to discuss what we need to do later”.

(GA19, Regional government officers, phase 2)

Second is the second dimension of power (two-dimensional view) [B complies with A because B recognises that A’s command is reasonable in terms of B’s own values]. For example:

“A Few months ago, I attended one of the regional meetings. I found out on the day that our local areas had received the highest votes to participate in the annual provincial parades. In fact, I knew in my heart that my local members did not want to do it. But, I could not say ‘No’. I know if we all participate in the parades, it will help us introduce our local products and our own towns. Moreover, if we need some help from the authorities, it would become easier to ask for favours. Well, I explained this to my people; thus, why, you see them practicing the activities today”.

(GA24, Local Government Authorities, phase 3)

Third is the third dimension of power (three-dimensional view) [A forces B, B makes its decision to meet its needs, B complies with A], which still occurs in the rural areas. For example:

“Even though, there were plenty of men in the local meeting, I (as a woman) think it is important for me to be in the meeting every time. Even though, my

vote is not significant, I think it helps to represent the views across the minority groups of people (i.e. women, children, ethnic groups and LGBT). I know this is the big step for me to do but at least few of the issues I raised, they have listened”.

(GA17, Local government officers, phase 2)

Moreover, ecotourism stakeholders in Thailand — especially the local communities in rural areas — still promote disempowerment. Although Thailand has adopted the bottom-up approach as a process to disperse the power from the main government authorities to the local communities, this might nevertheless slowly change in the future, due to the way Thai people — especially in the local communities — have started to take part in the local community meetings. However, this may not guarantee that the local citizens continue to maintain participation unless the government authorities are open-minded and enable local populations to have a say on key issues affecting their community. Accordingly, Herreman and Welsh (2001, p. 80) suggest that government authorities should “roll up [their] sleeves and get to know the community through joint efforts”, believed to have more potential value than financial contributions.

According to the Scheyvens (1999) framework of the impacts of ecotourism on local communities (see **Chapter 3, Table 3.2**), although Thailand has applied the empowerment approach to local communities as well as to other ecotourism stakeholders, that does not mean that everyone has the rights to utilise their own powers. The data and the analyses of chapters 4, 6 and 7 illustrate this (see **Table 8.2**):

Impacts/dimensions	Signs of empowerment	Signs of disempowerment
Economics	- There are some signs of development within the local communities (i.e. road, water, streetlamps, electricity)	- Cash earned mostly goes to the outsider stakeholders (i.e. tourism operators)
Psychological	- Increase the confidence of community members, such as skill training	-Confusion -Frustration
Social	- Bring back some traditional cultures to the new generation - Allow women and ethnic groups to give more opinions and vote	- The loss of respect of traditional culture and older populations - Divorce - Misunderstanding between the ecotourism associated groups
Political	- Allow the local populations to be able to make the decisions (in rural communities)	- Not allow local communities or other stakeholders to make the decisions

Table 8.2: Thailand and Its Framework of Empowerment

Table 8.2 illustrates that the frameworks of empowerment, in terms of ecotourism stakeholders in Thailand, remain confused and promote disempowerment. Moreover, Parnwell (2005) and Sonjai *et al.* (2018) also demonstrate that even though empowerment has reached local peoples' hands in Thailand within the same settings, it does not mean that people in the same areas are freely allowed to use their power equally, like rich people in the communities. This has created an imbalance of culture between the poor and the rich.

The analyses of chapters 4, 6 and 7 illustrate that people in Thailand have started to form ideas with each other, as well as the government authorities, on a more frequent basis

than in the past. However, some local villagers and nongovernmental agencies still argue that irrespective of whether or not we participate with the government authorities, they still do not listen to local people. This is one reason some villagers have ‘put off’ participating in forming ideas within local communities (see Palmer and Chuamuangphan, 2018; Sonjai *et al.*, 2018). This indicates that ecotourism development in Thailand is stalling, due to lack of power for the local communities, empowerment and participation.

In summary, the challenging factors mentioned above remain within the process of improving ecotourism in a sustainable way. From my research, it appears that among the locals in rural areas, a vacuum of trust exists, particularly relating to the competence of local and national governance in Thailand.

Next, I consider the contribution of my thesis to the tourism literature.

8.3 Contribution of This Thesis

This thesis contributes to the study of ecotourism, especially in the rural areas, as well as the study of community tourism, tourism stakeholders and tourism management. For example, it has:

- a. Considered how ecotourism is defined through the relevant ecotourism stakeholders and expanded the idea of ecotourism definitions to reflect the differing experiences and practices relating to ecotourism in developing countries. Few studies have highlighted the definitional issues of ecotourism in the context of developing countries, especially in rural areas of Southeast Asia;
- b. Outlined an understanding of Thai ecotourism stakeholders’ views and experiences on managing ecotourism at the local level, with few studies undertaken elsewhere in Asian nations; and

- c. Presented an understanding of ecotourism in different regions of Thailand, in contrast to existing studies focusing on the ‘honeypots’ of Northern and Southern regions of Thailand.
- d. Widened our understanding of an alternative approach to ecotourism/tourism in rural areas, utilising the top-down and bottom-up (neopopulism) approaches, which could become useful for ecotourism/tourism in the rural areas, especially in the Asian countries that still require support from state agencies to help remote and more rural locations prosper.
- e. Widened the understanding of the roles of stakeholders in sustainable tourism development, especially in the Asian countries, which would help the host communities to predict the future for tourism in the area and learn more about the present and future of tourists dominant there.

The researcher hopes that future research attempting to observe ecotourism, stakeholders and management practices in Thailand and other countries will use this thesis.

8.4 Limitations and Future Research

This thesis examines how Thai stakeholders experience ecotourism in the context of its recent growth in rural areas, including the studies defining ecotourism and the views of all stakeholders (government authorities, nongovernmental agencies, tour operators, tourists and local communities) on reducing impacts on managing ecotourism at the local level. It would be advantageous for future research to extend the scope of stakeholders, to include tour guides (Weiler and Ham, 2002; Serenari, Bosak and Attarian, 2013; Weiler and Black 2015; Lackey and Pennisi, 2019; Agyeman and Antwi-Bosiako, 2022), stakeholder empowerment within developing countries (Dorjsuren and Palmer, 2018), the stakeholders and their impacts on wildlife in ecotourism sites (Stronza, Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2019; Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut

and Blumstein, 2021), the ecotourism industry stakeholders and their quality controls (Weaver and Lawton, 2007; Almeyda *et al.*, 2010; Ali *et al.*, 2022), the ecotourism and their impacts on the local community well-being (Scheyven, 1999; Serenari *et al.*, 2016; Eshun and Tichaawa, 2019) and finally, the top-down approaches (populism) and bottom-up approaches (neopopulism) applied in ecotourism destinations (Hongjamrassilp, Traiyasut and Blumstein, 2021). Furthermore, such a study would provide the means to help create management and practices that are more suitable for rural tourism destinations. Moreover, it should attempt to examine power relationships as well as management (see Hall, 2008; Thomas, 2009), which would undoubtedly help when attempting to emphasise the idea of how power can affect tourism management practices within different international settings.

Indeed, the findings of this thesis may serve as a stepping-stone for future research, in terms of ecotourism and its practices especially in rural areas, or even considering the broader issue of tourism in Asia, in general. However, one should bear in mind that different geographical areas have different practices, norms and cultural values.

The focus on ecotourism and its practices in Thailand is limited to popular tourist hotspots. Thus, future research in this area would be useful in rural and semi-rural locations. The researcher's experience studying ecotourism in Thailand is the basis for believing that ecotour guides' knowledge would be very useful for future researchers in similar studies.

Additionally, avoid difficulties in the research whilst gathering information—especially with regards to senior citizens in Thailand, tour guides and the tour operators—I recommend that future researchers produce a short version of questionnaires (only one page) for those people with a lack of time and personal preferences, which would help to avoid receiving rejections and void questionnaire papers. Moreover, I recommend recruiting four or five people during the study, to help collect questionnaire data, which would allow future researchers to collect a wider range of information from different tourists.

8.5 Conclusion

This study indicates that understanding the definition of ecotourism and the corresponding views of ecotourism stakeholders on reducing impacts on managing ecotourism at the local level are the most significant elements of helping to improve Thai ecotourism practices, to provide the most benefits to local communities and the natural, cultural and heritage assets within the locality. The research used the data from focus groups, questionnaires, interviews, research diaries and secondary sources. The goal was to analyse defining Thai ecotourism, the views and engagement of all ecotourism stakeholders on reducing impacts on managing ecotourism at the local level and the alternative methods and practices that could help to reshape Thai ecotourism in rural areas, to suit both economic needs and conserving local cultures and environments. The thesis findings explain that Thai ecotourism is ‘tourism that is involved with preservation, conservation, maintenance of the nature, culture and heritage to the benefit of the local communities’. The views and the level of engagement of the Thai ecotourism stakeholders depend on the positive outcomes of the previous relationships. Moreover, studying ecotourism and associated practices should include power, trust and political considerations.

Future studies could focus attention on eco-tour guides, stakeholder empowerment, quality control, impacts on wildlife and the tensions between top-down, technocratic planning and the much advocated bottom-up approach (neopopulism) in rural ecotourism areas, in Thailand and other countries. Finally, this thesis could as a template for future studies, especially of ecotourism, community tourism and rural tourism.

APPENDIX 1

THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS THROUGH ECOTOURISM ACTIVITIES

Activities/Factors	The impacts
Extraction of resources	Deforestation, mangrove clearance, effects on species and ecosystems.
Harvest of firewood and timber	Habitat modification, disturbing of small mammals, erosion and ecological change.
Improper dumping of waste	Damage to species and ecosystem, poor water quality
Untreated waste	Poor water quality
Inadequate disposal of waste	Disturbance of wildlife movements
Infrastructure development in ecological regions and protected areas	Disturbance to breeding and wildlife that affects reproduction.
Intensive use of visitors	Changes in wildlife behaviour, disturbance to plant community.
Traffic in the form of hiking, congestion on trails and rivers	Trails erosion and disturbance on vegetation and wildlife, soil compaction, impacts on sea turtle nesting and reproduction.
Vehicles traffic: auto, boat, fishing and hunting	Disturbance of wildlife, displacement from nesting, avoidance or emigration, mortality, potential over-harvest, competition with predators.

Activities/Factors	The impacts
Purchase of souvenirs	Threatened species availability, disruption to natural process.
Noise and litter generation	Disruption of natural sounds, wildlife, natural scenery, aesthetic and health hazard, disrupts animal distribution.
Feeding wildlife	Behaviour changes, poor nutrition, dependence on artificial food supply.
Introduction of exotic plants and animals	Effects on resident species, morality between species, removal of vegetation.
Snorkelling and diving	Damage to corals from fins, removal of organisms
Improper dumping of waste	Damage to species and ecosystem, poor water quality
Untreated waste	Poor water quality
Inadequate disposal of waste	Disturbance of wildlife movements.
Infrastructure development in ecological regions and protected areas	Disturbance to breeding and wildlife that affects reproduction.
Intensive use of visitors	Changes in wildlife behaviour, disturbance to plant community.
Traffic in the form of hiking, congestion on trails and rivers	Trail erosion and disturbance to vegetation and wildlife, soil compaction, impacts on sea turtle nesting and reproduction.
Vehicles traffic: auto, boat, fishing and hunting	Disturbance of wildlife, displacement from nesting, avoidance or emigration, mortality, potential over-harvest, competition with predators.
Purchase of souvenirs	Threatened species decline in number, disruption to natural process.

Activities/Factors	The impacts
Noise and litter generation	Disruption of natural sounds, wildlife, natural scenery, aesthetic and health hazard, disrupts animal distribution.
Feeding wildlife	Behaviour changes, poor nutrition, dependence on artificial food supply.
Introduction of exotic plants and animals	Effects on resident species, morality between species, removal of vegetation.
Snorkelling and diving	Damage to corals from fins, removal of organisms.

Source: Haysmith (1995, cited in Diamantis, 1999b, p. 107)

APPENDIX 2

THE IMPLEMENTATIONS OF ECOTOURISM IN DEVELOPED & DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Countries	Tourism Approach	Feedback
Alberta, Canada (Wight, 2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Created the guide for every actor to get involved within ecotourism projects - Created the conservation policy and strategy plans - Organised the relevant department to follow and evaluate the ecotourism activities 	- One of the successful and effective ecotourism programmes within Canada
Antarctica (Hall and McArthur, 1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Permitted Tourist visitors -Set the guidelines for environmental conservation - Developed tour guide training - Provided an educational zone for conservation - Exchanged information among government, tourists and non-government stakeholders 	
Australia (Tisdell and Wilson, 2002)	- Implemented the ecotourism programme for the tourists in Mon Repos Conservation Park in Queensland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helped raise the awareness of sea turtles for both local residents and tourists - Increased the income for the local residents - Increased the funds for sea turtle conservation

Countries	Tourism Approach	Feedback
<p>Belize (Moreno, 2005)</p>	<p>- Outlined the ecotourism policies and strategies by: * developing tour guide training * education on the issue of conservation * community support centre</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local communities were ignored by other stakeholders. - The local residents did not understand the roles taken by government. - Local residents lost interest with traditional jobs such as fishing and farming. - Actors had a lack of responsibility - Laws were not enough to cover diverse situations. - The weakness of politics within the communities and nations. - Lack of plans for visitor control (zoning law).
<p>Cambodia (Toko, 2018; Sen and Walter, 2020)</p>	<p>- Government implemented ecotourism programme within the rural areas.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduced the number of people cutting down trees, hunting and producing charcoal. - Increase the household incomes for local residents. - Created more jobs (e.g. park patrol) for local residents. - Create more local residents' events, so they could learn to get together more. - Reduce the number of families sending their children to a monastery for living and studying.

Countries	Tourism Approach	Feedback
<p>China (Sofield and Li, 2003, Wang et al., 2014)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Government implemented compromises to better balance the harmony between natural areas and local residents by building tourism infrastructure and entertainment areas. - Created Low access zones 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Overcrowded - Received less beneficiaries for local residents and national parks from the tourists - Reduction in local poverty and an increase in incomes - Some government authorities such as the division of environmental functions and interpretation system improvements were neglected by the main government authority
<p>Honduras (Schoemann, 2002; Moreno, 2005)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Created Tourism Free Zones - Created the collaboration approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of the incorporation within the government - Create the confusion between the board and government, especially in terms of their tourism stakeholder roles
<p>Indonesia (Ashraf and Sibi, 2020)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Created the collaboration approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local residents were concerned about the job and financial security and job discrimination - Responses from the government authorities were delayed due to non-linkages and collaboration. - Language barriers - Pollution e.g. waste and traffic - Security is poor due to low number of streetlights on the roads - Accommodation facilities are too basic; so many tourists only visit Thenmala for one day

Countries	Tourism Approach	Feedback
Italy (Zacarias and Loyola, 2017)	- No tax payment, if they provide their own houses for tourists to stay	- The rich have accrued benefits more so than poor people. Because they have many luxury houses in the rural areas and can also avoid paying taxes.
Philippines (Alampay, 2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Declared tourist zones - No Build Zones - Implemented a “No Overnight Visit” policy on Olango island - Created the collaboration approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fishing began to suffer, because of the degradation of the coral reef - No build zones were known as failures because they were bureaucratic and difficult to implement. - Insufficient policies and strategies to cover some issues. - Lack of strict building plans - Helped to minimise the impacts on both natural and cultural resources (suba community) - One of the successful ecotourism programmes in the Philippines
Thailand (Elliot, 1987)	- Implemented the ecotourism projects within localities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No Tourism department to create, follow and evaluate tourism programmes. - Government parties lacked interest in the tourism domain -The relationship between the different sectors were still conflicted - Political instability - No power for local residents - Lack of effective management plans over the tourism aspects - Overcrowded

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of ecotourism training for local residents - Increase the household incomes
<p>Giao Xuan in Vietnam (Tran and Walter, 2014)</p>	<p>- Created the ecotourism programme to reduce the problems on the loss of ecological resources and less household incomes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increase the local household incomes - Local residents should provide the tour guides, homestays, restaurants and performances - Women reported that men were still largely preferred over women for leadership and administrative positions.

APPENDIX 3

PERMISSION LETTER (THAI VERSION)



ที่อยู่มหาวิทยาลัย

ที่อยู่ตัวเอง

วันที่ เดือน พ.ศ.

เรื่อง ขออนุญาตสัมภาษณ์และเก็บข้อมูลเพื่อประกอบการทำวิจัยในระดับปริญญาเอก
เรียน

ข้าพเจ้า นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก ณ มหาวิทยาลัย Canterbury Christ Church ประเทศ อังกฤษ วิชาเอก การท่องเที่ยว มีความสนใจที่จะขออนุญาตเข้ามาเก็บข้อมูลเพื่อประกอบการทำวิจัยเรื่อง ซึ่งการวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ เพื่อ ศึกษา ความหมาย บทบาทและการปฏิบัติงานของผู้ที่มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์ รวมทั้งศึกษา ผลประโยชน์เชิงบวกและเชิงลบที่อาจเกิดเนื่องจากการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์

ข้าพเจ้าได้รับทราบข้อมูล จึงเกิดความสนใจ ข้าพเจ้าจึงขออนุญาตสัมภาษณ์และรับคำแนะนำเกี่ยวกับ เรื่อง จากท่านในวัน เวลา ที่ท่านสะดวก

ข้าพเจ้าหวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า คงได้รับความกรุณาจากท่าน หน่วยงาน และชุมชน ที่มีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องกับการวิจัยในครั้งนี้

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณาอนุเคราะห์

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(.....)

.....

มือถือ: E-mail:

APPENDIX 4

PARTICIPANT'S CONSENT FORM (THAI VERSION)

ใบขออนุญาตนำข้อมูลการสัมภาษณ์ไปใช้ประกอบการเขียนวิทยานิพนธ์ (ผู้ให้ข้อมูล)

เรื่อง

ชื่อผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์

ชื่อสมมุติที่ต้องการให้ใช้ในการตีพิมพ์

อาชีพ วันที่ใน

การสัมภาษณ์ ที่

กรุณากากบาท (Baxter and Jack) หน้าข้อ

- ข้าพเจ้าอนุญาตให้นำข้อมูลที่ข้าพเจ้าได้ให้การสัมภาษณ์ในครั้งนี้นำไปประกอบการเขียนสัมภาษณ์ แต่มีเงื่อนไขดังนี้.....

.....
ลงชื่อ วันที่..... ที่

CONDUCTOR'S CONSENT FORM (THAI VERSION)

ใบขออนุญาตนำข้อมูลการสัมภาษณ์ไปใช้ประกอบการเขียนวิทยานิพนธ์ (ผู้ดำเนินการ)

เรื่อง

ข้าพเจ้าขอสัญญาว่าจะนำข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์ของ ในครั้งนี้นำไปใช้ประกอบการเขียนวิทยานิพนธ์และข้าพเจ้าจะรักษาเงื่อนไขตามที่ท่านระบุไว้ในใบขออนุญาตนำข้อมูลการสัมภาษณ์มาใช้ดังนี้

- ชื่อของผู้สัมภาษณ์ที่ต้องการใช้ในการตีพิมพ์.....
 สิ่งที่คุณให้สัมภาษณ์ระบุไว้ ดังต่อไปนี้.....

.....
ลงชื่อ วันที่ ที่

ถ้าท่านมีข้อสงสัยหรือต้องการจะเปลี่ยนแปลงข้อมูลอันใด กรุณาติดต่อมาได้ที่

โทร : E-mail:

APPENDIX 5

INTERVIEWS: GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS AND NONGOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES

General Data

- What are the government authorities'/nongovernmental agencies' name?
- What are the authorities' jobs?

Tourism:

- History of Tourism in Thailand?
- How do the governmental authorities/nongovernmental agencies think about tourism?
- Are there any advantages or disadvantages after adopting tourism? in terms of local communities, other Thai people outsiders, natural areas, cultural/heritage areas, etc.?
- How many tourists arrive in Thailand/Chaiyaphum each year and how many are domestic or international tourists?
- How does your authority help to promote the tourism in Thailand/Chaiyaphum?

Ecotourism:

- When did ecotourism begin to get well-known for in Thailand/Chaiyaphum?
How does it operate through other provinces in Thailand?
- Is it a well-known seller sector in Thailand and why?

- What is the history of Ecotourism in Thailand and can you identify the first instance?
- After adopting the ecotourism programme in Thailand/Chaiyaphum, do the government authorities do the following check-ups with the local communities and tourism operators? How?
- What does ecotourism mean to your authority?
- Are there elements that you think could be applied here? Ideas for discussion: Thai silk, Pagoda, experience of dancing, local way of life, village history, fruit cultivation, homestay, handicrafts etc.
- What do you feel are some of the positive and negative impacts currently affecting ecotourism in Thailand/Chaiyaphum and communities (i.e. economy, cultural and heritage, natural, Thai people, etc.)?

Local communities' issues:

- Before operating the programme in the province, did you discuss it with local people, and how do they need to prepare for the ecotourism programme?
- In your view, how do you think the community would deal with a large number of strangers arriving in the locality?
- What do you expect to see in the community and Chaiyaphum province in 10-20 years and do you have any concerns?
- What do you see as the main issues to be dealt with in (names of three local settings: Siam Tulip Field, Prang Ku and Ban Khwao Village) in Chaiyaphum province?

- In your view, do you think the ecotourism programme could lead to in terms of advantages and disadvantages to Thai people, especially local communities?

Tourism companies:

- What do the companies need to do if they would like to operate companies?
Any certificates?
- How do they operate each tour programmes for tourists? Are there any requirements, in terms of policies, regulations, etc.?
- Do the authorities help them to promote the programme and how do they do this?
- Do the authorities provide facilities and meetings in order to help tourism operators to understand what ecotourism is?
- Ask about the record of the companies that run the programme to Chaiyaphum province?

Cultural and Historic issues:

- How many tourists book the programme under the name of ‘cultural/heritage’?
- In your view, what does cultural/ historical mean?
- In Thailand, there is a large amount of cultural and historical sites. Do you think after operating the ecotourism’s programme it will potentially cause positive and negative impacts on these settings? If so, how?
- Who are responsible for the cultural and historical sites and how are they maintained?
- Do you think the cultural and historical areas could show our identity and is it worth protecting them?

- Can there ever be a mutual relationship between ecotourism and cultural/heritage?
- In your view, is it possible to place cultural/heritage and ecotourism in the context of ecotourism?

APPENDIX 6

INTERVIEWS: TOURISM OPERATORS

General Data:

- Name (depend on their comfortable to be used in the research)
- Operate: When?
- Statistics of Thai and International Tourists?
- Kind of tours: Where? Name? Start? Most tourists come from? How long?
Price? Main Aim?

Tourism companies:

- What do you need to do before you start to operate the company? Law and regulations? Qualifications?
- How do you start to operate each tour programmes? Are these based on local and national governments? Local Communities? Tourists' requirements? How?
- How do people learn about your company? Internet? Brochures, etc.?

Ecotourism:

- Before you start the ecotourism tour, what do you need to do in terms of understanding, how it is sold, etc. Do you have a meeting between local people, your company and local and national government authorities etc.?
- After adopting ecotourism programme, do the government authorities do the following check-up and how?

- What does ecotourism mean to your company?
- Are there elements of that that you think could be applied here? Ideas for here: Thai silk, Pagoda, experience of dancing, local way of life, village history, fruit cultivation, homestay, handicrafts etc.
- What do you feel are some of the positive and negative effects of current ecotourism in Thailand and communities?
- How does your company sell ecotourism programme to the tourists? Does it offer a combination trip? If so, why is there the need of a combination trip? Why do you call it 'Ecotourism tour'?
- How many tourists book the programme under the name of 'ecotourism'?

Cultural and Historic issues:

- Do you have cultural and historical tours in your company? What does the programme provide and where is it run?
- What are the main ideas for the tour to be named as a cultural tour? Why did you pick this name?
- If the programme of the tour includes cultural and historical sites and natural areas, how do you name the trip programme and why?
- In your view, can there be a relationship between ecotourism and cultural/heritage?
- In your view, is it possible to place cultural/heritage and ecotourism in the context of ecotourism?
- How many tourists book the programme under the name of 'cultural/heritage'?
- Do you feel is it important to maintain cultural and heritage sites in the settings?

Local Communities' Issues:

- In your view, do you think local communities are important? Why?
- Does the company co-operate with local people?
- In your view, how do you think the community would deal with a large number of tourists visiting within the locality? Do you think this can cause impacts or benefit them?
- Does your tour company employ local people as part of the guide operator?
Follow up: How much they earn?
- Does your tour company operate the trip to visit local souvenir shops? Ascertain who to contact?
- What do you expect to see within the community and Chaiyaphum province looking like in 10-20 years and do you have any concerns?
- What do you see as main issues to be dealt in (names of three local settings: Siam Tulip Field, Prang Ku and Ban Khwao Village) while you run the programme through the setting?

Other Stakeholders' Issues:

- Did local government authorities get involved with your company about how to run ecotourism tour into the settings? How did they do it?
- Did national government authorities get involved with your company about how to run ecotourism tour into the settings? How did they do it?
- How much voice do the tourist companies have when it comes to discussion between local communities and government authorities?

- How important is it to work with other ecotourism businesses and government authorities?
- How did your company decide to get involved in the ecotourism planning of Thailand/Chaiyaphum?
- Do you see any conditions missing on Chaiyaphum trip that would be necessary for ecotourism's programme in the future?

APPENDIX 7

FOCUS GROUP: LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Ecotourism:

- Heard of this before? When? ; Introduced by? How?
- What does it mean? Know meaning from who?
- Ideas for here: Thai silk, Pagoda, experience of dancing, local way of life, village history, fruit cultivation, homestay, handicrafts etc.
- Positive and Negative effects in Chaiyaphum province and Thailand?

Cultural and Historic Issues:

- Any protection of Historical sites? How? and by who? Which department?
- Is important to maintain culture and heritage?
- Can there be a relationship between ecotourism/cultural/heritage?
- Is it possible to place cultural/heritage in the context of ecotourism?

Communities' Feelings:

- Local communities decide to get involved in ecotourism programme:
When and how?
- Want to see (ideal) and expect to see (concern) the community and Chaiyaphum province looking like in 10-20 years?
- Deal with a large amount of tourists? How and how is this achieved?
- Response to the impacts. How? Any help from local people, government

authorities or nongovernmental agencies or tourism Operators?

- Main issues which need to be raised in all 3 settings: What? When? Why?
With Who? How? Successful/Fail?
- Any involvement before/after adopting ecotourism from local people,
government authorities, nongovernmental agencies and tourism operators?
- Voices from the community during discussion? Who wins and who loses?

Other Stakeholders' Issues:

- Any conditions missing that would be necessary for ecotourism programme?
- Do tourism operators co-operate on the trip with local?
- Follow-up: Are they still operating? Any benefits and harmful effects?
- Gain more Income: Did incomes streams improve?

APPENDIX 8

PhD project

.....

QUESTIONNAIRE (INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS)

This questionnaire should take less than 20 minutes to complete.

This questionnaire examines your opinions about ecotourism and cultural heritage in Chaiyaphum province to support project management 10-20 years from now. Our main interest is to find its meaning and reflect your ideas into project management in the future. First, please take a few moments to imagine why you were planning your trip to Thailand. Consider what are the reasons behind your plan and what you did during your stay in Thailand. Now, based on this mental image of the past, present and future, try to answer the following questions. Please add as many additional comments or ideas as you can.

The questionnaire contains the following sections:

- 1. Demographic Data**
- 2. Tourism**

Use of this information: All information entered here will be used ONLY for the purpose of evaluating opinions about ecotourism and cultural heritage trends in the future. Personal information will not be provided to any other parties.

Please contact me if you have any questions:

Name: Mobile:Email:

Part 1: Demographic Data

1. Age

- Less than 20 years old
- 20 - 30 years old
- 31 - 40 years old
- 41 - 50 years old
- 51 - 55 years old
- 56 - 60 years old
- 61 - 65 years old
- 66 - 69 years old
- 70 years old and over

2. Gender

- Male
- Female
- Other

3. Who are you travelling with?

- Alone
- Friends
- Family
- Other (please specify

4. Length of your total stay in Thailand

- 1 - 3 days
- 4 - 7 days
- 8 - 13 days
- approximately 2 weeks
- approximately 3 weeks
- approximately 1 month
- Other (please specify

5. Length of your visit in Chaiyaphum province

- 1 days
- 2 - 3 days
- 4 - 5 days
- 6 - 7 days
- Other (please specify

6. Occupation

- Working full-time
- Working part-time
- Housewife/husband (full-time at home)
- Student
- Retired
- Temporary unemployment (but seeking work)
- Permanent unemployment (e.g. chronic illness, taking time out for travel etc.)
- Other (please specify.....)

7. Location of permanent residence

- UK
- Europe (not UK)
- North America (USA and Canada)
- South America
- Oceania (Australia and New Zealand)
- Africa
- Asia (North Asia includes Russia, Middle East, Southeast Asia)
- Other (please specify.....)

8. Level of completed education (please tick only **one**)
- Lower than High school/Secondary school
 - High school /Secondary school
 - College Diploma
 - Undergraduate University Degree
 - Postgraduate University Degree
 - Other (please specify.....)

9. Income (Gross per month)
- Less than £1,000 or US \$1,899 or Euro €1,495
 - £1,001 – 2,000 or US \$1,900 – 2,899 or Euro €1,496 – 2,495
 - £2,001 – 3,000 or US \$2,900 – 3,899 or Euro €2,496 – 3,495
 - £3,001 – 4,000 or US \$3,900 – 4,899 or Euro €3,496 – 4,495
 - £4,001 – 5,000 or US \$4,900 – 5,899 or Euro €4,496 – 5,495
 - £5,001 – 6,000 or US \$5,900 – 6,899 or Euro €5,496 – 6,495
 - £6,001 – 7,000 or US \$6,900 – 7,899 or Euro €6,496 – 7,495
 - More than £7,001 or US \$7,900 or Euro €7,496

Part 2: Tourism

1. What did you come to Chaiyaphum Province to see and experience? (Please tick **one** or **more**)

- Natural sites (e.g. Siam Tulip field, Waterfall, National Park ... etc.)
- Cultural sites (e.g. Thai silk village, Pottery village ... etc.)
- Heritage and Historic sites (e.g. Prang Ku, Temple, Pagoda ... etc.)
- Archaeological sites (e.g. Khmer arts, Stone inscriptions... etc.)
- Cultural activities (e.g. Experience of dancing and singing)
- Local people, local way of life
- Village History
- Handicrafts and souvenirs
- Fruit cultivation and consumption
- Homestay (e.g. Staying with a family in the village)
- Other (please specify.....)

2. How did you hear about the trip to visit Chaiyaphum province? (Please tick **one** or **more**)

- Advertisement in a travel magazine
- Website
- Advert in hotel or other tourist accommodation
- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)
- Other (please specify.....)
- Friends
- Tourism Operators
- Word of mouth

3. Who did you book the tour in Chaiyaphum province through (please specify) what is the tour called (please specify) and what company are you travelling with on this tour (please specify)
4. Is the trip you came on an example of a ‘combination’ trip (seeing many different attractions) and if so why did you choose it?(Please tick **one** or **two** or **all three** options)
- Because it is the best choice of the tours to visit Natural sites (eg. Siam Tulip field, Waterfall, National Park ... etc.)
 - Because it is the best choice of the tours to visit Cultural sites (eg. Thai silk village, Pottery village ... etc.)
 - Because it is the best choice of the tours to visit Heritage sites (eg. Prang Ku, Temple, Pagoda ... etc.)
 - Other (please specify.....)
5. What are your expectations from the combination trip to visit Chaiyaphum province (Please tick **those which apply**)
- Purely relaxation
 - Learning about a way of life and culture
 - Learning history of province and sites
 - Viewing new landscapes
 - Being close to nature
 - Doing something new
 - Having fun and being entertained
 - Other (please specify.....)
6. Which of the following did you do during your combination trip? (Please tick **one or more**)
- Purchased souvenirs from local people shops in the community
 - Purchased souvenirs from the shops that operate outside the community
 - Booked group tour via local community’s agency
 - Booked group tour from outsiders’ company
 - Booked local tour guide to operate the trip
 - Booked tour guides from outside to operate the trip
7. Do you think the combination trip (natural, cultural and heritage sites) can be called ‘Ecotourism’?
- No (please go to **Question number 8**)
 - Yes (please go to **Question number 9**)
8. What do you think the combination trip could be called? (Please tick **one** only)
- Cultural tourism
 - Cultural Heritage tourism
 - Mass tourism
 - Other (please specify.....)
 - Sustainable tourism
 - Natural and Cultural tourism

9. What does 'Ecotourism' mean to you? (Please tick **one** or **more**)
- Natural landscapes (eg. Siam Tulip Field, national park ... etc.)
 - Cultural sites (eg. Thai silk village, Pottery village ... etc.)
 - Heritage sites (eg. Prang Ku, Temple, Pagoda ... etc.)
 - Archaeological sites (eg. Khmer arts, Stone inscriptions... etc.)
 - Rural sites (eg. Rice field, Buffalo village ... etc.)
 - Agricultural sites (eg. Winery etc.)
 - Indigenous sites (eg. hill tribes ... etc.)
 - Religion and spirituality
 - Zoo
 - Animal Watching (eg. Birds ... etc.)
 - Other (please specify.....)

10. In the future, do you agree that Chaiyaphum province can provide valuable ecotourism trips for international tourists?
- Strongly Agree
 - Agree
 - Uncertain
 - Disagree
 - Strongly Disagree
- Why (please specify).....

11. In the future, do you agree that Northeast region can provide valuable ecotourism trips for international tourists?
- Strongly Agree
 - Agree
 - Uncertain
 - Disagree
 - Strongly Disagree
- Why (please specify).....
-

12. Which of the following elements do you believe are core to ecotourism

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
	<i>5</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>
1. Promotes, Respect and protects Natural sites					
2. Promotes, Respect and protects Cultural sites					
3. Promotes, Respects and protects Heritage sites					
4. Promotes, Respects and protects Archaeological sites					
5. Respects local culture					
6. Incorporates and Respect Religious activities					

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
	5	4	3	2	1
7. Incorporates Adventure activities					
8. Incorporates with parks and protected areas					
9. Involves with Local/ Indigenous residents, and local/Indigenous communities					
10. Contributes to conservation					
11. Contributes financial to local residents					
12. Provides long-term benefits and empowerment for local people					
13. Has Low impacts/non-consumptive to community					
14. Has Ethics/responsibility to local community					
15. Builds Environmental and Social Management					
16. Builds a Sustainable to environment and local community					
17. Benefits local Employment					
18. Supports Human rights and Democratic movements					

13. Do you think your trip meets your criteria of the various contexts of ecotourism outlined in **Question number 12** ?

- Agree Strongly
- Agree Slightly
- Neither Agree nor Disagree
- Disagree Slightly
- Disagree Strongly

14. Do you most consider yourself to be any of the following? (Please tick **only one**)

- Tourist
- Ecotourist
- Cultural tourist
- Rural tourist
- Sustainable tourist
- Heritage tourist
- Mass tourist
- Cultural Heritage tourist
- Natural and Cultural tourist
- Other (please specify.....)

15. Any Further comments you would like to make (Feel free to utilise the space provided):

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you so much for your co-operation

APPENDIX 9

QUESTIONNAIRE (THAI VERISION)

แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย
เรื่อง

..... (Thai version)
..... (English version)

คำชี้แจงการตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. แบบสอบถามนี้แบ่งเป็น 2 ส่วน

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

ส่วนที่ 2 ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติทั่ว ๆ ไปเกี่ยวกับการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์

2. แบบสอบถามนี้ใช้รวบรวมข้อมูลเฉพาะที่จะนำมาวิเคราะห์ตามโครงการวิจัยนี้ ผู้วิจัยขอความร่วมมือจากผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามได้โปรดให้ข้อมูลที่เป็นจริง เพื่อนำข้อมูลไปเป็นแนวทางในการพัฒนา ปรับปรุง และสร้างความเข้าใจในการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์ รวมทั้งนำไปปรับปรุงแนวคิดเกี่ยวกับเรื่องการเชื่อมโยงความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวัฒนธรรม โบราณสถาน โบราณวัตถุ และโบราณคดีต่อไป

ขอขอบพระคุณในความร่วมมือ
ผู้ทำวิจัย

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

คำชี้แจง

โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย / ลงในช่อง หน้าข้อความที่ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามเลือก หรือ เติมข้อความลงในช่อง ตามความเป็นจริงของท่าน

1. อายุ

ต่ำกว่า 20 ปี

20 – 30 ปี

31 - 40 ปี

41 – 50 ปี

51 – 55 ปี

56 – 60 ปี

61 – 65 ปี

66 – 70 ปี

มากกว่า 70 ปีขึ้นไป

2. เพศ

ชาย

หญิง

3. ท่านเดินทางท่องเที่ยวเกี่ยวกับใคร

- โดยลำพัง
- เพื่อน
- ครอบครัว
- บริษัทนำเที่ยว โปรดระบุชื่อ
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ.....

4. ระยะเวลาที่มาท่องเที่ยวจังหวัดชัยภูมิ

- 1 วัน
- 2 - 3 วัน
- 4 - 5 วัน
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

5. อาชีพ

- นักเรียน/นิสิต/นักศึกษา
- ข้าราชการ
- พนักงานรัฐวิสาหกิจ
- พนักงานบริษัทเอกชน
- ประกอบธุรกิจส่วนตัว
- แม่บ้าน
- รับจ้าง
- เกษียณ
- ว่างงาน
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

6. ภูมิลำเนา

- ภาคกลาง
- ภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ
- ภาคเหนือ
- ภาคใต้
- ภาคตะวันออก
- ภาคตะวันตก

7. การศึกษาขั้นสูงสุด

- ประถมศึกษา
- มัธยมศึกษา
- อนุปริญญา
- ปริญญาตรี
- ปริญญาโท
- ปริญญาเอก
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

8. รายได้ทั้งหมดต่อเดือน

- น้อยกว่า 5,000 บาท
- 5,000 -10,000 บาท
- 10,001 - 20,000 บาท
- 20,001 - 30,000 บาท
- 30,001 – 40,000 บาท
- 40,001 – 50,000 บาท
- มากกว่า 50,001บาทขึ้นไป

ส่วนที่ 2 ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติทั่ว ๆ ไปเกี่ยวกับการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์

คำชี้แจง

โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย / ลงในช่อง หน้าข้อความที่ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามเลือก หรือ เติมข้อความลงในช่อง ตามความเป็นจริงของท่าน

1. ท่านคิดว่าเหตุผลในข้อใดต่อไปนี้จะทำให้ท่านเลือกเดินทางมาท่องเที่ยวจังหวัดชัยภูมิ

(ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

- แหล่งท่องเที่ยวที่เป็นธรรมชาติ (น้ำตก, อุทยานแห่งชาติ, ทุ่งดอกกระเจียว เป็นต้น)
- แหล่งโบราณสถาน (ปราสาทหิน, ภูแดง, พระธาตุหนองสามหมื่น เป็นต้น)
- แหล่งโบราณคดี (เมืองหามหอก, เมืองน้อยไต้, บ้านกุดโจ่ง เป็นต้น)
- ประวัติศาสตร์ความเป็นมาของจังหวัด
- ศาสนาและความเชื่อ
- ขนบธรรมเนียมประเพณี (งานบรวงสรวงเจ้าพ่อพระยาแล, งานบุญสงกรานต์ เป็นต้น)
- ความเป็นอยู่ของประชากรในท้องถิ่นและชนเผ่าพื้นเมืองชาวนน
- งานศิลปหัตถกรรมและสิ่งทอ (เครื่องปั้นดินเผา, ผ้าไหม เป็นต้น)
- ผลผลิตทางการเกษตรและอาหาร (พืชผัก, หม่า เป็นต้น)
- โฮมสเตย์
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

2. ท่านทราบข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับแหล่งท่องเที่ยวของจังหวัดชัยภูมิจากแหล่งข้อมูลใด

(ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

- สื่อบุคคล (เพื่อน, ครอบครัว เป็นต้น) นิตยสารหรือวารสารท่องเที่ยวต่าง ๆ
- แผ่นพับ / โบรชัวร์ / แผ่นปลิว / โปสเตอร์ หนังสือนำเที่ยว
- โทรทัศน์ / วิทยุ / หนังสือพิมพ์ ป้ายโฆษณา
- สื่ออิเล็กทรอนิกส์ (Internet)
- การประชาสัมพันธ์จากการท่องเที่ยวแห่งประเทศไทย
- การประชาสัมพันธ์จากโรงแรมและสถานที่พัก
- การประชาสัมพันธ์จากบริษัทนำเที่ยว
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

3. การเดินทางมาท่องเที่ยวจังหวัดชัยภูมิในครั้งนี้ ท่านมีแผนที่จะเข้าไปชมสถานที่ท่องเที่ยว แหล่งใดต่อไปบ้าง (ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

- แหล่งท่องเที่ยวที่เป็นธรรมชาติ (น้ำตก, อุทยานแห่งชาติ, ทุ่งดอกกระเจียว เป็นต้น)
- แหล่งโบราณสถาน (ปราสาท, ภูแดง, พระธาตุหนองสามหมื่น เป็นต้น)
- แหล่งโบราณคดี (เมืองหามหมอก, เมืองน้อยใต้, บานกุดโจ่ง เป็นต้น)
- ขนบธรรมเนียมประเพณี (งานบรวงสรวงเจ้าพ่อพระยาแล, งานบุญสงกรานต์ เป็นต้น)
- ความเป็นอยู่ของประชากรในท้องถิ่นและชนเผ่าพื้นเมืองชาวนน
- งานศิลปหัตถกรรมและสิ่งทอ (เครื่องปั้นดินเผา, ผ้าไหม เป็นต้น)
- โฮมสเตย์
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

4. ท่านคาดหวังอะไรจากการเดินทางมาท่องเที่ยวในครั้งนี้ (ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

- พักผ่อนหย่อนใจ
- เรียนรู้วิถีชีวิตและวัฒนธรรมประเพณี
- เรียนรู้ประวัติศาสตร์ของสถานที่ท่องเที่ยวต่าง ๆ
- อยู่ใกล้ชิดกับธรรมชาติ
- เรียนรู้ที่จะมีประสบการณ์ในสิ่งแปลกๆ ใหม่ ๆ
- ได้รับความสนุกสนานเพลิดเพลิน
- ชื่นชมทัศนียภาพที่สวยงาม
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ

5. สิ่งใดต่อไปนี้ที่ท่านได้ทำระหว่างการเดินทางท่องเที่ยวในจังหวัดชัยภูมิในครั้งนี้ (ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

- ซื้อโปรแกรมทัวร์กับบริษัททัวร์ในจังหวัดชัยภูมิ
- ซื้อโปรแกรมทัวร์กับบริษัททัวร์ทั่วไป
- รับการให้บริการจากมัคคุเทศก์ของชุมชน
- รับการให้บริการจากมัคคุเทศก์ของบริษัทนำเที่ยวทั่วไป
- ซื้อของที่ระลึกจากร้านค้าภายในชุมชน
- ซื้อของที่ระลึกจากร้านค้าภายนอกชุมชน

6. ท่านคิดว่า การท่องเที่ยวตามแหล่งธรรมชาติ (น้ำตก, อุทยานแห่งชาติ, ทุ่งดอกกระเจียว เป็นต้น) แหล่งโบราณสถาน (ปราสาทหิน, ปราสาทหินพนมรุ้ง เป็นต้น) แหล่งโบราณคดี (เมืองหามหมอก, เมืองน้อยใต้, บ้านกุดโจ่ง เป็นต้น) และ แหล่งท่องเที่ยวชนบทวัฒนธรรม ประเพณีและวัฒนธรรม (งานบุญต่างๆ, โฮมสเตย์, หมู่บ้านผ้าไหม เป็นต้น) สามารถจัดให้เป็นการท่องเที่ยวแบบอนุรักษ์ (ecotourism) ได้หรือไม่
- ไม่ได้ (กรุณาทำข้อ 7) ได้ (กรุณาทำข้อ 8)

7. ท่านคิดว่าการท่องเที่ยวใน ข้อ 6 ควรเรียกว่า การท่องเที่ยวแบบใด

- การท่องเที่ยวแบบยั่งยืน
- การท่องเที่ยวเชิงวัฒนธรรม
- การท่องเที่ยวแบบกลุ่มคนขนาดใหญ่
- การท่องเที่ยวเชิงวัฒนธรรมและมรดกทางวัฒนธรรม
- การท่องเที่ยวเชิงธรรมชาติและวัฒนธรรม
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ.....

8. ท่านคิดว่าตัวเลือกในข้อใดต่อไป นี้ จัดว่าเป็นความหมายของการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์?

(ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)

- ธรรมชาติ (น้ำตก, อุทยานแห่งชาติ, ทุ่งดอกกระเจียว เป็นต้น)
- โบราณสถาน (ปราสาทหิน, ปราสาทเขาพนมรุ้ง เป็นต้น)
- โบราณคดี (บ้านปราสาท, ภูเวียง, บ้านเชียง เป็นต้น)
- ชนบทวัฒนธรรมประเพณี (งานบรวงสรวงเจ้าพ่อพระยาแล, งานบุญสงกรานต์ เป็นต้น)
- ชนเผ่าพื้นเมืองต่างๆ (ชาวเขาเผ่าม้ง, กระเหรี่ยง เป็นต้น)
- ศิลปหัตถกรรมและสิ่งทอ (เครื่องปั้นดินเผา, ผ้าไหม เป็นต้น)
- ชนบท (หมู่บ้านควาย, หมู่บ้านชาวนา เป็นต้น)
- การเกษตร (สวนผักและผลไม้, ไร่ถั่ว เป็นต้น)
- การดูและส่องสัตว์ (นก, เต่า เป็นต้น)
- สวนสัตว์
- ธรรมะและความเชื่อ (พระอรหันต์ต่างๆ, จตุคามรามเทพ เป็นต้น)
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ.....

9. ท่านคิดว่าในอนาคต การท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์ในจังหวัดชัยภูมิจะเป็นอย่างไร

ดีมาก ดี พอใช้ ไม่ดี ไม่ดีมาก

เพราะ

10. ท่านคิดว่าในอนาคต การท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์ในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือจะเป็นอย่างไร

ดีมาก ดี พอใช้ ไม่ดี ไม่ดีมาก

เพราะ

11. ท่านคิดว่าคำจำกัดความต่างๆ ต่อไปนี้มีความสำคัญมากน้อยเพียงใดต่อคำว่า
“การท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์” (ecotourism)

เรื่อง	สำคัญ มาก ที่สุด	สำคัญ มาก	ไม่ แน่ใจ	สำคัญ น้อย	สำคัญ น้อย ที่สุด
1. ส่งเสริมและอนุรักษ์แหล่งท่องเที่ยวธรรมชาติ					
2. ส่งเสริมและอนุรักษ์แหล่งท่องเที่ยว ด้านขนบธรรมเนียม วัฒนธรรมและประเพณี					
3. ส่งเสริมและอนุรักษ์แหล่งท่องเที่ยวด้านโบราณสถาน					
4. ส่งเสริมและอนุรักษ์แหล่งท่องเที่ยวด้านโบราณ คติ					
5. เกี่ยวข้องกับการผจญภัยและผาดโผน เช่น ไต่หน้าผา ล่องแก่ง เป็นต้น					
6. เกี่ยวข้องกับกิจกรรมทางด้านศาสนาและความเชื่อ					
7. เกี่ยวข้องกับมนุษย์ สัตว์ สิ่งของ และชุมชน					
8. เกี่ยวข้องกับคนภายในท้องถิ่นและชนพื้นเมือง					
9. เกี่ยวข้องกับอุทยาน วนอุทยาน สวนสัตว์เปิด					

เรื่อง	ความสำคัญ มาก ที่สุด	สำคัญ มาก	ไม่ แน่ใจ	สำคัญ น้อย	สำคัญ น้อย ที่สุด
10. ส่งเสริมการอนุรักษ์					
11. ส่งผลประโยชน์ต่อชุมชนและคนในท้องถิ่นทั้งในระยะสั้นและระยะยาว					
12. มุ่งเน้นการเรียนรู้ การปฏิบัติต่อสิ่งแวดล้อม สังคม และวัฒนธรรมที่รายล้อมรอบ ๆ แหล่งท่องเที่ยว					
13. ไม่ก่อให้เกิดการรบกวนหรือความเสียหายต่อสิ่งแวดล้อม สังคม และวัฒนธรรมที่รายล้อมรอบ ๆ แหล่งท่องเที่ยว					
14. มุ่งเน้นความรับผิดชอบต่อความมีจริยธรรมต่อสถานที่ท่องเที่ยวและชุมชน					
15. มีการจัดการอย่างดีต่อแหล่งท่องเที่ยวและชุมชน					
16. มีการส่งเสริมและผลักดันให้มีการจัดการแบบยั่งยืน					
17. ส่งผลให้คนในชุมชนมีงานทำและมีเศรษฐกิจที่ดีขึ้น					

12. จากการที่ท่านได้แสดงความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับคำจำกัดความของการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์ในข้อ 11 แล้ว ท่านคิดว่า การท่องเที่ยวของท่านในครั้งนี้ถือว่าเป็นการท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์ได้หรือไม่

ได้

ไม่แน่ใจ

ไม่ได้

13. ท่านจัดตัวเองว่าเป็นนักท่องเที่ยวยุคไหน (ตอบเพียง 1 ข้อเท่านั้น)

- นักท่องเที่ยวเชิงอนุรักษ์
- นักท่องเที่ยวเชิงธรรมชาติ
- นักท่องเที่ยวเชิงเกษตร
- นักท่องเที่ยวเชิงวัฒนธรรม
- นักท่องเที่ยวแบบยั่งยืน
- นักท่องเที่ยวเชิงมรดกทางวัฒนธรรม
- การท่องเที่ยวแบบกลุ่มคนขนาดใหญ่
- การท่องเที่ยวเชิงวัฒนธรรมและมรดกทางวัฒนธรรม
- การท่องเที่ยวเชิงธรรมชาติและวัฒนธรรม
- อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ.....

14. ข้อเสนอแนะ

.....

.....

.....

ขอขอบพระคุณทุกท่านที่ให้ความกรุณา

APPENDIX 10

THE EVOLUTION OF ECOTOURISM'S MEANINGS

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1987 (1)	Ceballos-Lascurain (Boo, 1990, p. xiv, 2)	<p>Travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any (Geelong-Otway-Tourism, 1995) existing cultural manifestation (both past and present) found in these areas.</p> <p>The main point is that the person who practices ecotourism has the opportunity of immersing him or herself in nature in a way that most people cannot enjoy in their routine urban existence. This person should eventually acquire a consciousness and knowledge of the natural environment, together with its cultural aspects, that will convert him/her into somebody keenly involved in conservation issues.</p>
1987 (2)	Laarman and Durst (Laarman and Durst, 1987, p. 5)	A nature tourism in which the traveller is drawn to destination because of his or her interest in one or more features of that destination's natural history. The visit combines education, recreation, and often adventure.
1989 (3)	Butler (Butler, 1989, p. 9-17)	Ecotourism can be described as the type of tourism that is inherently sensitive to communication, awareness and environmental enhancement. These characteristic of ecotourism make it less likely to create social and environmental problems commonly associated with conventional tourism. Ecotourism attempts to give travellers a greater awareness of environmental systems and contribute positively to the destination's economic, social and ecological conditions.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1989 (4)	Kutay (Weaver, 1998)	Nature tourism which directly or indirectly promotes conservation and supports sustainable economic development.
1989 (5)	Ziffer (Ziffer, 1989, p. 6)	A form of tourism inspired primarily by the natural history of an area, including its Indigenous cultures. The ecotourist visits relatively undeveloped areas in the spirit of appreciation, participation and sensitivity. The ecotourist practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and contributes to the visited area through labour or financial means aimed at diversity benefiting the conservation of the site and the economic well-being of the local residents. The visit should strengthen the ecotourist's appreciation and dedication to conservation issues in general, and to the specific needs to the locale. Ecotourism also implies a managed approach by the host country or region which commits itself to establishing and maintaining the sites with the participation of local residents, marketing them appropriately, enforcing regulations, and using the proceeds of the enterprise to fund the area's land management as well as community development.
1990 (6)	Ziolkowski (Ziolkowski, 1990)	Low-impacts tourism ... focuses on experiencing the local culture and what it has to offer on its own unadulterated terms ... far from the proverbial "beaten track".
1991 (7)	Boo 1991 (Diamantis, 1999, p. 98)	A nature tourism that contributes to conservation, through generating funds for protected areas, creating employment opportunities for local communities, and offering environmental education.
1991 (8)	Farrell and Runyan (Farrell and Runyan, 1991, p. 34)	Focus on the environment in a special manner in which conservationists and tourists interests see the mutual advantages of working together to preserve environmental quality while mutuality protecting tourism ... nature conservation aided by cooperative strategies ... a subset of nature tourism taken a step farther, with nature and tourism considered equal partners ... exclusively purposeful and focused on the enhancement or maintenance of natural systems through tourism.
1991 (9)	Place (Place, 1991, p. 189)	Gradual small-scale approach, based on local saving and investment ... local participation may provide the opportunity to integrate conservation and economic development for ark-based tourism development.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1991 (10)	The Ecotourism Society (TES) (Wood, 2002, p.9)	Is responsible travel to natural areas that conserve the environment and sustains the well-being of local people.
1991 (11)	Valentine (Allcock, 1994, p. 15)	Nature-based tourism that is ecologically sustainable and is based on relatively undisturbed natural areas; is non-damaging and non-degrading; provides a direct contribution to the continued protection and management of protected areas used; and is subject to an adequate and appropriate management regime.
1991 (12)	Wood <i>et al.</i> (Leksakundilok, 2004)	Purposeful travel to natural areas, to understand the culture and natural history of the environment, taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem, and producing economic opportunities that make conservation of natural resources beneficial to local citizen.
1992 (13)	Boo (Boo, 1990, p.ii)	Nature travel that advances conservation and sustainable development.
1992 (14)	Brause (Brause, 1992, p. 29)	Travel opportunities designed to help people get more in touch with the beauty, wonder and value of the environment and then go to do something to preserve, protector restore what has been destroyed or nearly destroyed by our recent (and in some cases distant) ancestors.
1992 (15)	Canadian Environmental Advisory Council (Weaver, 1998, p. 17)	An enlightening nature travel experience that contributes to conservation of the ecosystem while respecting the integrity of host community.
1992 (16)	Hunter (Weaver, 1998)	Among the list of “neo-tourism” (new tourism initiatives, new players, new concerns, new approaches, new ideas and new terminology) activities is ecotourism. Eco/nature tourism is the result of a long overdue recognition that tourists, if properly developed and managed, can contribute to the protection and preservation of unique natural and cultural environments, rather than exploit them. Ecotourism advocates believe that there is a “kinder and gentler” tourism that does not necessarily require extensive and intensive development or environmentally or socially degrading activities.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1992 (17)	Scace <i>et al.</i> (1992)	A travel that helps to conserve the biodiversity as well as respect the cultures of local residents within the areas.
1992 (18)	Williams (Williams, 1992, p.15)	Travelling in relatively primitive and rural circumstances, rustic accommodations, muddy trails, basic amenities, the pay-off being a stronger appreciation and closer contact with wildlife, local culture and resource conservation issues.
1992 (19)	Young (Allcock <i>et al.</i> , 1993, p. 15)	Tourism to natural areas that fosters environmental understanding appreciation and conservation and sustain the culture and well-being of local communities.
1993 (20)	Agardy (Agardy, 1993, p. 224-225)	Viewing wildlife (such as birds, sea turtles and marine mammals), learning about coastal ecology (especially wetlands ecology), Scuba diving or snorkelling in undisturbed areas, or to experience nature n its broadest sense.
1993 (21)	Allcock <i>et al.</i> (Allcock <i>et al.</i> , 1993, p. 15)	Tourism that includes an educational component and its managed to be sustainable.
1993 (22)	Boo (Alampay, 2005)	An activity that involves the ecosystems and tourism.
1993 (23)	Boyd and Butler (Diamantis, 1999, p. 98)	A responsible nature travel experience, that contributes to the conservation of the ecosystem while respecting the integrity of host communities and, where possible, ensuring that activities are complementary, or at least compatible, with existing resource-based uses present at the ecosystem.
1993 (24)	Figgis (Diamantis, 1999, p. 98)	Travel to remote or natural areas which aims to enhance understanding and appreciation of natural environment and cultural heritage, while avoiding damaging or deterioration of the environment and the experience for others.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1993 (25)	Miller (Miller, 1993, p. 187-188)	Ecotourism has international currency as a concept grounded in preservation-conservation and sustainable development ideals. As the term has come to be employed, it evokes a host of near-synonyms ... “equally tourism”, “ethnic tourism”, “cultural tourism”, “socio-cultural tourism”, “photo-safari tourism”, “drive tourism”, and “surfing tourism”.
1993 (26)	Richardson (Diamantis, 1999, p. 98)	Ecologically sustainable tourism in natural areas that interprets local environment and cultures, furthers the tourists’ understanding of them, fosters conservation and adds to the well-being of the local people.
1993 (27)	Shanklin (Lawrence <i>et al.</i> , 1997)	Trips taken in which travellers learn about and appreciate the environmental and trip taken to advance the cause of conservation.
1993 (28)	Valentine (Valentine, 1993, p. 108-109)	New form of tourism ... especially concerned with the appreciation of nature as the primary motive to participate, but with an essential element of zero negative impacts ... based on relatively undisturbed natural areas, non-damaging, non-degrading, ecologically sustainable, a direct contributor to the continued protection and management of the natural areas used, subject to an adequate and appropriate management regime.
1993 (29)	Wallace (Wallace, 1993, p. 40)	Providing assistance such as interpretation, resource inventory and monitoring, and visitor concession management – working effectively with local people who live in or near wildlands and cooperating with non-profits – everyone will benefit from viewing wilderness in the global context.
1993 (30)	Western (Western, 1993, p. 7-8)	Responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and improve the welfare of local people.
1993 (31)	Wight (Wight, 1993, p. 5)	Is an enlightening nature travel experience that contributes to conservation of the ecosystem, while respecting the integrity of host communities?
1994 (32)	Anderson (Anderson, 1994, p. 32)	Tourism experience infused with the spirit of conservation.
1994 (33)	Australia Department of Tourism (Diamantis, 1999, p. 98)	Nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable. This definition recognises that natural environment includes cultural components, and that ecologically sustainable involves an appropriate return to the local community and long-term conservation of the resource.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1994 (34)	Backman, Wright and Backman (Backman <i>et al.</i> 1994, p. 23)	In ecotourism ... potentially peak experiences let us know we truly are alive – reawakening from our everyday lives, reawakening the spirit, allowing for those ever-seeking, enjoying, escaping, relating, discovering, fulfilling and self-discovering feelings – all within the confines of carefully chosen.
1994 (35)	Ballantine and Eagles (Ballantine and Eagles, (1994)	Ecotourism as distinctive form from other type of tourism because its motives are focusing on natural resources and length of stay
1994 (36)	Buckley (Buckley, 1994, p. 664)	Tourism with a nature-based product, sustainable managed, an education component and some contribution to conservation.
1994 (37)	Lindberg and Johnson (Lindberg and Johnson, 1994, p. 10)	Most concept of ecotourism include the expectation that ecotourism development will benefit conservation
1994 (38)	Tickell (Diamantis, 1999, p. 98)	Travel to enjoy the world’s amazing diversity of natural life and human culture without causing damage to either.
1994 (39)	Wall (Wall, 1994, p. 7)	Ecotourism is usually used to refer to tourism which takes place in relatively natural settings or is directed at specific components of such including rare and endangered species of plants or animals. These locations are often at considerable distance from the areas of demand, the former often being in countries of the South whereas the ecotourists usually originate in the North ... “economically viable tourism”.
1995 (40)	Dowling (Dowling, 1996, p. 85)	Nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecological sustainable.
1995 (41)	Orams (Orams, 1995, p. 5)	Tourism which is based on the natural environment and seeks to minimise its negative impact on the environment.
1995 (42)	Place (Weaver, 1998)	A response to phenomena occurring in both centre and periphery, deriving from the dominant global economic paradigm based on continuous growth.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1996 (43)	Goodwin (Goodwin, 1996, p. 288)	Low impact nature tourism which contributes to the maintenance of species and habitats either directly through a contribution to conserve and/or indirectly by providing revenue to the local community sufficient for local people, and therefore protect, their wildlife heritage area as a resource of income.
1996 (44)	IUCN (currently called the World Conservation Union) (Wood, 2002, p.9)	Environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively disturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features-both past and present) that promotes conservation, has low negative visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local population.
1996 (45)	Kinnaird and O'Brien (Kinnaird and O'Brien, 1996, p. 72)	Ecotourism or nature tourism is implicitly assumed to have little or no impact on the environment ... appears to be an ideal solution for combining goals of development and conservation.
1996 (46)	Marshall (Weaver, 2001)	A form of tourism that focuses on conserving the natural environment as well as maximise the host community well-being.
1996 (47)	Wallace and Pierce (Wallace and Pierce, 1996, p. 848)	Travel to relatively undisturbed natural areas for study, enjoyment or volunteer assistance. It is travel that concerns itself with the flora, fauna, geology, and ecosystems of an areas, as well as the people (caretakers) who live nearby, their needs, their culture, and their relationship to the land. It [<i>sic</i>] views natural areas both as 'home to all of us' in a global sense ('eco' meaning home) but 'home to nearby residents' especially. It is envisioned as a tool for both conservation and sustainable development – especially in areas where local people are asked to forgo the consumptive use of resources for others.
1996 (48)	Wight (Wight, 1996)	'Ecotourism' is a travel experience that focuses on learning and respecting the host communities' ecosystems
1997 (49)	Lawrence <i>et al.</i> (Lawrence <i>et al.</i> , 1997, p. 308)	Travel oriental towards the natural environment or Indigenous cultures of a region and it is generally expected to respect and protect the environment and culture of the host country or region.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1997 (50)	TISTR (TISTR, 1997)	Responsible travel in areas containing natural resources that possess endemic characteristic and cultural or historical resources that are integrated into the area's ecological system. It's purpose is to create an awareness among all concerned parties of the need for and the measures used to conserve ecosystems and as such is oriented towards community participation as well as the provision of a joint learning experience in sustainable tourism and environment management.
1998 (51)	Beeton (Beeton, 1998, p. 13)	Tourism that occurs in a natural setting, is educative and is managed in a sustainable manner.
1998 (52)	Inskeep (Inskeep, 1991, p. 75)	A form of natural tourism in which utmost consideration is given to conservation of the environment, including biological diversity, wildlife and ecological systems, with emphasis placed on educating tourists about the environment and how to conserve it.
1998 (53)	MacGregor (Weaver, 2001)	Travel for purpose of learning about the natural and cultural environments, while contributing to local community development, and the conservation and restoration of resources, while using only those operators and suppliers that are making a significant effort to practice sustainable tourism and green management.
1999 (54)	Fennell (Fennell, 2014)	A sustainable form of natural resource-based tourism that focuses primarily on experiencing and learning about nature, and is ethically managed to be low-impact, non-consumptive, and locally oriented (control, benefit, and scale). It typically occurs in natural areas and should contribute to the conservation or preservation of such areas.
1999 (55)	Honey (Honey, 2008)	Travel to fragile, pristine and usually protected areas that strive to be low-impact and small scale. It helps educate the traveller; provides funds for conservation; directly benefits the economic development and political empowerment of local communities; and fosters respect for different cultures and human rights.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
1999 (56)	Sirakaya <i>et al.</i> (Higham and Carr, 2003, p.26)	The type of tourism that is inherently sensitive to communication, awareness and environmental enhancement [which] attempts to give travellers a greater awareness of environmental systems and contribute positively to the destination's economics, social and ecological conditions.
1999 (57)	Santasombat (Santasombat, 2001 [author's translation])	The tourism that mainly focus on the sustainability, ethics, right and management for nature as well as local citizen.
2000 (58)	Cock and Pfueller (Cock and Pfueller, 2000, p. 27)	Promotes the well-being of individuals, communities and environment by recognising their interdependence for ecological sustainability.
2001 (59)	Blamey (Wearing <i>et al.</i> , 2002, p. 137)	Nature based, environmentally educated, and sustainably managed in terms natural and cultural environment.
2001 (60)	The Ecotourism Association of Australia (EAA) (Weaver, 2001)	Ecologically sustainable tourism with primary focus on experiencing natural areas that foster environment and cultural understanding, appreciation and conservation.
2001 (61)	Honey and Rome (Honey, 2008)	Includes the undisturbed and protected areas.
2001 (62)	Ryan (Weaver, 2001)	A symbiotic relationship between tourism and nature conservation.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
2001 (63)	Weaver (Weaver, 2001, p. 15)	A form of nature-based tourism that foster learning experiences and appreciation of the natural environment or some component thereof, within its associated cultural context. It has the appearance (in concert with best practice) of being environmentally and socio-culturally sustainable, preferably in a way that enhances the natural and cultural resource base of the destination and promoted the viability of the operation.
2002 (64)	WTO-UNEP (Fennell, 2014)	A sustainable form of tourism that concerns about economics, social and environmental impacts within the tourism aspect
2003 (65)	Butcher (Butcher, 2003)	Focusing on making a positive difference into three key elements which are environment, local communities and tourist themselves.
2011 (66)	Gallaghera and Hammerschlaga (Gallaghera and Hammerschlaga, 2011)	A new tourism approach for the tourists to experience new ways of nature while they exchange the money for it
2012 (67)	Zhang and Lei (Zhang and Lei, 2012)	A tool for enhancing quality of life, increasing opportunities for environmentally responsible economic development, and conserving fragile natural resources, cultural heritage and landscapes.
2014 (68)	Fennell (Fennell, 2014)	Focuses on the impacts on the local communities and sites
2014 (69)	Tran and Walter (Tran and Walter, 2014)	A travel that helps to promote local livelihood, environmental conservation and culture.

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
2014 (70)	Wang et al., 2014	A travel that aims to: to minimize the impact of tourism activities, to foster environmental awareness and respect for culture, to promote natural and cultural understanding and appreciation through an interpretation system, to invest part of the tourism revenue directly in protection, to protect community interests and to improve the socio-economic and ecological environment sensitivity of the destination.
2016 (71)	Arismayanti and Mananda (Arismayanti and Mananda, 2016)	A natural conservation activity.
2016 (72)	Karst, p.1 (Cabral and Dhar, 2020)	‘responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education’
2017 (73)	TIES (TIES, 2017)	A ‘responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education’.
2019 (74)	Ionel (Ionel, 2019)	Focuses on building the environmental and cultural awareness and generating the financial benefits for both local people and private industry.
2019 (75)	Kishnami (Khanal, 2019)	Ecotourism entails the sustainable preservation of a naturally endowed area while ensuring not to damage the ecological balance.
2019 (76)	Khanal (Khanal, 2019)	A tourism practice that aims to contribute on improving the quality of local people in natural and cultural areas as well as conserving the local areas’ resources.
2019 (77)	(Stronza et al., 2019, p.231)	Ecotourism includes the concepts of “responsibility,” “the well-being” and “education.”

Year	Definers	Meanings of Ecotourism
2019 (78)	Walsh & George (Phelan et al., 2020)	Ecotourism is natural conservation, quality of resident livelihood and education.
2020 (79)	Karmini (Karmini, 2020)	A conservation form of tourism that focuses on maximise the local citizens' welfare, natural and cultural resources
2020 (80)	Zhang and Zhang (Zhang and Zhang, 2020)	Focuses on involving with the local residents as well as strengthening the ecological awareness from the ecotourism process and its management.

APPENDIX 11

THE CATEGORIES OF ECOTOURISM DEFINITIONS

Definers	Nature	Culture	Heritage	Archaeology	Education	Conservation and Preservation	Sustainability	Local Residents	Recreation	Low impacts	Responsibility	Benefit Economics	Others
Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987	/	/	/		/				/				
Laarman and Dust, 1987	/				/				/				Adventure activities
Butler, 1989	/							/			/	/	
Kutay, 1989	/					/	/					/	
Ziffer, 1989	/	/	/			/		/		/		/	Management
Ziolkowski, 1990	/								/	/			
Boo, 1991	/				/	/						/	
Farrell and Runyan, 1991	/					/							Management
Place, 1991	/					/		/				/	Small scale approach
TES, 1991	/					/	/	/			/	/	
Valentine, 1991	/						/					/	Management

Definers	Nature	Culture	Heritage	Archaeology	Education	Conservation and Preservation	Sustainability	Local Residents	Recreation	Low impacts	Responsibility	Benefit Economics	Others
Wood <i>et al.</i> , 1991	/					/					/	/	
Boo, 1992	/					/						/	Management
Brause, 1992	/	/	/			/			/				
Canadian Environmental Advisory Council, 1992	/					/			/		/		
Hunter, 1992	/					/						/	
Scace et al., 1992	/	/				/		/					
Williams 1992	/					/			/				
Young 1992	/	/			/	/	/		/				
Agardy, 1993	/				/				/				
Allock <i>et al.</i> , 1993	/				/		/						
Boo, 1993	/												Tourism activities
Boyd & Butler, 1993	/					/			/		/		
Figgis, 1993	/	/	/		/	/							
Miller, 1993	/	/	/			/			/			/	Management, Indigenous peoples
Richardson , 1993	/	/				/	/					/	
Shanklin, 1993	/				/	/			/				
Valentine, 1993	/					/	/		/	/			Management

Definers	Nature	Culture	Heritage	Archaeology	Education	Conservation and Preservation	Sustainability	Local Residents	Recreation	Low impacts	Responsibility	Benefit Economics	Others
Wallace, 1993	/							/				/	Management
Western, 1993	/					/					/	/	
Wight, 1993	/					/		/	/		/		
Anderson, 1994	/					/			/				
Australia Department of Tourism, 1994	/				/	/	/	/				/	
Backman <i>et al.</i> , 1994	/								/				
Ballantine and Eagles, 1994	/												Length of stay
Buckley, 1994	/				/	/	/						
Lindberg and Johnson, 1994						/							
Tickell, 1994	/					/			/				
Wall, 1994	/											/	
Dowling, 1995	/				/		/						
Orams, 1995	/									/			
Place, 1995	/										/		
Goodwin, 1996	/					/		/				/	
IUCN, 1996	/	/	/			/			/	/	/	/	
Kinnaird and O'Brien, 1996	/					/				/			Experiences

Definers	Nature	Culture	Heritage	Archaeology	Education	Conservation and Preservation	Sustainability	Local Residents	Recreation	Low impacts	Responsibility	Benefit Economics	Others
Marshall , 1996	/					/		/				/	Local Well-being
Wallace and Pierce, 1996	/			/	/	/	/	/	/			/	Management
Wight, 1996	/				/	/				/			
Lawrence <i>et al.</i> , 1997	/	/	/			/			/		/		
TISR, 1997	/	/				/	/	/			/		
Beeton, 1998	/				/		/						
Inskoop, 1998	/				/	/							
MacGregor, 1998	/				/	/	/					/	Management
Fennell, 1999	/				/	/	/		/	/		/	Management
Honey, 1999	/	/			/	/		/		/	/	/	Small scale, Political empowerment, human rights Human Rights
Sirakaya, 1999	/				/	/		/				/	
Santasombat, 1999	/						/	/			/		Rights, Management
Cock and Pfueller, 2000	/						/	/				/	
Blamey, 2001	/				/		/						
The Ecotourism Association of Australia (EAA, 2001)	/	/				/	/		/				

Definers	Nature	Culture	Heritage	Archaeology	Education	Conservation and Preservation	Sustainability	Local Residents	Recreation	Low impacts	Responsibility	Benefit Economics	Others
Honey and Rome, 2001	/												
Ryan, 2001	/					/			/				
Weaver, 2001	/	/			/		/	/	/				
WTO-UNEP, 2002	/	/					/	/				/	
Butcher, 2003	/							/					Making positive differences Tourists
Gallaghera and Hammerschlag a, 2011	/												
Zhang and Lei, 2012	/	/	/			/					/	/	Local well-being
Fennell, 2014	/	/	/	/				/					
Tran and Walter, 2014	/	/				/		/					
Wang et al., 2014	/	/				/		/				/	
Arismayanti & Mananda, 2016	/					/							Activities
Karst, 2016	/				/	/		/			/	/	
TIES, 2017	/				/			/			/	/	Local well-being
Ionel, 2019	/	/	/					/				/	
Kishnami, 2019	/					/							

Definers	Nature	Culture	Heritage	Archaeology	Education	Conservation and Preservation	Sustainability	Local Residents	Recreation	Low impacts	Responsibility	Benefit Economics	Others
Khanal, 2019	/	/				/		/					Local well-being
Stronza et al., 2019					/						/		Local well-being
Walsh & George, 2019	/				/	/							
Karmini, 2020	/	/				/		/					Local well-being
Zhang and Zhang, 2020	/					/		/					Management

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ABRIS, M., PALANCA, M., LEON, M., BANAAY, C. G. AND BANAAY, B. (2020) 'Microbial air and water quality assessment of a freshwater limestone cave in the Philippines and its implications for ecotourism management', *Journal of Nature Studies*, 19(1), pp. 33-48.

ADB. (2015) *Thailand: Industrialization and economic catch-up*. Manila: Asian Development Bank.

ADOM, D. (2019) 'The place and voice of local people, culture, and traditions: A catalyst for ecotourism development in rural communities in Ghana', *Scientific African*, 6, pp. 1-12. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sciaf.2019.e00184>.

AFONSO, E., FU, R., DUPAIX, A., GOYDADIN, A.-C., YU, Z., CALLOU, C., VILLETTE, P., GIRAUDOUX, P. AND LI, L. (2021) 'Feeding sites promoting wildlife-related tourism might highly expose the endangered Yunnan snub-nosed monkey (*Rhinopithecus bieti*) to parasite transmission', *Scientific Reports*, 11(1), pp. 1-17. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-95166-5>.

AGARDY, M. T. (1993) 'Accommodating ecotourism in multiple use planning of coastal and marine protected areas', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 20(3), pp. 219-239. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0964-5691\(93\)90068-A](https://doi.org/10.1016/0964-5691(93)90068-A).

AGYEMAN, Y. B. AND ANTWI-BOSIAKO, N. B. (2022) 'Visitor perceptions of the roles of tour guides in Kakum National Park in Ghana', *Cogent Social Sciences*, 8(1), pp. 1-15. doi: 10.1080/23311886.2022.2052403.

AKAMA, J. S. (1996) 'Western environmental values and nature-based tourism in Kenya', *Tourism Management*, 17(8), pp. 567-574. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(96\)00077-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(96)00077-5).

ALAMPAY, R. B. A. (2005) *Sustainable Tourism Challenges for the Philippines: The Philippine*. APEC Study Centre Network (PASCN) and the Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS).

ALI, M. B., QUADDUS, M., RABBANEE, F. K. AND SHANKA, T. (2022) 'Community Participation and Quality of Life in Nature-Based Tourism: Exploring The Antecedents and Moderators', *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 46(3), pp. 630-661. doi: 10.1177/1096348020980094.

ALLCOCK, A. (1994) *National Ecotourism Strategy*. Canberra: Australian Commonwealth Department of Tourism.

ALLMENDINGER, P., BARKER, A. AND STEAD, S. (2002) 'Delivering Integrated Coastal-zone Management through Land-use', *Planning. Planning Practice and Research*, 17(2), pp. 175-196. doi: 10.1080/02697450220145931.

ALMEYDA, A. M., BROADBENT, E. N., WYMAN, M. S. AND DURHAM, W. H. (2010) 'Ecotourism impacts in the Nicoya Peninsula, Costa Rica', *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(6), pp. 803-819. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.797>.

ALTINAY, L. AND BOWEN, D. (2006) 'Politics and tourism interface: The Case of Cyprus', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(4), pp. 939–956. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2006.03.020.

AMAZINGTHAILAND (2018) *Open To The New Shades*. Available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pGax4DsAadk> (Accessed: 12 November 2018).

ANDERSON, B. (1998) *The spectre of comparisons: nationalism, Southeast Asia, and the world*. London: Verso Books.

ANDERSON, D. L. (1994) 'Developing ecotourism destination: conservation from the beginning', *Trends*, 31(2), pp. 23-27.

ANDERSON, C. J. AND TVERDOVA, Y. V. (2003) 'Corruption, Political Allegiances, and Attitudes toward Government in Contemporary Democracies', *American Journal of Political Science*, 47(1), pp. 91-109. doi: <https://doi.org/3186095>.

ANDREWS, T. (2012) 'What is Social Construction?', *Grounded Theory Review: An International Journal*, 1(11), pp. 39-46.

ANGESSA, A. T., LEMMA, B., YESHITELA, K. AND ENDRIAS, M. (2022) 'Community perceptions towards the impacts of ecotourism development in the central highlands of Ethiopia: the case of Lake Wanchi and its adjacent landscapes', *Heliyon*, 8(2), n.p..

ANGUS-REID-GROUP (1993) *A Summary Report of the Environmental Citizenship Survey*. Ottawa: Parks Canada.

ANYAOKU, C. E. AND MARTIN, C. (2003) 'Parks and participation', *UNEP Our Planet*, 14(2), pp. 14-15.

APLIN, G. (2002) *Heritage: identification, conservation, and management*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

ARDIS, I. (1996) 'Ecotourism', *TDRI Quarterly Review*, 2, pp. 10-15.

ARGHIROS, D. (2002) 'Political reform and Civil Society at the local level: Thailand's Local Government Reforms', in MCCARGO, D. (ed) *Reforming Thai Politics*. Copenhagen: NAIS Press.

ARISMAYANTI, N. K. AND MANANDA, I. G. P. B. S. (2016) *Green tourism as an alternative development tourism villages in Indonesia*. Proceedings of the Asia Tourism Forum 2016 - the 12th Biennial Conference of Hospitality and Tourism Industry in Asia. Bandung, Indonesia.

ASHRAF, M. B. A. AND SIBI, P. S. (2020) *Ecotourism and the Changes in the Lifestyle of Local Community: An Analytical Study in Thenmala*. Kerala: Ane Books.

ASHRAF, M. S., HOU, F., KIM, W. G., AHMAD, W. AND ASHRAF, R. U. (2020) 'Modeling tourists' visiting intentions toward ecofriendly destinations: Implications for sustainable tourism operators', *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 29(1), pp. 54-71. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2350>.

ASIANLII (n.d.) *Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand 1997*. Available at: <http://www.asianlii.org/th/legis/const/1997/1.html> (Accessed: 24 February 2022).

AVELINO, F. AND ROTMANS, J. (2011) 'A dynamic conceptualization of power for sustainability research', *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 19(8), pp. 796-804. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2010.11.012>.

BACHRACH, P. AND BARATZ, M. S. (1962) 'Two Faces of Power', *The American Political Science Review*, 56(4), pp. 947-952. doi: <https://doi.org/1952796>.

BACHRACH, P. AND BARATZ, M. S. (1970) *Power and Poverty: Theory and Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

BACKMAN, K. F. AND MUNANURA, I. (2015) 'Introduction to the special issues on ecotourism in Africa over the past 30 years', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 14(2-3), pp. 95-98. doi: [10.1080/14724049.2015.1128058](https://doi.org/10.1080/14724049.2015.1128058).

BACKMAN, K. F., WRIGHT, B. A. AND BACKMAN, S. J. (1994) 'Ecotourism: A short descriptive exploration', *Trends*, 31 (2), pp. 23-27.

BALASSIANO, K. (2011) 'Tackling "Wicked Problems" in Planning Studio Courses', *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 31(4), pp. 449-460. doi: 10.1177/0739456x11415282.

BALLANTINE, J. AND EAGLES, P. (1994) 'Defining Canadian Ecotourists', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 2, pp. 210-214.

BALLANTYNE, R., PACKER, J. AND HUGHES, K. (2009) 'Tourists' support for conservation messages and sustainable management practices in wildlife tourism experiences', *Tourism Management*, 30(5), pp. 658-664. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.11.003>.

BALMFORD, A., BERESFORD, J., GREEN, J., NAIDOO, R., WALPOLE, M. AND MANICA, A. (2009) 'A Global Perspective on Trends in Nature-Based Tourism', *PLOS Biology*, 7(6), pp. 1-6. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.1000144.

BANGKOKBIZNEWS (2020) *Tourism Authority of Thailand - Ecology and its sustainable*. Available at: <https://www.bangkokbiznews.com/> (Accessed: 16 October 2020).

BANGKOKPOST (2012) *Minister aims to improve MOI strategy plans*. Available at: www.bangkokpost.com/MOI/strategy (Accessed: 1 June 2012).

BANGKOKPOST (2015) *UN: Section 44 worse than martial law*. Available at: <https://www.bangkokpost.com/thailand/politics/516427/un-section-44-worse-than-martial-law> (Accessed: 2 June 2021).

BANGKOKPOST (2018) *NFI's direction for Thailand's Future food industry*. Available at: <https://www.bangkokpost.com/business/1390222/nfis-direction-for-thailands-future-food-industry> (Accessed: 5 May 2020).

BANKS, S. & CARPENTER, M. (2017) 'Researching the local politics and practices of radical Community Development Projects in 1970s', *Britain. Community Development Journal*, 52(2), pp. 226-246. doi: 10.1093/cdj/bsx001.

BARBOUR, R. S. AND KITZINGER, J. (1999) *Developing Focus Group Research: politics, theory and practice*. London: SAGE.

BARMAN, N., BERA, G. AND PRADHAN, M. K. (2015) 'Assessing sustainability in coastal tourism sectors of Odisha coast, India', *European Journal of Geography*. 6(4), pp. 35-50.

BARTLETT, R. AND MILLIGAN, C. (2015) *The development of diary techniques for research*. Bloomsbury Academic.

BAUER, T. G., CHON, K. S. AND MCKERCHER, B. (2003) *Sex and Tourism: Journeys of Romance, Love and Lust*. London: The Haworth Hospitality Press.

BEAUMONT, N. AND DREDGE, D. (2010) 'Local tourism governance: a comparison of three network approaches', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(1), pp. 7-28. doi: 10.1080/09669580903215139.

BECHMANN PEDERSEN, S. (2020) 'A Passport to Peace? Modern Tourism and Internationalist Idealism', *European Review*, 28(3), pp. 389-402. doi: 10.1017/S1062798719000516.

BECKER, C., AGREDA, A., ASTUDILLO SANCHEZ, E., COSTANTINO, M. & TORRES, P. (2005) 'Community-based Monitoring of Fog Capture and Biodiversity at Loma Alta, Ecuador Enhance Social Capital and Institutional Cooperation', *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 14, pp. 2695-2707. doi: 10.1007/s10531-005-8402-1.

BEEBON, S. (1998) *Eco-tourism: A Practical Guide for Rural Communities*. Collingwood, Australia: Landlinks Press.

BEIERLE, T. C. AND KONISKY, D. M. (2000) 'Values, conflict, and trust in participatory environmental planning', *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 19(4), pp. 587-602. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6688\(200023\)19:4<587::AID-PAM4>3.0.CO;2-Q](https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6688(200023)19:4<587::AID-PAM4>3.0.CO;2-Q).

BELISLE, F. J. AND HOY, D. R. (1980) 'The perceived impact of tourism by residents a case study in Santa Marta, Colombia', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7(1), pp. 83-101 doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(80\)80008-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(80)80008-9).

BELLO, F. G., LOVELOCK, B. AND CARR, N. (2017) 'Constraints of community participation in protected area-based tourism planning: the case of Malawi', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 16(2), pp. 131-151. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2016.1251444.

BERGER, P. L. AND LUCKMANN, T. (1991) *The Social Construction of Reality: A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge*. Garden City, NY: Penguin Book.

BERRY, S. AND LADKIN, A. (1997) 'Sustainable tourism: a regional perspective', *Tourism Management*, 18(7), pp. 433-440. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(97\)00053-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(97)00053-8).

BJÖRK, P. (2000) 'Ecotourism from a conceptual perspective, an extended definition of a unique tourism form', *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(3), pp. 189-202. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1522-1970\(200005/06\)2:3<189::AID-JTR195>3.0.CO;2-T](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1522-1970(200005/06)2:3<189::AID-JTR195>3.0.CO;2-T).

BLACK, R. (2007) 'Professional certification: a mechanism to enhance ecotour guide performance', in BLACK, R. AND CRABTREE, A. (eds.) *Quality assurance and certification in ecotourism*. Oxfordshire: CABI Publishing, pp. 316-336.

BLACK, R. AND HAM, S. (2005) 'Improving the Quality of Tour Guiding: Towards a Model for Tour Guide Certification', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 4(3), pp. 178-195. doi: 10.1080/14724040608668442.

BLACK, R. AND KING, B. (2002) 'Human resource development in remote island communities: An evaluation of tour-guide training in Vanuatu', *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4, pp. 103-117.

BLAMEY, R. K. (2001) 'Principle of Ecotourism', in Wearing, S. *et al.* (2002) 'Converting Environmental Concern into Ecotourism Purchases: A Qualitative Evaluation of International Backpackers in Australia', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 1(2), pp. 133-148. doi: 10.1080/14724040208668120.

BLANCO, E., REY-MAQUIEIRA, J. AND LOZANO, J. (2009) 'Economic incentives for tourism firms to undertake voluntary environmental management', *Tourism Management*, 30(1), pp. 112-122. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.04.007>.

BLANGY, S. AND MEHTA, H. (2006) 'Ecotourism and ecological restoration', *Journal for Nature Conservation*, 14, pp. 233-236.

BOEGER, E. (1991) 'Ecotourism/the environment: or the immense potential and importance of ecotourism', *Travel and Tourism Research Association Newsletter*, 12(3), pp. 5-6.

BONIFACE, B. G. AND COOPER, C. (1994) *The Geography of Travel and Tourism*. 2nd edn. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann Ltd.

BOO, E. (1990) *Ecotourism: The Potentials and Pitfalls (Volume 1 & 2)*. World Wildlife Fund.

BOO, E. (1991) 'Ecotourism: A tool for conservation and development', in KUSLER, J. A. (ed.) *Ecotourism and Resource Conservation: A Collection of Papers (Vol. 1)*. Madison: Omnipress, pp. 54-60.

BOONYAMALIK, N. (2005) *Benchmarking*. Available at: http://www.unescobkk.org/fileadmin/user_upload/aims/Pattaya_SCB_Jun05/BENCHMARKING.doc (Accessed: 23 March 2009).

BOSELMAN, F. P., PETERSON, C. A. AND MCCARTHY, C. (1999) *Managing Tourism Growth: Issues and Applications*. Washington DC: Island Press.

BOWORNWATHANA, B. (2006) 'Transforming Bureaucracies for the 21st Century: The New Democratic Governance Paradigm', in OTENYO, E. E. AND LIND, N. (eds.) *Comparative Public Administration: The Essential Readings: v.15 (Research in Public Policy Analysis and Management) (Research in Public Policy Analysis and Management, 15)*. Oxford: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

BRACIO, K. & SZARUCKI, M. (2020) 'Mixed Methods Utilisation in Innovation Management Research: A Systematic Literature Review and Meta-Summary', *Journal of Risk and Financial Management*, 13(252), pp. 1-27. doi: 10.3390/jrfm13110252.

BRAGG, L. 1990. *Ecotourism: a working definition*. Institute for Tropical Rainforest Studies Newsletter.

BRAMWELL, B. AND MEYER, D. (2007) 'Power and tourism policy relations in transition', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(3), pp. 766-788. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2007.03.009>.

BRAMWELL, B. AND SHARMAN, A. (1999) 'Collaboration in local tourism policymaking', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), pp. 392-415. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(98\)00105-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(98)00105-4).

BRANDON, K. (1993) 'Basic steps toward encouraging local participation in nature tourism projects', in LINDBERG, K. AND HAWKINS, D. (eds.) *Ecotourism: A guide for planners and managers*. North Bennington: The Ecotourism Society.

BRANDON, K. (1996) *Ecotourism and Conservation: A Review of Key Issues (World Bank Environment Department Paper No. 33)*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

BRAUSE, D. (1992) 'The challenge of ecotourism: balancing resources, Indigenous people and tourists', *Transitions abroad magazine*, Nov-Dec, pp. 29-31.

BRITTON, S. G. (1983) *Tourism and Underdevelopment in Fiji*. Canberra: Australian National University.

BROWN, F. AND HALL, D. (2008) 'Tourism and Development in the Global South: the issues', *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), pp. 839-849. doi: 10.1080/01436590802105967.

BRUYERE, B., BEH, A. AND LELENGUYAH, G. (2008) 'Differences in Perceptions of Communication, Tourism Benefits, and Management Issues in a Protected Area of Rural Kenya', *Environmental management*, 43(1), pp. 49-59. doi: 10.1007/s00267-008-9190-7.

BRYCESON, D. F. (2002) 'The Scramble in Africa: Reorienting Rural Livelihoods', *World Development*, 30(5), pp. 725-739. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X\(02\)00006-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X(02)00006-2).

BUCKLEY, P. J. AND KLEMM, M. (1993) 'The decline of tourism in Northern Ireland: The causes', *Tourism Management*, 14(3), pp. 184-194. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(93\)90019-H](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(93)90019-H).

BUCKLEY, R. (1994) 'A framework for ecotourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), pp. 661-665. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(94\)90126-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(94)90126-0).

BUCKLEY, R. (2003) *Case Studies in Ecotourism*. Wallingford, UK: CAB International.

BUDOWSKI, G. (1976) 'Tourism and Environmental Conversation: Conflict, Coexistence or Symbiosis?', *Environmental Conversation*, 3(1), pp. 27-31. doi:10.1017/S0376892900017707.

BURNS, P. M. (1999) *An Introduction to Tourism and Anthropology*. London: Routledge.

BURR, V. (2015) *Social constructionism*. 3rd edn. UK: Routledge.

BUTCHER, J. (2003) *The Moralisation of Tourism Sun, Sand... and Saving the World?*. UK: Routledge.

BUTCHER, J. (2007) *Ecotourism, NGOs and Development: A Critical Analysis*. London: Routledge.

BUTCHER, J. (2008) 'Ecotourism as Life Politics', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(3), pp. 315-326. doi: 10.1080/09669580802154116.

BUTCHER, J. (2011) 'Can ecotourism contribute to tackling poverty? The importance of 'symbiosis'', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(3), pp. 295-307. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2011.555526.

BUTCHER, J. AND SMITH, P. (2015) *Volunteer Tourism: The Lifestyle Politics of International Development*. New York: Routledge.

BUTLER, R. W. (1989) 'Alternative Tourism: Pious Hope or Trojan Horse?', *World Leisure & Recreation*, 31(4), pp. 9-17. doi: 10.1080/10261133.1989.10559086.

BUTLER, R. W. (1999) 'Problems and issues of integrating tourism development', in PEARCE, D. AND BUTLER, R. (eds.) *Contemporary Issues in Tourism Development*. London: Routledge.

BYRD, E. T., BOSLEY, H. E. AND DRONBERGER, M. G. (2009) 'Comparisons of stakeholder perceptions of tourism impacts in rural eastern North Carolina', *Tourism Management*, 30(5), pp. 693-703. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.10.021>.

BYRD, E. T., CÁRDENAS, D. A. AND DREGALLA, S. E. (2009) 'Differences in Stakeholder Attitudes of Tourism development and the natural Environment', *E-review of tourism research*, 7, pp. 39-51.

CABRAL, C. AND DHAR, R. L. (2020) 'Ecotourism research in India: from an integrative literature review to a future research framework', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 19(1), pp. 23-49. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2019.1625359.

CAHILL, A. (2008) 'Power over, power to, power with: Shifting perceptions of power for local economic development in the Philippines', *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, 49(3), pp. 294-304. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8373.2008.00378.x.

CALGARO, E. AND LLOYD, K. (2008) 'Sun, sea, sand and tsunami: examining disaster vulnerability in the tourism community of Khao Lak, Thailand', *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, 29(3), pp. 288-306. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9493.2008.00335.x>.

CAMPBELL, L. M. (1999) 'Ecotourism in rural developing communities', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(3), pp. 534-553. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(99\)00005-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00005-5).

CÁNOVES, G., VILLARINO, M., PRIESTLEY, G. K. AND BLANCO, A. (2004) 'Rural tourism in Spain: an analysis of recent evolution', *Geoforum*, 35(6), pp. 755-769. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2004.03.005>.

CARMIN, J., DARNALL, N. AND MIL-HOMENS, J. (2003) 'Stakeholder Involvement in the Design of U.S. Voluntary Environmental Programs: Does Sponsorship Matter?', *The Policy Studies Journal*, 31(4), pp. 527-543.

CATER, E. (1993) 'Ecotourism in the third world: problems for sustainable tourism development', *Tourism Management*, 14(2), pp. 85-90. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(93\)90040-R](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(93)90040-R).

CAUSEVIC, S. & LYNCH, P. (2013) 'Political (in)stability and its influence on tourism development', *Tourism Management*, 34, pp. 145-157. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.04.006>.

CEBALLOS-LASCURAIN, H. 1987. The future of ecotourism. *Mexico Journal*, January, pp.13-14.

CEBALLOS-LASCURAIN, H. (1991). 'Tourism, ecotourism, and protected areas', in Kusler, J. A. (compiler), *Ecotourism and resource conservation, A collection of papers, vol. 1*. Madison: Omnipress, pp. 24-30.

CEBALLOS-LASCURAIN, H. (1996) *Tourism, Ecotourism and Protected Areas: the state of nature-based tourism around the world and guidelines for its development*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

CEO-RETREAT (2004) *Tourism Strategies*. Bangkok: OPDC.

CEO-RETREAT (2006) *CEO Fund*. Bangkok: OPDC.

CHADWICK, R. A. (1994) 'Concepts, definitions, and measures used in travel and tourism research', in Ritchie, J. R. B. and Goeldner, C. R. (eds.) *Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*. 2nd edn. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

CHAIGNEAU, T. AND BROWN, K. (2016) 'Challenging the win-win discourse on conservation and development: Analyzing support for marine protected areas', *Ecology and Society*, 21(1), pp. 36-45. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5751/ES-08204-21013>.

CHAIYAPHUM-TOURISTS-STATISTIC (2008) *Chaiyaphum Tourists Statistics*. Available at: <http://www2.tat.or.th/stat/download/tst/585/Chaiyaphum49.xls> (Accessed: 22 June 2008).

CHAMBERS, P. AND WAITOOKIAT, N. (2020) 'Faction Politics in an Interrupted Democracy: the Case of Thailand', *Journal of Current Southeast Asian Affairs*, 39(1), pp. 144-166. doi: 10.1177/1868103420906020.

CHAMBERS, R. (1983) *Rural development: putting the last first*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.

CHANDRAN, R. (2020) 'What about us?' *Thai budget businesses fear premium tourist focus*. Available at: <https://news.trust.org/item/20211020235907-68g1e> (Accessed: 10 October 2021).

CHANKORM, W. (2021) 'Indigenous people and National Park', *BangkokPost*, 28 April.

CHARDCHAWARN, S. (2010) *Local Governance in Thailand: The Politics of Decentralization and the Roles of Bureaucrats, Politicians and the People (V.R.F. Series No. 456)*. Chiba, Japan: Institute of Developing Economies.

CHEN, F., LAI, M. AND HUANG, H. (2020) 'Can marine park become an ecotourism destination? Evidence from stakeholders' perceptions of the suitability', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 196, pp. 1-9. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2020.105307>.

CHEN, H., ZHU, Z., CHANG, J. AND GAO, Y. (2020) 'The effects of social integration and hometown identity on the life satisfaction of Chinese rural migrants: the mediating and moderating effects of a sense of belonging in the host city', *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 18(1), pp. 171-179. doi: 10.1186/s12955-020-01415-y.

CHEONG, S. M. AND MILLER, M. (2000) 'Power and tourism: A Foucauldian observation', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(2), pp. 371-390. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(99\)00065-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00065-1).

CHIA, K. W., RAMACHANDRAN, S., HO, J. A. AND NG, S. I. (2018) 'Conflicts to Consensus: Stakeholder Perspectives of Tioman Island Tourism Sustainability', *International Journal of Business and Society*, 19(1), pp. 159-174.

CHIN, C. L. M., MOORE, S. A., WALLINGTON, T. J. AND DOWLING, R. K. (2000) 'Ecotourism in Bako National Park, Borneo: Visitors' Perspectives on Environmental Impacts and their Management', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 8(1), pp. 20-35. doi: 10.1080/09669580008667347.

CHOI, H. C. & MURRAY, I. (2010) 'Resident attitudes toward sustainable community tourism', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(4), pp. 575-594. doi: 10.1080/09669580903524852.

CHOI, M. A. (2020) 'Multiple environmental subjects: Governmentalities of ecotourism development in Jeungdo, South Korea', *Geoforum*, 110, pp. 77-86. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2020.01.011>.

CHOIBAMROONG, T. (2011) 'A stakeholder approach for sustainable community-based rural tourism development in Thailand', in: LAWS, E., RICHINS, H., AGRUSA, J. AND SCOTT, N. (eds.) *Tourist destination governance: practice, theory and issues*. Cairns, Australia: James Cook University.

CHONG, K. L. (2020) 'The side effects of mass tourism: the voices of Bali islanders', *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 25(2), pp. 157-169. doi: 10.1080/10941665.2019.1683591.

CHOWDHURY, A. AND MAITI, S. K. (2016) 'Assessing the ecological health risk in a conserved mangrove ecosystem due to heavy metal pollution: A case study from Sundarbans Biosphere Reserve, India', *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal*, 22(7), pp. 1519-1541. doi: 10.1080/10807039.2016.1190636.

CHRIST, C., HILLEL, O., MATUS, S. AND SWEETING, J. (2003) *Tourism and Biodiversity: mapping tourism's global footprint*. Washington, DC: Conservation International.

CHRISTENSEN, J. (2004) 'Win-Win Illusions', *Conservation in Practice*, 5(1), pp. 12-19.
doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-4629.2004.tb00079.x>.

CHUAMUANGPHAN, N. (2009) *Ecotourism planning and management and sustainable development in Chiang Rai Province, Thailand*. PhD, Sheffield Hallam University.

COBBINAH, P. B. (2014) *Towards poverty reduction in developing countries: An analysis of ecotourism implementation in the Kakum Conservation Area, Ghana*. PhD, Charles Sturt University.

COBBINAH, P. B., AMENUVOR, D., BLACK, R. AND PEPRAH, C. (2017) 'Ecotourism in the Kakum Conservation Area, Ghana: Local politics, practice and outcome', *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 20, pp. 34-44. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2017.09.003>.

COCK, P. H. AND PFUELLER, S. L. (2000) *Australian Ecotourism: contributing to ecological and community sustainability*. Monash University Melbourne Vic Australia, Monash Publications in Geography and Environmental Science Number 54.

CORDINA, R., GANNON, M., TAHERI, B., OKUMUS, F. AND LOCHRIE, S. (2021) 'Committed to conservation: Tourism in developed and developing contexts', *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 24(2), pp. 323-336. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2504>.

COHEN, B., SMITH, B. AND MITCHELL, R. (2008) 'Toward a sustainable conceptualization of dependent variables in entrepreneurship research', *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 17(2), pp. 107-119. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.505>.

COHEN, E. (1979) 'Impact of tourism on the hilltribes of northern Thailand', *Internationales Asienforum*, 10(1/2), pp. 5-38.

COHEN, E. (2008) 'The Changing Faces of Contemporary Tourism', *Society*, 45, pp. 330-333. doi: [10.1007/s12115-008-9108-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12115-008-9108-2).

COHEN, R. AND KENNEDY, P. (2000) *Global Sociology*. Basingstoke: Macmillan Press.

CONNIFF, M. L. (2020) 'A historiography of populism and neopopulism in Latin America', *History Compass*, 18(9), pp. 1-11. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/hic3.12621>.

COOKE, B. AND KOTHARI, U. (2001) *Participation: The New Tyranny*. London: Zed Book.

COPPOCK, J. T. (1977) 'Tourism as a Tool for Regional Development', in DUFFIELD, B. S. (ed.) *Tourism: a tool for regional development*. Edinburgh: Tourism and Recreation Research Unit, University of Edinburgh for the Leisure Studies Association.

CORIA, J. AND CALFUCURA, E. (2012) 'Ecotourism and the development of indigenous communities: The good, the bad, and the ugly', *Ecological Economics*, 73, pp. 47-55. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2011.10.024>.

CORNEBISE, M. W. (2003) *The Social Construction of Tourism in Cuba: A Geographic Analysis of the Representations of Gender and Race during the Special Period 1995-1997*. PhD, University of Tennessee.

CORNWALL, A. (2004) 'Spaces for transformation? Reflections on issues of power and difference in participation in development', in HICKEY, S. AND MOHAN, G. (eds.) *Participation: from tyranny to transformation?*. London: Zed Books.

COURRAU, J. (1995) 'Conservation issues in Central America', in HAYSMITH, L. AND HARVEY, J. (eds.) *Nature Conservation and Ecotourism in Central America*. Florida: Wildlife Conservation Society.

CRONIN, L. (1990) 'A Strategy for Tourism and Sustainable Developments', *World Leisure & Recreation*, 32(3), pp. 12-18. doi: 10.1080/10261133.1990.10559117.

CRYSTAL, D. (1991) *The Cambridge encyclopaedia of language*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

CVITANOVIC, C., HOBDAV, A. J., VAN KERKHOFF, L., WILSON, S. K., DOBBS, K. AND MARSHALL, N. A. (2015) 'Improving knowledge exchange among scientists and decision-makers to facilitate the adaptive governance of marine resources: A review of knowledge and research needs', *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 112, pp. 25-35. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2015.05.002>.

DALY, H. E. (1990) 'Towards some operational principle of sustainable development', *Ecological Economics*, 2(1), pp. 1-6.

DARLINGTON, S. M. (1998) 'The Ordination of a Tree: The Buddhist Ecology Movement in Thailand', *Ethnology*, 37(1), pp. 1-15. doi: 10.2307/3773845.

DAS, D. AND HUSSAIN, I. (2016) 'Does ecotourism affect economic welfare? Evidence from Kaziranga National Park, India', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 15(3), pp. 241-260. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2016.1192180.

DAS, K. C. (2017) 'The Making of One Belt, One Road and Dilemmas in South Asia' *China Report*, 53(2), pp. 125-142. doi: 10.1177/0009445517696624.

DAS, M. AND CHATTERJEE, B. (2015) 'Ecotourism and Empowerment: A Case Analysis of Bhitarkanika Wildlife Sanctuary, Odisha, India', *IIM Kozhikode Society & Management Review*, 4(2), pp. 136-145. doi: 10.1177/2277975215613175.

DAVIS, J. (2015) *Ecotourism Could Be Changing Animals' Behavior For The Worse*.

Available at: <https://www.iflscience.com/plants-and-animals/ecotourism-could-be-changing-animals-behavior-worse/> (Accessed: 9 February 2022).

DE HAAS, H. C. (2002) 'Sustainability of Small-Scale Ecotourism: The Case of Niue, South Pacific', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 5(3-4), pp. 319-337. doi: 10.1080/13683500208667927.

DEARDEN, P. (1991) 'Tourism and Sustainable Development in Northern Thailand', *Geographical Review*, 81, pp. 400-413. doi: 10.2307/215607.

DELEUZE, G. AND GUATTARI, F. (1988) *A Thousand Plateaus: Capitalism and Schizophrenia*. London: Athlone Press.

DEMERRITT, D. (2002) 'What is the 'social construction of nature'? A typology and sympathetic critique', *Progress in Human Geography*, 26(6), pp. 767-790. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1191/0309132502ph402oa>.

DENG, J. (2004) *Attitudes toward national park, environment, and leisure: a comparison between Chinese in Canada and Anglo-Canadians (Unpublished doctoral dissertation)*. Edmonton, Canada: University of Alberta.

DESFORGES, L. (2001) 'Tourism Consumption and the Imagination of Money' *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 26(3), pp. 353-364.

DIAMANTIS, D. (1999) 'The Concept of Ecotourism: Evolution and Trends' *Current Issues in Tourism*, 2, pp. 93-122. doi: 10.1080/13683509908667847.

DIAMANTIS, D. (2018) 'Stakeholder ecotourism management: exchanges, coordination's and adaptations', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 17(3), pp. 203-205. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2018.1502122.

DIPEN, B. D. (2020) *Environmental Warriors: Buddhist Eco-monks and Tree Ordination*. Available at: <https://www.buddhistdoor.net/features/environmental-warriors-buddhist-eco-monks-and-tree-ordination/> (Accessed: 10 December 2021).

DNP (2021) *DNP*. Available at: <https://portal.dnp.go.th/> (Accessed: 16 September 2021).

DONOHUE, H. M. AND NEEDHAM, R. D. (2006) 'Ecotourism: The Evolving Contemporary Definition', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 5(3), pp. 192-210. doi: <https://doi.org/10.2167/joe152.0>.

DONOVAN, F. (2009) *Our Uncertain Future: Can Good Planning Create Sustainable Communities*. Ph.D., University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

DORJSUREN, A. AND PALMER, N. (2018) 'Equity in tourism development: procedural (in)justice and distributive justice in Mongolia, East Asia', *Asian Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(1), pp. 58-87. doi: <https://doi.org/10.12982/AJTR.2018.0003>.

DORNYEI, Z. (2007) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

DOUGLAS, N., DOUGLAS, N. AND DERRETT, R. (2001) *Special interest tourism: context and cases*. Australia: John Wiley and Sons.

DOWDING, K. (1996) *Power*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

DOWLING, R. (1996) 'Ecotourism in Thailand', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23, pp. 488-490.

DOXEY, G. V. A. (1975) *Causation Theory of Visitor-resident Irritants: methodology and research inferences*. Sixth Annual Travel Research Conference, September 8-11, 1975 San Diego, CA.

DREDGE, D. AND JENKINS, J. (2007) 'Historical Development', in DREDGE, D. AND JENKINS, J. (eds.) *Tourism Planning and Policy*. Milton, Australia: Wiley, pp. 69-111.

DUFFY, R. (2002) *A Trip Too Far: Ecotourism Politics and Exploitations*. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

DUFFY, R. (2006) 'Global Environmental Governance and the Politics of Ecotourism in Madagascar', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 5(1-2), pp. 128-144. doi: 10.1080/14724040608668451.

DUGGAN, P. (2019) 'Rethinking Tourism', *Performance Research*, 24(5), pp. 44-56. doi: 10.1080/13528165.2019.1673558.

DUNN, K. (2003) 'Interviewing', in HAY, I. (ed.) *Qualitative Research Methods in Human Geography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 50-82.

DWYER, L. (2015) 'Globalization of tourism: Drivers and outcomes' *Tourism Recreation Research*, 40(3), pp. 326-339. doi: 10.1080/02508281.2015.1075723.

EAGLY, A. H. AND CHAIKEN, D. (1993) *The psychology of attitude*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

ECCLES, R. G. AND KLIMENKO, S. (2019) *The Investor Revolution: Shareholders are getting serious about sustainability*. *Harvard Business Review*. Available at: <https://hbr.org/2019/05/the-investor-revolution> (Accessed: 21 January 2022).

ELLIOT, J. (1987) 'Government Management of Tourism — a Thai case study', *Tourism Management*, September, pp. 223-232.

ELLIOT, J. (1997) *Tourism: politics and public sector management*. London: Routledge.

ESHUN, G. AND TICHAAWA, T. M. (2019) 'Reconsidering Participation for Local Community Well-Being in Ecotourism in Ghana', *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 27(4), pp. 1184-1200.

ESHUN, G. AND TONTO, J. (2014) 'Community-based ecotourism: Its socio-economic impacts at Boabeng-Fiema Monkey Sanctuary, Ghana', *Bulletin of Geography. Socio-economic Series*, 26, pp. 67-81. doi: 10.2478/bog-2014-0045.

FAD (2021) *The Fine Arts Department*. Available at: <https://www.finearts.go.th/main> (Accessed: 28 July 2021).

FARMAKI, A., ALTINAY, L., BOTTERILL, D. AND HILKE, S. (2015) 'Politics and sustainable tourism: The case of Cyprus', *Tourism Management*, 47, pp. 178-190. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.09.019>.

FARR, H. AND ROGERS, A. (1994) 'Tourism and the environment on the Isles of Scilly: conflict and complementarity', *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 29(1), pp. 1-17. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-2046\(94\)00160-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-2046(94)00160-X).

FARRELL, B. AND RUNYAN, D. (1991) 'Ecology and Tourism' *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18, pp. 26-40.

FARRELL, T. A. AND MARION, J. L. (2001) 'Identifying and assessing ecotourism visitor impacts at eight protected areas in Costa Rica and Belize', *Environmental Conservation*, 28, pp. 215 - 225. .

FAULKENBERRY, L., COGGESHALL, J., BACKMAN, K. AND BACKMAN, S. (2000) 'A Culture of Servitude: The Impact of Tourism and Development on South Carolina's Coast', *Human Organisation*, 59, pp. 86-95. doi: 10.17730/humo.59.1.353730461t724j02.

FELDERMANN, S. K. AND HIEBL, M. R. W. (2020) 'Using quotations from non-English interviews in accounting research', *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 17(2), pp. 229-262. doi: 10.1108/QRAM-08-2018-0059.

FENNELL, D. A. (2001) 'A Content Analysis of Ecotourism Definitions', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4(5), pp. 403-421. doi: 10.1080/13683500108667896.

FENNELL, D. A. (2014) *Ecotourism: An Introduction*. 4th edn. London: Psychology Press.

FENNELL, D. A. AND DOWLING, R. K. 2003. *Ecotourism Policy and Planning*. Oxon: CABI Publishing.

FERGUSON, J. (1990) *The Anti-Politics Machine: 'Development', depoliticization and bureaucratic power in Lesotho*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

FERRARO, P. J. AND HANAUER, M. M. (2014) 'Quantifying causal mechanisms to determine how protected areas affect poverty through changes in ecosystem services and infrastructure', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(11), pp. 4332-4337. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1307712111.

FIELDING, N. (1988) *Joining forces*. London: SAGE.

FIGGIS, P. J. (1993) 'Ecotourism: special interest or major direction?', *Habitat Australia*, February, pp. 8-11.

FIGGIS, P. J. (1999) *Australia's National Parks and Protected Areas (ACIUCN Occasional Paper No. 8)*. Australia: Australian Committee for IUCN.

FITZGERALD, L. AND STRONZA, A. (2016) 'In Defence of the Ecotourism Shield: A Response to Geffroy *et al.*', *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 31(2), pp. 94-95. doi: 10.1016/j.tree.2015.11.002.

FLATHER, C. H. AND CORDELL, H. K. (1995) *Outdoor Recreation: historical and anticipated trends*. Washington, DC: Island Press.

FLETCHER, R. (2009) 'Ecotourism discourse: challenging the stakeholders theory', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 8(3), pp. 269-285. doi: 10.1080/14724040902767245.

FLETCHER, R. (2019) 'Ecotourism after nature: Anthropocene tourism as a new capitalist "fix"', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(4), pp. 522-535. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2018.1471084.

FONTANA, A. AND FREY, J. H. (2000) 'The interview: From structured questions to negotiated text', in DENZIN, N. K. AND LINCOLN, Y. S. (eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research*. 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE., pp. 645-672.

FORD, A. E. S. AND ACOTT, T. (2015) *Responsible Tourism: a guide for tourism and sustainability in small-scale fisheries and agri-food, Executive Summary. Tour Fish cluster of the INTERREG IV A 2 Seas Programme*. London: University of Greenwich.

FORJE, G. W., TCHAMBA, M. N. AND ENO-NKU, M. (2021) 'Determinants of ecotourism development in and around protected areas: The case of Campo Ma'an National Park in Cameroon', *Scientific African*, 11, pp. 1-13. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sciaf.2020.e00663>.

FOUCAULT, M. (1978) 'Governmentality', in BURCHELL, G. (ed.) *The Foucault Effect: Studies in Governmentality*. Wheatsheaf: Harvester.

FOUCAULT, M. (1980) 'Truth and Power', in GORDON, C. (ed.) *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and Other Writings*. New York: Random House, pp. 109–133.

FOUCAULT, M. (1982) 'The Subject and Power' *Critical Inquiry*, 8(4), pp. 777-795.

FOUCAULT, M. (1987) 'The Ethic of Care for the Self as a Practice of Freedom – an Interview with Michel Foucault', *Philosophy and Social Criticism*, 12(2/3), pp. 112–31.

FOUCAULT, M. (1991) *Discipline and punish: the birth of the prison*. Penguin: Harmondsworth.

FOUCAULT, M. (2001) *Madness and Civilization: A History of Insanity in the Age of Reason*. Psychology Press.

FREEMAN, R. E. (1984) *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman.

FRITSCH, A. AND JOHANNSEN, K. (2004) *Ecotourism in Appalachia: Marketing the Mountains*. Kentucky: University Press of Kentucky.

FUREDI, F. (2005) *Beyond left and right: The politics of Fear*. London: Continuum.

FURZE, A. (2019) *Why Does Anyone – Much Less Quite a Few – Buy Flat Earth Nonsense?*. Available at: <https://brewminate.com/why-does-anyone-much-less-quite-a-few-buy-flat-earth-nonsense/> (Accessed: 19 October 2021).

GALAWAY, B. AND HUDSON, J. (1996) *Restorative Justice: International Perspectives*. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

GALLAGHER, A. J. AND HAMMERSCHLAG, N. (2011) 'Global shark currency: the distribution, frequency, and economic value of shark ecotourism', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(8), pp. 797-812. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2011.585227.

GALLARDO, J. H. AND STEIN, T. V. (2007) 'Participation, Power and Racial Representation: Negotiating Nature-Based and Heritage Tourism Development in the Rural South', *Society & Natural Resources*, 20(7), pp. 597-611. doi: 10.1080/08941920701216545.

GAO, J. AND WU, B. H. (2017) 'Revitalizing Traditional Villages through Rural Tourism: A Case Study of Yuanjia Village, Shaanxi Province, China', *Tourism Management*, 63, pp. 223-233. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.04.003>.

GAUTAM, D., KHANAL, L., DHRUBA, G. C. AND JANDUG, C. M. (2020) 'Assessing the Opportunities of Promoting Ecotourism in Gabhar Valley: A case study from Buffer Zone of Banke National Park, Nepal', *Asian Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Studies*, pp. 57-66.

GERSTL-PEPIN, C. AND PATRIZIO, K. (2009) 'Learning from Dumbledore's Pensieve: metaphor as an aid in teaching reflexivity in qualitative research', *Qualitative Research*, 9, pp. 299-308.

GIBBS, G. (2007) *Analyzing Qualitative Data: Qualitative research kit*. London, England: SAGE Publications, Ltd.

GIDDENS, A. (1968) 'Power in the recent writings of Talcott Parsons', *Sociology*, 2(3), pp. 257-271.

GIDDENS, A. (1998) *The Third Way: the removal of social democracy*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

GILL, T. AND SATYANARAYAN, S. (1995) 'Critics see downside to Thai-style ecotourism', *The Nation*, February 12.

GLASBERGEN, P. AND BLOWERS, A. (1995) 'Perspectives on environmental problems', in BLOWERS, A. AND GLASBERGEN, P. (eds.) *Environmental Policy in an International Context*. London: Arnold.

GOELDNER, C. R. AND RITCHIE, J. R. B. (2005) *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies*. 9th edn. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

GODOVYKH, M. AND RIDDERSTAAT, J. (2020) 'Health outcomes of tourism development: A longitudinal study of the impact of tourism arrivals on residents' health', *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 17, pp. 1-7. doi: 10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100462.

GOODMAN, R. (2006) *Tourism Development on the Island of Koh Chang Thailand: The application and the limitations of a social network theory perspective*. Exeter: University of Exeter.

GOODWIN, H. (1996) 'In pursuit of ecotourism', *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 5(3), pp. 277-291.

GORDON, C. (1991) 'Government rationality: an introduction', in BURCHELL, G., GORDON, C. AND MILLER, P. (eds.) *The Foucault Effect: Studies in Governmentality*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

GOULD, E. A. (2016) *Ecotourism: Conserving Diversity and Contributing to Sustainable Development*. Masters, University of the Pacific.

GOULET, D. (1989) 'Participation in development: New avenues', *World Development*, 17(2), pp. 165-178. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0305-750X\(89\)90242-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0305-750X(89)90242-8).

GREEN, A. E. (2005) 'Managing human resources in a decentralized context', in BANK, T. W. (ed.) *East Asia decentralizes: Making local government work*. Washington, DC: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development World Bank, pp. 129-153.

GREEN, R. (2000) 'Notions of Town Character: A coastal community responds to change', *Australian Planner*, 37(2), pp. 76-86. doi: 10.1080/07293682.2000.9657881.

GRENIER, D., KAAE, B. C., MILLER, M. L. AND MOBLEY, R. W. (1993) 'Ecotourism, landscape architecture and urban planning', *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 25(1), pp. 1-16. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-2046\(93\)90119-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0169-2046(93)90119-X).

GUNASEKARAN, M., MOHAMED ISMAIL, H., CHOKKALINGAM, B., MIHET-POPA, L. AND PADMANABAN, S. (2018) 'Energy Management Strategy for Rural Communities' DC Micro Grid Power System Structure with Maximum Penetration of Renewable Energy Sources', *Applied Sciences*, 8(4), pp. 585-607. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3390/app8040585>.

GUNN, C. A. AND VAR, T. (2002) *Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases*. New York: Routledge.

GURSOY, D. AND RUTHERFORD, D. G. (2004) 'Host attitudes toward tourism: An Improved Structural Model', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), pp. 495-516. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2003.08.008>.

HALL, C. M. (1991) *Introduction to tourism in Australia: impacts, planning and development*. South Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.

HALL, C. M. (1994) *Tourism and Politics: policy, power and place*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.

HALL, C. M. AND JENKINS, J. (1995) *Tourism and Public Policy*. London: Routledge.

HALL, C. M. AND MCARTHUR, S. (1993) 'Ecotourism in Antarctica and Adjacent Sub-Antarctic Islands: development, impacts, management and prospect for the future', *Tourism Management*, April, pp. 117-122.

HALL, C. M., TIMOTHY, D. J. AND DUVAL, D. T. (2004) 'Security and tourism: Towards a new understanding?', *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 15(2-3), pp. 1-18.

HALL, M. (2008) *Tourism Planning: policies, processes and relationships*. Harlow: Pearson Prentice Hall.

HAM, S. (2011) 'The ask—Or is it the offer?', in HONEY, M. (ed.) *Travellers' philanthropy handbook*. Washington, DC: Centre for Responsible Travel (CREST), pp. 141 -149.

HAMPTON, M. P. (1998) 'Backpacker tourism and economic development', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(3), pp. 639-660. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(98\)00021-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(98)00021-8).

HAWE, P., DEGELING, P. AND HALL, J. (1990) *Evaluating Health Promotion*. Sydney: MacLennan & Petty.

HAWKINS, D. E. AND LAMOUREUX, K. (2001) 'Global growth and magnitude of ecotourism', in WEAVER, D. B. (ed.) *The Encyclopaedia of Ecotourism*. Wallingford: CAB International.

HAYSMITH, L. (1995) 'Potential negative impacts from ecotourism on the environment', in HAYSMITH, L. AND HARVEY, J. (eds.) *Nature Conservation and Ecotourism in Central America*. Florida: Wildlife Conservation Society.

HERREMANS, I. M. AND WELSH, C. (2001) 'Developing and Implementing a Company's Eco-tourism Mission Statement: Treadsoftly Revisited', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(1), pp. 76-84. doi: 10.1080/09669580108667390.

HIGGINS-DESBIOLLES, F. (2009) 'Indigenous ecotourism's role in transforming ecological consciousness', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 8(2), pp. 144-160. doi: 10.1080/14724040802696031.

HIGHAM, J. E. S. (2007) *Critical Issues in Ecotourism: understanding a complex tourism phenomenon*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth Heinemann.

HIGHAM, J. AND CARR, A. (2003) 'Defining Ecotourism in New Zealand: differentiating between the defining parameters within a national/regional context', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 2(1), pp. 17-32.

HILL, C. V. (2016) 'Killing a Culture: The Intentional Destruction of Cultural Heritage in Iraq and Syria under International Law', *Georgia Journal of International and Comparative Law*, 45(1), pp. 191-220.

HILLARY, R. (2000) *Small and Medium Sized Enterprises and the Environment*. Sheffield: Greenleaf.

HITCHNER, S. L., APU, F. L., TARAWE, L., GALIH SINAH NABUN ARAN, S. AND YESAYA, E. (2009) 'Community-based transboundary ecotourism in the Heart of Borneo: a case study of the Kelabit Highlands of Malaysia and the Kerayan Highlands of Indonesia', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 8(2), pp. 193-213. doi: 10.1080/14724040802696064.

HOLDEN, A. (2009) 'The Environment-Tourism Nexus: Influence of Market Ethics', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(3), pp. 373-389. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.10.009>.

HOLLINSHEAD, K. (1999) 'Surveillance of the worlds of tourism: Foucault and the eye-of-power', *Tourism Management*, 20(1), pp. 7-23. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(98\)00090-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(98)00090-9).

HOMKLIN, J. (2020) *Tourism Authority of Thailand launches ecotourism campaign on social media*. Available at: <https://www.pattayamail.com/latestnews/news/tourism-authority-of-thailand-launches-ecotourism-campaign-on-social-media-311100> (Accessed: 2 September 2020).

HONEY, M. (2008) *Ecotourism and Sustainable Development: Who Owns Paradise?*. 2nd edn. Washington DC: Island Press.

HONEY, M. (2009) 'Community Conservation and Early Ecotourism: Experiments in Kenya', *Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development*, 51(1), pp. 46-57. doi: 10.3200/ENVT.51.1.46-57.

HONGJAMRASSILP, W., TRAIYASUT, P. AND BLUMSTEIN, D. T. 2021. "Shrimp Watching" Ecotourism in Thailand: Toward Sustainable Management Policy', *Front. Conserv. Sci.*, 1, pp. 1-13. doi: 10.3389/fcosc.2020.624239.

HORTON, L. R. (2009) 'Buying Up Nature: Economic and Social Impacts of Costa Rica's Ecotourism Boom', *Latin American Perspectives*, 36(3), pp. 93-107. doi: 10.1177/0094582x09334299.

HOWARD, R. W. (2009) 'Risky business? Asking tourists what hazards they actually encountered in Thailand', *Tourism Management*, 30(3), pp. 359-365. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.08.007>.

HUANG, Y., DENG, J., LI, J. AND ZHONG, Y. (2008) 'Visitors' Attitudes Towards China's National Forest Park Policy, Roles and Functions, and Appropriate Use', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(1), pp. 63-84. doi: <https://doi.org/10.2167/jost720.0>.

HUNT, C., DURHAM, W., DRISCOLL, L. AND HONEY, M. (2015) 'Can ecotourism deliver real economic, social, and environmental benefits? A study of the Osa Peninsula, Costa Rica', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23, pp.1-19. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2014.965176.

HUNT, C. A. (2022) 'Why Latin America Has Embraced Ecotourism', *Current History*, 121(832), pp. 69–74. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1525/curh.2022.121.832.69>.

HUNT, C. A. AND STRONZA, A. L. (2011) 'Missing the Forest for the Trees?: Incongruous Local Perspectives on Ecotourism in Nicaragua Converge on Ethical Issues', *Human Organisation*, 70(4), pp. 376-386. doi: 10.17730/humo.70.4.xj187458416w1gr8.

HUNT, J. AND KASYNATHAN, N. (2001) 'Pathways to empowerment? Reflections on microfinance and transformation in gender relations in South Asia', *Gender & Development*, 9(1), pp. 42-52. doi: 10.1080/13552070127738.

HVENEGAARD, G. T. (1994) 'Ecotourism: A status report and conceptual framework' *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 5(2), pp. 24-35.

HVENEGAARD, G. T. AND DEARDEN, P. (1998a) 'Ecotourism versus tourism in a Thai national park', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(3), pp. 700-720. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(98\)00020-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(98)00020-6).

HVENEGAARD, G. T. AND DEARDEN, P. (1998b) 'Linking Ecotourism and Biodiversity Conservation: A Case Study of Doi Inthanon National Park, Thailand', *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, 19(2), pp. 193-211. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9493.1998.tb00259.x>.

INGLIS, D. AND PASCUAL, U. (2021) 'On the links between nature's values and language', *People and Nature*, pp. 1-17. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/pan3.10205>.

INGRAM, H., TABARI, S. AND WATTHANAKHOMPRATHIP, W. (2013) 'The impact of political instability on tourism: case of Thailand', *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 5, pp. 92-103.

INSKEEP, E. (1991) *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

IONEL, M. (2019) 'Ecotourism and Its Importance on the Tourism Market', *Ovidius University Annals, Economic Sciences Series*, XIX(2), pp. 300-305.

IUCN (1980) *World Conservation Strategy, International Union for the Conservation of Nature*. Geneva: UNEP.

IUCN (1996) *Tourism, Ecotourism and Protected Areas*. Gland, Switzerland: The World Conservation Union.

JAAFAR, M., RASOOLIMANESH, S. M. AND ISMAIL, S. (2017) 'Perceived sociocultural impacts of tourism and community participation: A case study of Langkawi Island', *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 17(2), pp. 123-134. doi: 10.1177/1467358415610373.

JACOBSON, S. AND ROBLES, R. (1992) 'Ecotourism, sustainable development, and conservation education: Development of a tour guide training program in Tortuguero, Costa Rica', *Environmental Management*, 16, pp. 701-713. doi: 10.1007/BF02645660.

JACOBSON, S. K. AND LOPEZ, A. F. (1994) 'Biological Impacts of Ecotourism: Tourists and Nesting Turtles in Tortuguero National Park, Costa Rica', *Wildlife Society Bulletin (1973-2006)*, 22, pp. 414-419.

JAMAL, T. B. AND GETZ, D. (1995) Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), pp. 186-204. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(94\)00067-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(94)00067-3).

JAMAL, T. B. AND STRONZA, A. (2009) 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(2), pp. 169-189. doi: 10.1080/09669580802495741.

JAMALIAH, M. M. AND POWELL, R. B. (2018) 'Ecotourism resilience to climate change in Dana Biosphere Reserve, Jordan', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(4), pp. 519-536. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2017.1360893.

JANSSEN, S. (2015) *The World Almanac and Book of Facts 2016*. World Almanac.

JENKINS, J., HALL, C. M. AND TROUGHTON, M. (1998) 'The Restructuring of Rural Economies: rural tourism and recreation as a Government response', in BUTLER, R., HALL, C. M. AND JENKINS, J. (eds.) *Tourism and Recreation in Rural Areas*. Chichester: John Wiley.

JICA (2010) *The Study on the National Strategic Plan for Ecotourism Development in the Dominican Republic*. Japan International Cooperation Agency Padeco Co., Ltd. in association with PACET Corp: Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources, The Dominican Republic.

JOHNSON, H. AND WILSON, G. (2000) 'Biting the Bullet: Civil Society, Social Learning and the Transformation of Local Governance', *World Development*, 28(11), pp. 1891-1906. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X\(00\)00069-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0305-750X(00)00069-3).

JONES, S. (2005) 'Community-based ecotourism: The significance of social capital', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(2), pp. 303-324. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2004.06.007.

JONGUDOMKARN, D. AND CAMFIELD, L. (2006) 'Exploring the Quality of Life of People in North Eastern and Southern Thailand', *Social Indicators Research*, 78, pp. 489-529. doi: 10.1007/s11205-005-1947-2.

JOPPE, M. (1996) 'Sustainable community tourism development revisited', *Tourism Management*, 17, pp. 475-479.

JOSEPH, C. A. AND KAVOORI, A. P. (2001) 'Mediated resistance: Tourism and the Host Community', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), pp. 998-1009. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(01\)00005-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00005-6).

JOUANJEAN, M. A., TUCKER, J. AND TE VELDE, D. W. (2014) *Understanding the effects of resource degradation on socio-economic outcomes in developing countries*. ODI.

KAMOLPATTANA, S., CHEN, G., SONCHAENG, P., WILKINSON, C., WILLEY, N. AND BULTITUDE, K. (2014) 'Thai visitors' expectations and experiences of explainer interaction within a science museum context', *Public understanding of science (Bristol, England)*, 24(1) pp. 69–85. doi: 10.1177/0963662514525560.

KANG, W. (2022) 'The Development of the Political Status of the Peasant Class in Thailand: A Case Study of the Economic Changes of the Peasant Class', *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 638, pp. 397-402.

KAREN, P. P. AND MATHER, C. (1985) 'Tourism and Environment in the Mount Everest Region', *Geographical Review*, 75(1), pp. 93-95. doi: <https://doi.org/10.2307/214580>.

KARKI, S., BARAL, K., GAUTAM, D., JANDUG, C. M. B., KHANAL, L. AND DHRUBA, B. G. C. (2020) 'Assessing the Opportunities of Promoting Ecotourism in Gabhar Valley: A case study from Buffer Zone of Banke National Park', *Asian Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Studies*, pp. 57-66.

KARMINI, N. W. (2020) *Ecotourism Management Based on Local Wisdom in Tenganan Village, Karangasem Bali*. International Research Association for Talent Development and Excellence, 12(1s), pp. 295-310.

KARWACKI, J. AND BOYD, C. (1994) 'Ethics and Ecotourism. Business Ethics', *Environment and Responsibility*, 4(4), pp. 225-232. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8608.1995.tb00120.x>.

KAUR, C. R. (2006) *National ecotourism plan: Assessing implementation of the guide-lines for marine parks*. Maritime Institute of Malaysia: Research Centre for Coastal and Marine Environment.

KHANAL, B. (2019-20) 'Inventory of Butterflies and Its Role to Promote Ecotourism in Northern Sindhupalchok District of Central Nepal', *Journal of Natural History Museum*, 31, pp. 43-56.

KHANAL, L. (2019) 'Contribution of Ecotourism on household income: A study from Buffer zone of Shivapuri Nagarjun National Park, Nepal', *North American Academic Research*, 2(12), pp. 220-231. doi: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3593556>

KHEMTHONG, S. (2012) *Modules 5: Business management of souvenirs. Teaching Materials in business management in Nonhaburi tourist attraction*. Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University.

KILBY, P. (2002) *Social capital and civil society*. Canberra: National Centre for Development Studies at ANU.

KING, B. (2010) 'Conservation Geographies in Sub-Saharan Africa: The Politics of National Parks, Community Conservation and Peace Parks', *Geography Compass*, 4(1), pp. 14-27. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-8198.2009.00288.x>.

KING, B., PIZAM, A. AND MILMAN, A. (1993) 'Social impacts of tourism: Host perceptions', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(4), pp. 650-665. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(93\)90089-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(93)90089-L).

KINNAIRD, M. F. AND O'BRIEN, T. G. (1996) 'Ecotourism in Tangkoko Duasudara Nature Reserve: Opening pandora's box', *Oryx*, 30(1), pp. 65-73.

KISHNANI, N. (2019) 'Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Madhya Pradesh: Prospects and Problems', *Journal of Tourism: An International Research Journal on Travel and Tourism*, xx(1), pp. 55-70.

KISS, A. (2004) 'Is Community-Based Ecotourism a Good Use of Biodiversity Conservation Funds?', *Trends in ecology & evolution*, 19(5), pp. 232-237. doi: 10.1016/j.tree.2004.03.010.

KLAK, T. (2007) 'Sustainable Ecotourism Development in Central America and the Caribbean: Review of Debates and Conceptual Reformulation', *Geography Compass*, 1(5), pp. 1037-1057. doi: 10.1111/j.1749-8198.2007.00055.x.

KNOBLAUCH, H. AND WILKE, R. (2016) 'The Common Denominator: The Reception and Impact of Berger and Luckmann's The Social Construction of Reality', *Human Studies*, 39(1), pp. 51-69. doi: 10.1007/s10746-016-9387-3.

KOENS, J. F., DIEPERINK, C. AND MIRANDA, M. (2009) 'Ecotourism as a development strategy: experiences from Costa Rica', *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 11(6), pp. 1225-1237. doi: 10.1007/s10668-009-9214-3.

KOMORI, N. (2015) 'Beneath the globalization paradox: Towards the sustainability of cultural diversity in accounting research', *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 26, pp. 141-156. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2014.09.005>.

KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N. (2004a) 'Conventional Tourism and Ecotourism in Phuket, Thailand: Conflicting Paradigms or Symbiotic Partners?', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 3(2), pp. 87-108. doi: 10.1080/14724040408668152.

KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N. (2004b) 'Ecotourism and mass tourism in Southern Thailand: Spatial interdependence, structural connections, and staged authenticity', *GeoJournal*, 61(1), pp. 1-11. doi: 10.1007/s10708-005-8631-6.

KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N. (2005) 'Community-Based Ecotourism in Phuket and Ao Phangnga, Thailand: Partial Victories and Bittersweet Remedies', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(1), pp. 4-23. doi: 10.1080/17501220508668470.

KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N., CHURYEN, A. AND DUANGSAENG, V. (2014) 'Success Factors in Community-Based Tourism in Thailand: The Role of Luck, External Support, and Local Leadership', *Tourism Planning & Development*, 11(1), pp. 106-124. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2013.852991>.

KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N., CHURYEN, A. AND DUANGSAENG, V. (2015) 'Homestay Tourism and the Commercialization of the Rural Home in Thailand', *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(1), pp. 29-50. doi: 10.1080/10941665.2013.852119.

KONYN, C. (2021) *How Costa Rica Reversed Deforestation and Became an Environmental Model*. Available at: <https://earth.org/how-costa-rica-reversed-deforestation/> (Accessed: 12 December 2021).

KOROSI, D. H. V. (2013) *Environmental and Social Impacts of Ecotourism: A comparative analysis of assessment procedures between Australia and Mexico*. PhD, University of Wollongong.

KRUEATHEP, W., RICCUCCI, N. M. AND SUWANMALA, C. (2008) 'Why Do Agencies Work Together? The Determinants of Network Formation at the Subnational Level of Government in Thailand', *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 20, pp. 157-185. doi: 10.1093/jopart/mun013.

KRUEGER, R. A. (1994) *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*. London: SAGE.

KRÜGER, O. (2005) 'The role of ecotourism in conservation: panacea or Pandora's box?', *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 14(3), pp. 579-600. doi: 10.1007/s10531-004-3917-4.

KRY, S., SASAKI, N., DATTA, A., ABE, I., KEN, S. AND TSUSAKA, T. W. (2020) 'Assessment of the changing levels of livelihood assets in the Kampong Phluk community with implications for community-based ecotourism', *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, p.100664. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100664>.

KUSLER, J. A. (1991a) 'Ecotourism and resource conservation: Introduction to issues', in KUSLER, J. A. (ed.) *Ecotourism and resource conservation: A collection of papers. 1.* Madison: Omnipress, pp. 2-8.

KUSLER, J. A. (1991b) 'Ecotourism and resource conservation: Key Actors', in KUSLER, J. A. (ed.) *Ecotourism and resource conservation: A collection of papers. 1.* Madison: Omnipress, pp. 9-13.

KUTAY, K. (1989) 'The new ethic in an adventure travel', *Buzzworm: The Environmental Journal*, 1(4), pp. 31-36.

KUTAY, K. (1992) *Ecotourism Marketing: Capturing the Demand for Special Interest Nature and Culture Tourism to Support Conservation and Sustainable Development.* Paper Presented to the Third Inter-American Congress on Tourism. Cancun, Mexico.

KUZEL, A. J. (1992) 'Sampling in qualitative inquiry', in CRABTREE, B. F. AND MILLER, W. L. (eds.) *Doing qualitative research. Research Methods for Primary Care - Vol. 3.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage, pp. 31-44.

LAARMAN, J. G. AND DURST, P. B. (1987) 'Nature travel in the tropics', *Journal of Forestry*, 85(5), pp. 43-46.

LACEY, G., PEEL, V. AND WEILER, B. (2012) 'Disseminating the voice of the Other: A Case Study of Philanthropic Tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(2), pp. 1199-1220. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2012.01.004>.

LACKEY, N. Q. AND PENNISI, L. (2020) 'Ecotour guide training program methods and characteristics: a case study from the African bush', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 19(3), pp. 217-232. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2019.1686005.

LAI, P. H. AND NEPAL, S. K. (2006) 'Local perspectives of ecotourism development in Tawushan Nature Reserve, Taiwan', *Tourism Management*, 27(6), pp. 1117-1129. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.11.010>.

LANDORF, C. (2009) 'Managing for sustainable tourism: a review of six cultural World Heritage Sites', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(1), pp. 53-70. doi: 10.1080/09669580802159719.

LASSWELL, H. D. (1936) *Politics: who get what, when, how?*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

LAVERACK, G. AND THANGPHET, S. (2009) 'Building Community Capacity for Locally Managed Ecotourism in Northern Thailand', *Community Development Journal*, 44, pp. 1-14. doi: 10.1093/cdj/bsm058.

LAWRENCE, T. B., WICKINS, D. AND PHILLIPS, N. (1997) 'Managing legitimacy in ecotourism', *Tourism Management*, 18(5), pp. 307-316. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(97\)00020-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(97)00020-4).

LEAVY, J. AND HOSSAIN, N. (2014) 'Who Wants to Farm? Youth Aspirations, Opportunities and Rising Food Prices', *IDS Working Paper*, 2014(439), pp. 1-44. doi: 10.1111/j.2040-0209.2014.00439.x.

LEE, K., QU, D. AND MAO, Z. (2021) 'Global Value Chains, Industrial Policy, and Industrial Upgrading: Automotive Sectors in Malaysia, Thailand, and China in Comparison with Korea', *The European Journal of Development Research*, 33(2), pp. 275-303. doi: 10.1057/s41287-020-00354-0.

LEE, Y. S., LAWTON, L. J. AND WEAVER, D. B. (2013) 'Evidence for a South Korean Model of Ecotourism', *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(4), pp. 520-533. doi: 10.1177/0047287512467703.

LEKSAKUNDILOK, A. (2004) *Community Participation in Ecotourism Development in Thailand*. Doctor of Philosophy, The University of Sydney.

LI, W. (2004) 'Environmental management indicators for ecotourism in China's nature reserves: A case study in Tianmushan Nature Reserve', *Tourism Management*, 25(5), pp. 559-564. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.06.001>.

LI, Y. Z. (2006) 'Tibetan poverty alleviation continues to face arduous tasks: findings based on the investigation of poverty in Litang County of Sichuan Province, China', *Chinese Journal of Reform of Economic System*, 1, pp. 147-150.

LINDBERG, K. AND JOHNSON, R. L. (1994) 'Estimating Demand for Ecotourism Sites in Developing Nations', *Trends*, 31(2), pp. 10-15.

LINDBERG, K., MCCOOL, S. AND STANKEY, G. (1997) 'Rethinking carrying capacity', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(2), pp. 461-465. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(97\)80018-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(97)80018-7).

LITTLEJOHN, M. (2000) 'Visitor Opinions and Park Resources', *Park Science*, 20(1), pp. 1-4.

LIU, J., QU, H., HUANG, D., CHEN, G., YUE, X., ZHAO, X. AND LIANG, Z. (2014) 'The role of social capital in encouraging residents' pro-environmental behaviors in community-based ecotourism', *Tourism Management*, 41, pp. 190-201. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.08.016>.

LIU, S. AND LI, W. Y. (2020) 'Ecotourism Research Progress: A Bibliometric Analysis During 1990–2016', *SAGE Open*, 10(2), pp. 1-12. doi: 10.1177/2158244020924052.

LOBEL, O. 2004. *The Renew Deal: The Fall of Regulation and the Rise of Governance in Contemporary Legal Thought*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota Law School.

LONG, V. H. (1991) 'Nature Tourism: environmental stress on environmental salvation?', in VEAL, A. J., JONSON, P. AND CUSHMAN, G. (eds.) *Paper presented at the World Leisure and Recreation Association Congress. Sydney, Australia: Leisure and Tourism: Social and Environmental Change*, pp. 615-623.

LONN, P., MIZOUE, N., OTA, T., KAJISA, T. AND YOSHIDA, S. (2018) 'Evaluating the Contribution of Community-based Ecotourism (CBET) to Household Income and Livelihood Changes: A Case Study of the Chambok CBET Program in Cambodia', *Ecological Economics*, 151, pp. 62-69. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2018.04.036>.

LOPERENA, C. A. (2016) 'Conservation by racialized dispossession: The making of an eco-destination on Honduras's North Coast', *Geoforum*, 69, pp. 184-193. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2015.07.004>

LOVELL, J. AND STUART-HOYLE, M. (2006) 'Liberating the heritage city: towards cultural engagement', in Smith, M. and Robinson (ed.) *Cultural Tourism in a Changing World: Politics, Participation and (Re)presentation*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

LUCAS, R. C. (1990) 'Wilderness Use and Users: trends and projection as in wilderness recreation management: an overview', in HENDEE, J. C., STANKEY, G. H. AND LUCAS, R. C. (eds.) *Wilderness Management*. Golden, Colorado: North American Press (Fulcrum Publishing).

LÜHISTE, K. (2006) 'Explaining trust in political institutions: Some illustrations from the Baltic states', *Communist and Post-Communist Studies*, 39(4), pp. 475-496. doi: [10.1016/j.postcomstud.2006.09.001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postcomstud.2006.09.001).

LUKES, S. (2005) *Power: A radical view*. 2nd edn. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

LYON, S. AND WELLS, C. E. (2012) *Global Tourism: Cultural Heritage and Economic Encounters*, Walnut Creek: CA, Alta Mira Press.

LYNCH, K. AND O'RIORDAN, C. (1998) 'Inequality in Higher Education: a study of class barriers', *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 19(4), pp. 445-478. doi: 10.1080/0142569980190401.

LYNN, W. (1992) 'Tourism in the peoples' interest', *Community Development Journal*, 27(4), pp. 371-377. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.cdj.a038627.

MARKSANDSPENCER. 2020. *Exchange rate*. Available at: <https://bank.marksandspencer.com/travel/travel-money/buy-thai-baht/> (Accessed: 14 April 2020).

MARKSANDSPENCER. 2021. *Exchange Rate*. Available at: <https://bank.marksandspencer.com/travel/travel-money/currency-exchange-rates/> (Accessed: 17 August 2021).

MACCANNELL, D. (1976) *The tourist. A new theory of the leisure class*. New York: Schocken Books.

MACKINNON, J., MACKINNON, K. AND THORSELL, J. (1986) *Managing Protected Areas in the Tropics*. Gland: IUCN.

MACNAGHTEN, P. AND URRY, J. (1998) *Contested natures*. London: SAGE Publications.

MADAN, S. AND RAWAT, L. (2000) 'The impacts of tourism on the environment of Mussoorie, Garhwal Himalaya, India', *Environmentalist*, 20(3), pp. 249-255. doi: 10.1023/A:1006760015997.

MAEKAWA, M., LANJOUW, A., RUTAGARAMA, E. AND SHARP, D. (2015) 'Mountain gorilla ecotourism: Supporting macroeconomic growth and providing local livelihoods', in YOUNG, H. AND GOLDMAN, L. (eds.) *Livelihoods, natural resources, and post-conflict peacebuilding*. Oxon: Earthscan, pp. 167-186.

MAFFI, L. AND WOODLEY, E. (2010) *Biocultural Diversity Conservation: A Global Sourcebook*, London, Routledge.

MAHAPATRA, P. S., PANDEY, R. AND PRADHAN, S. (2012) 'River rafting in mountainous regions of Uttarakhand: Impacts, suggested mitigation measures and sustainability', *Journal of Mountain Science*, 9, pp. 297-306. doi: 10.1007/s11629-009-2319-1.

MALAM, L. (2008) 'Geographic imaginations: Exploring divergent notions of identity, power, and place meaning on Pha-ngan Island, Southern Thailand', *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, 49(3), pp. 331-343. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8373.2008.00381.x.

MANSPERGER, M. (1995) 'Tourism and Cultural Change in Small-Scale Societies', *Human Organisation*, 54(1), pp. 87-94. doi: 10.17730/humo.54.1.7267083246053882.

MAPES, K. (2009) 'Expanding ecotourism: Embedding environmental sustainability in Panama's burgeoning tourist industry', *The Harvard environmental law review: HELR*, 33, pp. 225-261.

MARCINEK, A. AND HUNT, C. (2015) 'Social capital, ecotourism, and empowerment in Shiripuno, Ecuador', *International Journal of Tourism Anthropology*, 4(4), pp. 327-342. doi: 10.1504/IJTA.2015.074005.

MARIE STUR, H. (2019) 'Blurred lines: the home front, the battlefield, and the wartime relationship between citizens and government in the Republic of Vietnam', *War & Society*, 38(1), pp. 57-79. doi: 10.1080/07292473.2019.1524345.

MARSHALL, C. AND ROSSMAN, G. (1995) *Designing Qualitative Research*. 2nd edn. Newbury Park: SAGE.

MARTHA, M. (2012) *Tourism and the Galápagos Islands: Examining the Relationship between Ecotourism and the Local Population*. Hofstra University.

MARTIN, E. AND VIGNE, L. (2012) 'Successful rhino conservation continues in West Bengal', *India. Pachyderm*, 51, pp. 27-37.

MARULO, A. M. (2012) *Turismo e o Meio Ambiente: Uma análise do Ecoturismo e a sua Contribuição Socio-Ambiental no Distrito de Matutuine: Caso de Reserva Especial de Maputo-Mozambique*. Masters, Universidade do Rio, Brazil.

MASSINGHAM, E., FULLER, R. A. AND DEAN, A. J. (2019) 'Pathways between contrasting ecotourism experiences and conservation engagement', *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 28, pp. 827-845. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-018-01694-4>.

MATHIESON, A. AND WALL, G. (1982) *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. London: Longman.

MATICHON (2020) *The Ministry of Culture - Transparency!*. Available at: https://www.matichon.co.th/publicize/news_2728084 (Accessed: 3 December 2021).

MATTHEWS, H. G. (1975) 'International Tourism and Political Science Research', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 2(4), pp. 195-203.

MAYO, M. AND CRAIG, G. (1995) 'Community Participation and Empowerment: The Human Face of Structural Adjustment or Tools for Democratic Transformation', in MAYO, M. AND CRAIG, G. (eds.) *Community empowerment: a reader in participation and development*. London: Zed Book.

MAYOUX, L. (2002) 'Microfinance and Women's Empowerment: rethinking best practices', *Development Bulletin*, 57, pp. 76-81.

MCKERCHER, B. (1998) *The Business of Natural-Based Tourism*. Melbourne: Hospitality Press.

MCKERCHER, B. (2010) 'Academia and the Evolution of Ecotourism', *Tourism Recreation Research*, 35(1), pp. 15-26. doi: 10.1080/02508281.2010.11081615.

MCKERCHER, B. AND RITCHIE, M. (1997) 'The Third Tier of Public Sector Tourism: A Profile of Local Government Tourism Officers in Australia', *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(1), pp. 66-72. doi: 10.1177/004728759703600110.

MCLAREN, D. (2003) *Rethinking Tourism and Ecotravel*. 2nd edn. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian press.

MCNAMARA, T. F. (1990) 'Item Response Theory and the validation of an ESP test for health professionals', *Language Testing*, 7(1), pp. 52-76. doi: 10.1177/026553229000700105.

MEEMANA, J. AND ZHANG, Y. (2019) 'Thailand National Park of Ecotourism Community Involvement Mechanism: A Case study on Doi Inthanon National Park', *Journal of International and Thai Tourism*, 15(1), pp. 67-83. doi: <https://so02.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/jitt/article/view/193811/141753>.

MEHTA, J. N. AND HEINEN, J. T. (2001) 'Does Community-Based Conservation Shape Favorable Attitudes Among Locals? An Empirical Study from Nepal', *Environmental Management*, 28(2), pp. 165-177. doi: 10.1007/s002670010215.

MESSNER, M., MOLL, J. AND STRÖMSTEN, T. 2(017) 'Credibility and authenticity in qualitative accounting research', in HOQUE, Z., PARKER, L. D., COVALESKI, M. A. AND HAYNES, K. (eds.) *The Routledge Companion to Qualitative Accounting Research Methods*. London: Routledge, pp. 432-443.

METH, P. (2003) 'Entries and omissions: using solicited diaries in geographical research', *Area*, 35(2), pp. 195-205. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-4762.00263>.

MIECKOWSKI, Z. (1995) *Environmental issues of tourism and recreation*. Laham: University Press of America, Inc.

MIKALSEN, K. AND JENTOFT, S. (2001) 'From user-groups to stakeholders? The public interest in fisheries management', *Marine Policy*, 25, pp. 281-292. doi: 10.1016/S0308-597X(01)00015-X.

MILLER, L. R., DICKINSON, J. E. AND PEARLMAN-HOUGHIE, D. J. (2001) 'Quiet enjoyment in the National Parks of England and Wales: public understanding of the term and its influence on attitudes towards recreational activities', *Leisure Studies*, 20(1), pp. 19-40. doi: 10.1080/02614360122839.

MILLER, M. (1993) 'The Rise of Coastal and Marine Tourism', *Coastal Management*, 20(3), pp. 181-199.

MITCHELL, R. K., AGLE, B. R. AND WOOD, D. J. (1997) 'Toward a Theory of Stakeholder Identification and Salience: Defining the Principle of Who and What Really Counts', *The Academy of Management Review*, 22(4), pp. 853-886. doi: <https://doi.org/10.2307/259247>.

MITCHELL, T. (1995) 'The object of development: America's Egypt', in CRUSH, J. (ed.) *Power of Development*. London: Routledge.

MNRE (2021) *MNRE*. Available at: <http://www.mnre.go.th/> (Accessed: 4 September 2021).

MOC (2021) *MOC*. Available at: <https://www.m-culture.go.th/en/> (Accessed: 22 September 2021).

MOHAMMED, A. M. AND SOOKRAM, S. (2015) 'The Impact of Crime on Tourist Arrivals: A Comparative Analysis of Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago', *Social and Economic Studies*, 64(2), pp. 153-176.

MOI (2008) *CEO*. Available at: http://www.moi.go.th/portal/page?_pageid=193,626326,193_626382&_dad=portal&_schema=PORTAL (Accessed: 18 August 2008).

MOI (2009) *MOI strategy plan*. Available at: <https://moi.go.th/moi/> (Accessed: 7 August 2010).

MOI (2011) *Tourism*. Available at: <http://www.moi.go.th/tourism/> (Accessed: 18 May 2012).

MOI (2021) *MOI*. Available at: <https://moi.go.th/moi/> (Accessed: 29 September 2021).

MONTES, J. AND KAFLEY, B. (2019) 'Ecotourism discourses in Bhutan: contested perceptions and values', *Tourism Geographies*, pp. 1-24. doi: 10.1080/14616688.2019.1618905.

MORENO, P. S. (2005) 'Ecotourism along the Meso-American Caribbean Reef: The Impacts of Foreign Investment', *Human Ecology*, 33(2), pp. 217-244. doi: 10.1007/s10745-005-2433-9.

MORGAN, D. L. (1993) *Successful Focus Groups Advancing the State of the Art*. London: SAGE.

MORGAN, D. L. AND KREUGER, R. A. (1993) *Successful Focus Groups*. London: SAGE.

MORGEN, D. L. (1997) *Focus Groups as Qualitative Research*. London: SAGE.

MORRISON, A. M. AND MAXIM, C. 2021. 'Globalisation and world tourism cities', in MORRISON, A. M. AND MAXIM, C. (eds.) *World tourism cities: a systematic approach to urban tourism*. London: Routledge, pp. 29-58.

MORT, F. C. (1989) 'The Politics of Consumption', in HALL, S. AND JACQUES, M. (eds.) *New Times: Changing Face of Politics in the 1990's*. Lawrence & Wishart Ltd.

MOSKWA, E. 2008. *Ecotourism as a means of encouraging ecological recovery in the flinders ranges, South Australia*. PhD, University of Adelaide.

MOTAC (2020) *National Ecotourism Plan 2016-2025*. Malaysia: Ministry of Tourism and Culture.

MOTS (2008) *Amazing Tourism*. Available at: <http://www.mots.go.th/main.php?filename=index> (Accessed: 11 October 2008).

MOTS (2012) *Tourism and its festivals in Thailand*. Available at: https://www.mots.go.th/mots_en/ (Accessed: 11 March 2012).

MOTS (2017) *The Second National Tourism Development Plan (2017 - 2021)*. Bangkok, Thailand: The Ministry of Tourism and Sports Thailand.

MOTS (2020) *Number and revenues received from international tourists*. Available at: https://www.mots.go.th/mots_en/more_news_new.php?cid=336 (Accessed: 20 January 2021).

MOTS (2021) *MOTS*. Available at: <https://www.mots.go.th/> (Accessed: 24 October 2021).

MOWFORTH, M., I. (1992) *Eco-tourism: Terminology and Definition*. University of Plymouth Research Report.

MOWFORTH, M. AND MUNT, I. (2015) *Tourism and Sustainability: Development, globalisation and new tourism in the Third World*. 4th edn. London: Routledge.

MREE, C. L., DAS, S., RAY, T. K., CHOWDHURY, P. AND SAHA, N. (2020) 'Residents' Perception of Ecotourism in Ratargul Freshwater Swamp Forest of Bangladesh', *Asian Journal of Research in Agriculture and Forestry*, 5(3), pp. 1-11. doi: 10.9734/AJRAF/2020/v5i330083.

MTAPURI, O. AND GIAMPICCOLI, A. (2016) 'Towards a comprehensive model of community-based tourism development', *South African Geographical Journal*, 98(1), pp. 154-168. doi: 10.1080/03736245.2014.977813.

MUDIMBA, T. AND TICHAAWA, T. M. 2017. 'Voices of local communities regarding their involvement and roles in the tourism development process in Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe', *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(4), pp. 1-15.

MUEHLENBEIN, M., MARTINEZ, L., LEMKE, A., AMBU, L., NATHAN, S., ALSISTO, S. AND SAKONG, R. (2010) 'Unhealthy Travellers Present Challenges to Sustainable Primate Ecotourism', *Travel medicine and infectious disease*, 8, pp. 169-175. doi: 10.1016/j.tmaid.2010.03.004.

MUGANDA, M., SIRIMA, A. AND EZRA, P. M. (2013) 'The Role of Local Communities in Tourism Development: Grassroots Perspectives from Tanzania', *Journal of Human Ecology*, 41(1), pp. 53-66. doi: 10.1080/09709274.2013.11906553.

MÜLLNER, A., LINSENMAIR, E. K. AND WIKELSKI, M. (2004) 'Exposure to ecotourism reduces survival and affects stress response in hoatzin chicks (*Opisthocomus hoazin*)', *Biological Conservation*, 118(4), pp. 549-558. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2003.10.003>.

MURPHY, P. (2008) 'Special Issue Tourism Management in Host Communities', *The Canadian Geographer / Le Géographe canadien*, 24, pp. 1-2.

NASH, S. (2009) 'Ecotourism and Other Invasions', *BioScience*, 59(2), pp. 106-110. doi: [10.1525/bio.2009.59.2.3](https://doi.org/10.1525/bio.2009.59.2.3).

NATSUDA, K. AND THOBURN, J. (2013) 'Industrial policy and the development of the automotive industry in Thailand', *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 18(3), pp. 413-437. doi: [10.1080/13547860.2012.742690](https://doi.org/10.1080/13547860.2012.742690).

NDIONE, E. S. (1994) *Reinventor le present*. Dakar, ENDA GRAF sahel: Quelques jalons pour l'action.

NEEF, A. (2019) *Land grabs and displacement: tourism's dark side*. Available at: <https://www.newsroom.co.nz/ideasroom/land-grabs-and-displacement-tourisms-dark-side> (Accessed: 20 November 2021).

NEGER, C. (2021) 'Ecotourism in crisis: an analysis of the main obstacles for the sector's economic sustainability', *Journal of Ecotourism*, pp. 1-23. doi: [10.1080/14724049.2021.1942019](https://doi.org/10.1080/14724049.2021.1942019).

NELSON, M. H. (2002) 'Thailand: Problems with Decentralization?', in NELSON, M. H. (ed.) *Thailand's New Politics: KPI Yearbook 2001*. Nonthaburi and Bangkok: King Prajadhipok's Institute and White Lotus Press, pp. 219-281.

NESDB (2017) *The Twelfth National Economic and Social Development Plan (2017-2021)*. Available at: https://www.nesdc.go.th/nesdb_en/ewt_dl_link.php?nid=4345 (Accessed: 24 September 2020).

NESDC (2020) *Gross Domestic Product Chain Volume Measures 1/2562*. Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council (NESDC), Thailand. Available at: https://www.nesdc.go.th/main.php?filename=qgdp_page (Accessed: 20 May 2020).

NETH, B. (2008) *Ecotourism as a Tool for Sustainable Rural Community Development and Natural Resources Management in the Tonle Sap Biosphere Reserve*. Germany: University of Kassel.

NEWMARK, W. D. AND HOUGH, J. L. (2000) Conserving Wildlife in Africa: Integrated Conservation and Development Projects and Beyond. *BioScience*, 50(7), pp. 585-592. doi: 10.1641/0006-3568(2000)050[0585:Cwiaic]2.0.Co;2.

NG, S. I., CHIA, K. W., HO, J. A. AND RAMACHANDRAN, S. (2017) 'Seeking tourism sustainability – A case study of Tioman Island, Malaysia', *Tourism Management*, 58, pp. 101-107. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.10.007>.

NGA (2021) *NGA*. Available at: <https://www.chamber-commerce.net/dir/4167/Thai-Chamber-of-Commerce-in-Pranakhon> (Accessed: 16 May 2021).

NICHOLAS, L. N., THAPA, B. AND KO, Y. J. (2009) 'Residents' Perspectives of a World Heritage Site: The Pitons Management Area, St. Lucia', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(3), pp. 390-412. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.03.005>.

NNT (2015) *More tourists travel 'Isan'*. Available at: https://thainews.prd.go.th/centerweb/newsen/NewsDetail?NT01_NewsID=WNECO5802130010018 (Accessed: 13 February 2015).

NOOM-URA, S. (2013) 'English-Teaching Problems in Thailand and Thai Teachers' Professional Development Needs', *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), pp. 139-147. doi: [10.5539/elt.v6n11p139](https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p139).

NUNKOO, R. (2015) 'Tourism development and trust in local government', *Tourism Management*, 46, pp. 623-634. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.08.016>.

NUNKOO, R. AND GURSOY, D. (2016) 'Rethinking The Role of Power and Trust in Tourism Planning', *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 25(4), pp. 512-522. doi: [10.1080/19368623.2015.1019170](https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2015.1019170).

NYAUPANE, G. P., LEW, A. A. AND TATSUGAWA, K. (2014) 'Perceptions of trekking tourism and social and environmental change in Nepal's Himalayas', *Tourism Geographies*, 16(3), pp. 415-437. doi: [10.1080/14616688.2014.942233](https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2014.942233).

NYUMBA, T. O., WILSON, K., DERRICK, C. J. AND MUKHERJEE, N. (2018) 'The use of focus group discussion methodology: Insights from two decades of application in conservation', *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 9(1), pp. 20-32. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12860>.

O'BRIEN, A. (2012) 'Wasting a good crisis: Developmental Failure and Irish Tourism Since 2008', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(2), pp. 1138–1155. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2011.12.008.

OCAMPO, R. (2020) *Betting big on small-scale ecotourism*. Available at: <https://www.ttgasia.com/2020/08/06/betting-big-on-small-scale-ecotourism/> (Accessed: 2 September 2020).

OIKONOMOU, Z. S. AND DIKOU, A. (2008) 'Integrating Conservation and Development at the National Marine Park of Alonissos, Northern Sporades, Greece: Perception and Practice', *Environmental management*, 42, pp. 847-66. doi: 10.1007/s00267-008-9163-x.

OKAZAKI, E. (2008) 'A Community-Based Tourism Model: Its Conception and Use', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(5), pp. 511-529. doi: 10.1080/09669580802159594.

OKELLO, F. (2004) *Ecotourism in Uganda: A Case Study of the Mgahinga National Park*. Masters, Göteborg University.

O'NEILL, A. C. (2002) 'What Globalization Means for Ecotourism: Managing Globalization Globalization's Impacts on Ecotourism in Developing Countries', *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies*, 9(2), pp. 501-528. doi: <https://www.repository.law.indiana.edu/ijgls/vol9/iss2/6>

ONEP (2021) *ONEP*. Available at: https://www.onep.go.th/?option=com_user (Accessed: 2 October 2021).

ONG, A. (1999) *Flexible Citizenship: the cultural logic of transnationality*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

OPPERMANN, M. AND CHON, K. S. (1997) 'Convention participation decision-making process', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), pp. 178-191. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(96\)00049-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(96)00049-7).

ORAMS, M. B. (1995) Towards a more desirable form of ecotourism. *Tourism Management*, 16(1), pp. 3-8.

OSMAN, T., SHAW, D. AND KENAWY, E. (2018) 'Examining the extent to which stakeholder collaboration during ecotourism planning processes could be applied within an Egyptian context', *Land Use Policy*, 78, pp. 126-137. doi: 10.1016/j.landusepol.2018.06.043.

OTOP (2007) *OTOP*. Available at: <https://www.otop.com/> (Accessed: 4 October 2007).

OTOP (2021) *OTOP in rural Thailand*. Available at: <https://www.tourismthailand.org/Shop/otop-product-center-2> (Accessed: 7 September 2021).

PADDISON, R., PHILO, C., ROUTLEDGE, P. AND SHARP, J. (2000) *Entanglements of Power: Geographies of domination/resistance*. London: Routledge.

PADILLA, M. B., GUILAMO-RAMOS, V., BOURIS, A. AND REYES, A. M. (2010) 'HIV/AIDS and Tourism in the Caribbean: An Ecological Systems Perspective', *American Journal of Public Health*, 100(1), pp. 70-77. doi: 10.2105/ajph.2009.161968.

PAGLIARA, F., MAURIELLO, F. AND RUSSO, L. (2020) 'A Regression Tree Approach for Investigating the Impact of High Speed Rail on Tourists Choices', *Sustainability*, 12, pp. 910-925. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12030910>.

PALMER, N. J. AND CHUAMUANGPHAN, N. (2018) 'Governance and local participation in ecotourism: community-level ecotourism stakeholders in Chiang Rai province, Thailand', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 17(3), pp. 320-337. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2018.1502248.

PARNWELL, M. J. G. (2005) 'The power to change: Rebuilding sustainable livelihoods in North-East Thailand', *The Journal of Transdisciplinary Environmental Studies*, 4(2), pp. 1-21.

PASSMORE, J. (1974) *Mans Responsibility for Nature*, Duckworth.

PATA (1992) *Going Green*. Asia Travel Trade.

PATHAK, K., CHHETRI, H., SHRESTHA, S., KARKI, S., GAHATRAJ, S., KARKI, P., JANDUG, C. M. AND JANDUG, B. (2020) 'Assessment of Possibilities of Ecotourism Development around Jagadishpur Lake', *North American Academic Research*, 3(5), pp. 313-324. doi: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3831108>.

PATHMASIRI, E. H. G. C. AND BANDARA, T. W. M. T. W. (2019) 'Contradictory Conception and Implementation of Ecotourism in Sri Lanka', *International Journal of Research Publications*, 39(2), pp. 18-35.

PEAKE, S., INNES, P. AND DYER, P. (2009) 'Ecotourism and conservation: factors influencing effective conservation messages', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(1), pp. 107-127. doi: 10.1080/09669580802276000.

PEARCE, D. (1991) *Tourist Development*. New York: Longman Scientific & Technical.

PEARCE, D. G. (2001) 'Tourism, Trams and Local Government Policy-making in Christchurch, New Zealand', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4(2-4), pp. 331-354. doi: 10.1080/13683500108667892.

PEARCE, D. W., CLINE, W. R., ACHANTA, A. N., FANKHAUSER, S., PACHAURI, R. K., TOL, R. S. J. AND VELLINGA, P. (1996) 'The Social Costs of Climate Change: Greenhouse Damage and the Benefits of Control', in BRUCE, J. P., LEE, H. AND HAITES, E. F. (eds.) *Climate Change 1995: Economic and Social Dimensions Contribution of Working Group III to the Second Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 179-224.

PELEGGI, M. (2002) *Lords of Things*. University of Hawaii Press.

PHATHARATHANANUNTH, S. (2016) 'Rural Transformations and Democracy in Northeast Thailand', *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 46(3), pp. 504-519. doi: 10.1080/00472336.2016.1166258.

PHELAN, A., RUHANEN, L. AND MAIR, J. (2020) 'Ecosystem services approach for community-based ecotourism: towards an equitable and sustainable blue economy', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(10), pp. 1665-1685. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2020.1747475.

PHILLIPS, A. (2003) 'Turning Ideas on the Dead: the new paradigm for protected areas', *The George Wright Forum*, 20(2) pp. 8-32.

PIDS (2002) 'A law of nature: The command-and-control approach', *Economic Issue of the Day*, 3(1), pp. 1-2.

PINKAOEW, A. (2021) 'National Park and Living Humans', *ThaiPBS*, 4 August.

PIPINOS, G. AND FOKIALI, P. (2009) 'An assessment of the attitudes of the inhabitants of Northern Karpathos, Greece: towards a framework for ecotourism development in environmentally sensitive areas', *Environment, Development and Sustainability: A Multidisciplinary Approach to the Theory and Practice of Sustainable Development*, 11(3), pp. 655-675. doi: 10.1007/s10668-007-9135-y.

PIZAM, A. (1999) 'A Comprehensive Approach to Classifying Acts of Crime and Violence at Tourism Destinations', *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(1), pp. 5-12. doi: 10.1177/004728759903800103.

PLACE, S. (1991) 'Nature tourism and rural development in Tortuguero', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18, pp. 186-201.

PLACE, S. (1995) 'Ecotourism for sustainable development: Oxymoron or plausible strategy?', *GeoJournal*, 35, pp. 161-173. doi: 10.1007/BF00814062.

PLEUMAROM, A. (1997) 'Open questions concerning the concept, policies and practices of ecotourism', *Proceedings of an international seminar: Ecotourism for forest conservation and community development*, 28-31 January 1997, Chiang Mai, Thailand: FAO/RAP Publication.

PLEUMAROM, A. (2001) *Eco-Tourism: A New Green Revolution in the Third World*. Available at: <https://twm.my/title/eco2.htm> (Accessed: 9 December 2021).

PLUMMER, K. (2001) *Documents of life 2: An invitation to critical humanism*. London: SAGE.

PON—OUM, K. AND SUKPHONGSRI, S. (2000) *Rai-nagan kanwichai kanthongthiao choeng niwet: karani-sueksa chumchon khiriwong tambon kamlon amphoe lanska, Changwat Nakorn Si Thammarat [A Research Report on Ecotourism: a Case Study of Tambon Kamlon, Amphoe Lanska, Changwat Nakorn Si Thammarat]*. Bangkok: Health System Research Institute, Ministry of Public Health.

POON, A. (1994) *Tourism, Technology and Competitive Strategies*. UK: Cab International.

PORNPRASIT, P. AND RURKKHUM, S. (2019) 'Performance evaluation of community-based ecotourism: a case study in Satun province, Thailand', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 18(1), pp.42-59. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2017.1379529.

POWELL, R. B. AND HAM, S. H. (2008) 'Can Ecotourism Interpretation Really Lead to Pro-Conservation Knowledge, Attitudes and Behaviour? Evidence from the Galapagos Islands', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(4), pp. 467-489. doi: 10.1080/09669580802154223.

PRETTY, J., ADAMS, B., BERKES, F., DE ATHAYDE, S. F., DUDLEY, N., HUNN, E., MAFFI, L., MILTON, K., RAPPORT, D., ROBBINS, P., STERLING, E., STOLTON, S., TSING, A., VINTINNERK, E. AND PILGRIM, S. (2009) 'The Intersections of Biological Diversity and Cultural Diversity: Towards Integration', *Conservation and Society*, 7(2), pp. 100-112. doi: 10.4103/0972-4923.58642.

PRISCOLI, J. (2001) *Participation, consensus building, and conflict management training course (tools for achieving PCCP)*, Technical Documents in Hydrology, UNESCO.

PUNMANEE, T. AND WHEWAY, C. (2017) 'Global production networks and regional development: Thai regional development beyond the Bangkok metropolis?', *Regional Studies, Regional Science*, 4(1), pp.146-153. doi: 10.1080/21681376.2017.1333919.

QIAN, C., SASAKI, N., JOURDAIN, D., KIM, S. M. AND SHIVAKOTI, P. G. (2017) 'Local livelihood under different governances of tourism development in China – A case study of Huangshan mountain area', *Tourism Management*, 61, pp. 221-233. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.01.006>.

REGMI, K., NAIDOO, J. AND PILKINGTON, P. (2010) 'Understanding the Processes of Translation and Transliteration in Qualitative Research', *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 9(1), pp. 16-26.

REIME, M. AND HAWKINS, C. (1979) 'Tourism Development: A Model for Growth', *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 20(1), pp. 67-74. doi: 10.1177/001088047902000111.

REIMER, J. K. AND WALTER, P. (2013) 'How do you know it when you see it? Community-based ecotourism in the Cardamom Mountains of southwestern Cambodia', *Tourism Management*, 34, pp. 122-132. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.04.002>.

RHODES, R. A. W. (2002) 'Putting People Back into Networks' *Australian Journal of Political Science*, 37(3), pp. 399-416. doi: 10.1080/1036114021000026337.

RIBOT, J. (2002) *Democratic Decentralization of Natural Resources: institutionalising popular participation*. Washington, DC: World Resources Institute.

RICHARDSON, A. (1983) *Participation*. London: Routledge.

RICHARDSON, J. (1993) *Ecotourism and Nature-based Holidays*. Sydney, Australia: Simon and Schuster.

RICHTER, L. K. AND WAUGH, W. L. (1986) 'Terrorism and tourism as logical companions', *Tourism Management*, 7(4), pp. 230-238. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(86\)90033-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(86)90033-6).

RIGG, J. (2007) *An Everyday Geography of the Global South*. London: Routledge.

RIGG, J. (2019) *More than rural: Textures of Thailand's agrarian transformation*. Honolulu, Hawai'i: University of Hawai'i Press.

RINZIN, C., VERMEULEN, W. J. V. AND GLASBERGEN, P. (2007) 'Ecotourism as a mechanism for sustainable development: the case of Bhutan', *Environmental Sciences*, 4(2), pp. 109-125. doi: [10.1080/15693430701365420](https://doi.org/10.1080/15693430701365420).

ROBINSON, M. AND BONIFACE, P. (1999) *Tourism and Cultural Conflicts*. Oxon: CABI Publishing.

ROJEK, C. AND URRY, J. (1997) *Touring Cultures: Transformations of Travel and Theory*. London: Routledge.

ROMERO-BRITO, T. P., BUCKLEY, R. C. AND BYRNE, J. (2016) 'NGO Partnerships in Using Ecotourism for Conservation: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis', *PLOS ONE*, 11(11), pp. 1-19. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0166919>.

ROSE, M. (2002) 'The Seductions of Resistance: Power, Politics, and a Performative Style of Systems', *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space*, 20(4), pp.383-400. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1068/d262t>.

ROSS, S. AND WALL, G. (1999a) 'Evaluating ecotourism: The case of North Sulawesi, Indonesia', *Tourism Management*, 20(6), pp. 673-682. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(99\)00040-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(99)00040-0).

ROSS, S. AND WALL, G. (1999b) 'Ecotourism: towards congruence between theory and practice', *Tourism Management*, 20(1), pp. 123-132. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(98\)00098-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(98)00098-3).

ROUT, H. B. AND MOHANTY, K. (2015) 'Empowering Women through Tourism Development', *Odisha Review*, pp. 85-89.

RUHANEN, L. (2013) 'Local government: facilitator or inhibitor of sustainable tourism development?', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(1), pp. 80-98. doi: [10.1080/09669582.2012.680463](https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2012.680463).

RUNYAN, D. AND WU, C. T. (1979) 'Assessing tourism's more complex consequences', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), pp. 448-463. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(79\)90007-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(79)90007-0).

RYAN, C. (1995) *Researching Tourists' Satisfaction: issues, concepts, problems*. London: Routledge.

RYAN, C. (2002) 'Equity, management, power sharing and sustainability—issues of the new tourism', *Tourism Management*, 23(1), pp. 17-26. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(01\)00064-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(01)00064-4).

RYAN, C. AND HALL, C. M. (2001) *Sex Tourism: marginal people and liminalities*. London: Routledge.

RYAN, C., HUGHES, K. AND CHIRGWIN, S. (2000) 'The Gaze, Spectacle and Ecotourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), pp. 148-163. doi: 10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00061-4.

SABUHORO, E., WRIGHT, B., MUNANURA, I. E., NYAKABWA, I. N. AND NIBIGIRA, C. (2021) 'The potential of ecotourism opportunities to generate support for mountain gorilla conservation among local communities neighbouring Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 20(1), pp. 1-17. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2017.1280043.

SACHS, W. (1992) *The development dictionary: A guide to knowledge as power*. London: Zed Books.

SAITO, H. AND RUHANEN, L. (2017) 'Power in tourism stakeholder collaborations: Power types and power holders', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, 189-196.

SALMAN, A., JAAFAR, M., MOHAMAD, D. AND MALIK, S. (2021) 'Ecotourism development in Penang Hill: a multi-stakeholder perspective towards achieving environmental sustainability', *Environmental science and pollution research international*, 28(31), pp. 42945-42958. doi: 10.1007/s11356-021-13609-y.

SALUM, L. A. (2009) 'Ecotourism and biodiversity conservation in Jozani–Chwaka Bay National Park, Zanzibar', *African Journal of Ecology*, 47(1), pp. 166-170. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2028.2008.01065.x>.

SANGPIKUL, A. (2011) 'Developing good practices for ecotourism tour operators', *Sasin Journal of Management*, 17(1), pp. 53–86.

SANGPIKUL, A. (2020) 'Tourist perceptions of guided ecotourism tours in Thailand', *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 20(2), pp. 245-256. doi: 10.1177/1467358418824143.

SANTASOMBAT, Y. (2001) *Kanthongthiao choeng niwet, Khwamlaklai thang wattanatham, lae Kanchatkan sabphayakorn [Ecotourism, Cultural Diversity and Natural Resources Management]*. Chaingmai, Thailand: Khrongkan Pattana Ongkhawamru lae Sueksa Nayobai Kanchatkan Sabphayakorn Chiwaphab nai Prathetthai (BRT).

SAO (2021) *SAO*. Available at: <http://www.rakbankerd.com> (Accessed: 13 July 2021).

SAROBOL, S. (2002) *Community based tourism: concepts and experiences (in Thai)*. Chiang Mai: The Thailand Research Fund (TRF).

SAUFI, A., O'BRIEN, D. AND WILKINS, H. (2014) 'Inhibitors to host community participation in sustainable tourism development in developing countries' *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(5), pp. 801-820. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2013.861468.

SAYIRA, T. (2015) *Tourism Development and Women in Under Crises Destinations: A Case Study of Chilas, Pakistan*. Doctor of Philosophy, Liverpool John Moores University.

SCACE, R. C., GRIFONE, E. AND USHER, R. (1992) *Ecotourism in Canada*. Hull, Canada: Canadian Environment Advisory Council.

SCHEYVENS, R. (1999) 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', *Tourism Management*, 20(2), pp. 245-249. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(98\)00069-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(98)00069-7).

SCHEYVENS, R. (2000) 'Promoting Women's Empowerment through Involvement in Ecotourism: Experiences from the Third World', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 8(3), pp. 232-249. doi: 10.1080/09669580008667360.

SCHOEMANN, T. (2002) 'Socio-political Aspects of Establishing Ecotourism in the Qwa-Qwa National Park, South Africa', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 5(3-4), pp. 287-308. doi: 10.1080/13683500208667925.

SEN, V. AND WALTER, P. (2020) 'Community-based ecotourism and the transformative learning of homestay hosts in Cambodia', *Tourism Recreation Research*, 45(3), pp. 323-336. doi: 10.1080/02508281.2019.1692171.

SERENARI, C., BOSAK, K. AND ATTARIAN, A. (2013) 'Cross-cultural efficacy of American low-impact programs: A comparison between Garhwal guide beliefs on environmental behavior and American outdoor travel norms', *Tourism Management*, 34, pp. 50-60.

SERENARI, C., PETERSON, M. N., WALLACE, T. AND STOWHAS, P. (2016) 'Private protected areas, ecotourism development and impacts on local people's well-being: a review from case studies in Southern Chile', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(12), pp. 1792-1810. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2016.1178755.

SHARMA, P., CHARAK, N. S. AND KUMAR, R. (2018) 'Sustainable Tourism Development and Peace: A local community approach', *JOHAR – Journal of Hospitality Application & Research*, 13(1), pp. 36-56. .

SHARP, J. P., ROUTLEDGE, P., PHILO, C. AND PADDISON, R. (2002) *Entanglements of Power: Geographies of domination/resistance*. London: Routledge.

SHARPLEY, R. AND TELFER, D. J. (2008) *Tourism and Development in the Developing World*. London: Routledge.

SHORES, J. N. (1992) *The Challenge of Ecotourism: a call for higher standards*. Paper presented at the Fourth World Congress on Parks and Protected Areas. Caracas, Venezuela.

SIDEL, J. T. (2005) 'Bossism and Democracy in the Philippines, Thailand and Indonesia: Towards an Alternative Framework for the Study of 'Local Strongmen'', in HARRISS, J.,

STOKKE, K. AND TÖRNQUIST, O. (eds.) *Politicising Democracy: International Political Economy Series*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

SILVA, G. AND MCDILL, M. E. (2004) 'Barriers to Ecotourism Supplier Success: A Comparison of Agency and Business Perspectives', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12(4), pp. 289-305. doi: 10.1080/09669580408667239.

SILVERMAN, D. (2005) *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical*. London: SAGE Publications.

SIMON, G. AND ALAGONA, P. (2009) 'Beyond Leave No Trace', *Ethics, Place & Environment*, 12, pp. 17-34.

SIN, H. L. AND MINCA, C. (2014) 'Touring responsibility: The trouble with 'going local' in community-based tourism in Thailand', *Geoforum*, 51, pp. 96–106. doi: 10.1016/j.geoforum.2013.10.004.

SINGH, J. (2010) *Ecotourism*. I.K. International Pub.

SITIKARN, W. (2004) *Airport - Unused*. *Bangkokpost*, 20 September. Available at: <https://www.bangkokpost.com/> (accessed: 5 November 2017).

SMITH, G. C. AND ALDERDICE, D. (1979) 'Public Responses to National Park Environmental Policy', *Environment and Behavior*, 11(3), pp. 329-350. doi: 10.1177/0013916579113002.

SMITH, L. G. (1993) *Impact Assessment and Sustainable Resource Management*. Essex: Longman.

SMITH, M. (2003) *Issues in cultural tourism studies*. London: Routledge.

SNYMAN, S. (2013) *High-end ecotourism and rural communities in southern Africa: a socio-economic analysis*. PhD, University of Cape Town.

SNYMAN, S. (2014) 'Partnership between a private sector ecotourism operator and a local community in the Okavango Delta, Botswana: the case of the Okavango Community Trust and Wilderness Safaris', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 13(2-3), pp. 110-127. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2014.980744.

SOBHANI, P., ESMAEILZADEH, H., SADEGHI, S. M. M. AND MARCU, M. V. (2022) 'Estimation of Ecotourism Carrying Capacity for Sustainable Development of Protected Areas in Iran', *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 19(3), pp. 1-19. doi: 10.3390/ijerph19031059.

SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIETNAM (2012) *Implementation of Sustainable Development in Vietnam*. Hanoi: National Report at the United Nation Conference on Sustainable Development (RIO+20).

SOFIELD, T. AND LI, F. M. S. (2007) 'China: ecotourism and cultural tourism, harmony or dissonance?', in HIGHAM, J. (ed.) *Critical Issues in Ecotourism: Understanding a complex tourism phenomenon*. London: Elsevier Ltd., pp. 368-385.

SOFIELD, T. H. B. (2003) *Empowerment for sustainable tourism development*. Boston: Pergamon.

SONJAI, N. P., BUSHHELL, R., HAWKINS, M. AND STAIFF, R. (2018) 'Community-based ecotourism: beyond authenticity and the commodification of local people', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 17(3), pp. 252-267. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2018.1503502.

SPENCELEY, A. AND MEYER, D. (2012) 'Tourism and poverty reduction: theory and practice in less economically developed countries', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(3), pp. 297-317. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2012.668909.

SRINAKHARINWIROT UNIVERSITY. (1999) *Social Development via Royal speech*. Available at: <http://www.swu.ac.th/royal/index.html> (Accessed: 1 March 2009).

STABLER, M. J. (1997) *Tourism and Sustainability: principles to practice*. New York: CAB International.

ȘTEFĂNICĂ, M., SANDU, C. B., BUTNARU, G. I. AND HALLER, A. P. (2021) 'The Nexus between Tourism Activities and Environmental Degradation: Romanian Tourists' Opinions', *Sustainability*, 13(16), pp. 1-19. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13169210>.

STEIN, S. M. AND HARPER, T. L. (2003) 'Power, Trust, and Planning', *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 23(2), pp. 125-139. doi: 10.1177/0739456x03258636.

STEIN, T. V., CLARK, J. K. AND RICKARDS, J. L. (2003). 'Assessing Nature's Role in Ecotourism Development in Florida: Perspectives of Tourism Professionals and Government Decision-makers', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 2(3), pp. 155-172. doi: 10.1080/14724040308668142.

STEM, C. J., LASSOIE, J. P., LEE, D. R. AND DESHLER, D. J. (2003) 'How 'Eco' is Ecotourism? A Comparative Case Study of Ecotourism in Costa Rica', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 11(4), pp. 322-347. doi: 10.1080/09669580308667210.

STEYN, R. AND VAN VUUREN, J. O. (2016) 'The relationship between quality of governance and foreign tourist numbers', *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(4), pp. 1-10.

STONE, L. S. AND NYAUPANE, G. P. (2016) 'Africans and protected areas: North–South perspectives', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 58, pp. 140-155. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2016.03.003>.

STONE, M. T. (2015) 'Community-based ecotourism: a collaborative partnerships perspective', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 14(2-3), pp. 166-184. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2015.1023309.

STONE, M. T. AND NYAUPANE, G. P. (2016). 'Protected areas, tourism and community livelihoods linkages: a comprehensive analysis approach', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(5), pp. 673-693. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2015.1072207.

STRONZA, A. (2001) 'Anthropology of Tourism: Forging New Ground for Ecotourism and Other Alternatives', *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 30(1), pp. 261-283. doi: 10.1146/annurev.anthro.30.1.261.

STRONZA, A. (2007) 'The Economic Promise of Ecotourism for Conservation', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 6(3), pp. 210-230. doi: <https://doi.org/10.2167/joe177.0>.

STRONZA, A. AND GORDILLO, J. (2008) 'Community views of ecotourism' *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), pp. 448-468. doi: 10.1016/j.annals.2008.01.002.

STRONZA, A. L., HUNT, C. A. AND FITZGERALD, L. A. (2019) 'Ecotourism for Conservation?', *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 44(1), pp. 229-253. doi: 10.1146/annurev-environ-101718-033046.

SUFFICIENCY ECONOMY NESDB. (2006) *NESDB (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board): Sufficiency Economy*. Available at: <http://www.sufficiencyeconomy.org/detail.swf> (Accessed: 23 March 2009).

SUZUKI, N. (2017) 'The Formation Process for Civil Society in Northeast Thailand: A Social Research Case Study of Two Villages', *Historical Social Research*, 42(3), pp. 317-334. doi <https://doi.org/10.12759/hsr.42.2017.3.317-334>.

SWARBROOKE, J. (1999) *Sustainable Tourism Management*. Oxon: CABI Publishing.

SWART, K. (2005) 'Strategic planning – implications for the bidding of sport events in South Africa', *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 10(1), pp. 37–46.

SYAMIMI, M. A., AHMAD, S., SRIDAR, R. AND PUVANESWARAN, K. (2019) 'Impacts of Ecotourism Development in Tasik Kenyir on the Quality of Life as Perceived by the Local Community', *Journal of Sustainability Science and Management*, 14(3), pp. 100–109.

TALIERCIO, R. R. (2005) 'Subnational own-source revenue: Getting policy and administration Right', in WORLDBANK (ed.) *East Asia decentralizes: Making local government work*. Washington, DC: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development World Bank.

TARLOW, P. E. (2006) 'Crime and tourism', in WILKS, J., PENDERGAST, D. AND LEGGAT, P. A. (eds.) *Tourism in Turbulent Times: towards safe experiences for visitors*. Oxford: Elsevier.

TAT (1997) *The Approach to Tourism*. Bangkok: TAT.

TAT (2006) *Tourism Authority of Thailand to Focus on Brand Building and New Marketing Slogan, Thailand Unforgettable*. Available at: https://www.hotel-online.com/News/PR2006_3rd/Sep06_TATBrand.html (Accessed: 2 June 2021).

TAT (2009) *Tourism in Thailand*. Available at: <http://thai.tourismthailand.org/> (Accessed: 12 March 2010).

TAT (2019) *AmazingThailand: Open to The New Shades (60 sec)*. Available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ywnJH3K-wiA> (Accessed: 16 September 2021).

TAT (2020) *Chaiyaphum*. Available at: <https://www.tourismthailand.org/> (Access: 4 June 2020).

TAT (2021) *TAT*. Available at: <https://www.tourismthailand.org/home> (Accessed: 24 July 2021).

TATNEWS (2005) *Thailand to Maintain 'Tourism a Capital of Asia' Focus*. Available at: http://www.tatnews.org/tat_news/detail.asp?id=2572 (Accessed: 11 November 2008).

TATNEWS (2018) *TAT launches Amazing Thailand's 'Open to the New Shades' book*. Available at: <https://www.tatnews.org/2018/04/tat-launches-amazing-thailands-open-to-the-new-shades-book/> (Accessed: 2 June 2021).

TATNEWS (2022) *TAT Stockholm launches "Meaningful Travel Campaign" for sustainable tourism*. Available at: <https://www.tatnews.org/2022/02/tat-stockholm-launches-meaningful-travel-campaign-for-sustainable-tourism/> (Accessed: 17 January 2022).

TAYLOR, K. AND FRANCIS, K. (2014) 'Culture-nature dilemmas: confronting the challenge of the integration of culture and nature', in ROE, M. AND TAYLOR, K. (eds.) *New Cultural Landscapes*. London: Routledge, pp. 24-40.

TEEKACHOTEKUNAN, N. 2020. *Off the beaten track -- Chaiyaphum offers a different kind of tourism value*. The Nation.

TEVAPITAK, K. AND HELMSING, A. H. J. B. (2019) 'The interaction between local governments and stakeholders in environmental management: The case of water pollution by SMEs in Thailand', *J Environ Manage*, 247, pp. 840-848. doi: 10.1016/j.jenvman.2019.06.097.

TEYE, V., SIRAKAYA, E. AND F. SÖNMEZ, S. (2002) 'Residents' attitudes toward tourism development', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), pp. 668-688. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(01\)00074-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(01)00074-3).

THAILANDINSIDER (2020) *Thailand's Top Sustainable and Eco-Friendly Destinations*. Available at: <https://thailandinsider.com/thailands-top-sustainable-and-eco-friendly-destinations/> (Accessed: 30 May 2020).

THAILANDTOURISM (2018) *Tourist Behavior VS Tourism Trends in Thailand*. Available at: www.tourismthailand.org/ (Accessed: 20 March 2020).

THAIRATH (2021) 'Mysterious Road found in Yasothorn', *Thairath*, 29 November.

THAIWEBSITES (2020) *Statistics of International Tourists and Domestic Tourists Changes*. Available at: <https://www.statista.com/> (Accessed: 5 October 2020).

THANASANKIT, T. AND CORBITT, B. (2000) 'Culture context and its implication on requirements elicitation in Thailand', *Electronic Journal of Information Systems in Developing Countries*, 1(2), pp. 1-19. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1681-4835.2000.tb00002.x>.

THAPA, K. (2010) *Protected area people relationship: A case study of Parsa Wildlife Reserve, Nepal*. Master's Thesis, Pokhara University.

THOMAS, N. J., HARVEY, D. C. AND HAWKINS, H. (2013) 'Crafting the Region: Creative Industries and Practices of Regional Space', *Regional Studies*, 47(1), pp. 75-88. doi: [10.1080/00343404.2012.709931](https://doi.org/10.1080/00343404.2012.709931).

THOMAS, R. (2009) *Managing Regional Tourism: A case of study of Yorkshire, England*. UK: Great Northern Books.

THOMLINSON, E. AND GETZ, D. (1996) 'The Question of Scale in Ecotourism: Case Study of Two Small Ecotour Operators in the Mundo Maya Region of Central America', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 4(4), pp. 183-200. doi: [10.1080/09669589608667267](https://doi.org/10.1080/09669589608667267).

TIES (2002) *Ecotourism Explore*. Available at: http://www.ecotourism.org/webmodules/webarticlesnet/templates/eco_template.aspx?a=12&z=25 (Accessed: 6 March 2008).

TIES (2017) Ecotourism. Available at: <http://www.ecotourism.org/ecotourism/> (Accessed: 6 March 2018).

TIES (2022) *What is Ecotourism?* Available at: <https://ecotourism.org/what-is-ecotourism/> (Accessed: 4 February 2022).

TISDELL, C. AND WILSON, C. (2002) 'Ecotourism for the survival of sea turtles and other wildlife', *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 11(9), pp. 1521-1538. doi: 10.1023/A:1016833300425.

TISDELL, C. AND WILSON, C. (2005) 'Perceived Impacts of Ecotourism on Environmental Learning and Conservation: Turtle Watching as a Case Study', *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 7(3), pp. 291-302. doi: 10.1007/s10668-004-7619-6.

TISTR (1997) *Operational Study Project to Determine Ecotourism Policy: Final report*. Bangkok: Tourism Authority of Thailand.

TOKO, A. (2018) 'The contribution of ecotourism to community-based conservation: A case study of forest conservation in a protected area in Cambodia', *Journal of Environmental Information Science*, 2, pp. 13-24.

TOMCZEWSKA-POPOWYCZ, N. AND QUIRINI-POPŁAWSKI, L. (2021) 'Political Instability Equals the Collapse of Tourism in Ukraine?', *Sustainability*, 13(8), pp. 4126-4146. doi: <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13084126>.

TONG, L., YAN, Q. AND KAWACHI, I. (2019) 'The factors associated with being left-behind children in China: Multilevel analysis with nationally representative data', *PLOS ONE*, 14(11), pp. e0224205. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0224205.

TOSUN, C. (2000) 'Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries', *Tourism Management*, 21(6), pp. 613-633. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(00\)00009-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(00)00009-1).

TOSUN, C. AND JENKINS, C. L. (1998) 'The evolution of tourism planning in Third-World countries: a critique', *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 4(2), pp. 101-114. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1603\(199806\)4:2<101::AID-PTH100>3.0.CO;2-Z](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1603(199806)4:2<101::AID-PTH100>3.0.CO;2-Z).

TOURISMTHAILAND (2021) *SHA Standard For New Normal Tourism Experience And Safety*. Available at: <https://www.tourismthailand.org/Articles/sha-certificate> (Accessed: 14 January 2022).

TOWNER, N. (2018) 'Surfing tourism and local stakeholder collaboration', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 17(3), pp. 268-286. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2018.1503503.

TRAN, L. AND WALTER, P. (2014) 'Ecotourism, Gender and Development in Northern Vietnam', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 44, pp. 116-130. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.09.005>.

TRAVELDAILYNEWS (2003) *Thailand to pursue 'Tourism Capital of Asia' status*. Available at: <https://www.traveldailynews.com/post/thailand-to-pursue-%60tourism-capital-of-asia%60-status-4017> (Accessed: 7 March, 2021).

TREUREN, G. AND LANE, D. (2003) 'The Tourism Planning Process in the Context of Organised Interests, Industry Structure, State Capacity, Accumulation and Sustainability', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(1), pp. 1-22. doi: 10.1080/13683500308667942.

TROËNG, S. AND DREWS, C. (2004) *Money talks: economic aspects of marine turtle use and conservation*. Gland, Switzerland: WWF – International.

TRUPP, A. (2014) 'Ethnic tourism in Northern Thailand: viewpoints of the Akha and the Karen', in HUSA, K., TRUPP, A. AND WOHLSCHLÄGL, H. (eds.) *Southeast Asian Mobility Transitions: Issues and Trends in Migration and Tourism*. Vienna, Austria: Department of Geography and Regional Research, University of Vienna, pp. 346-376.

TSAUR, S. H., LIN, Y. C. AND LIN, J. H. (2006) 'Evaluating ecotourism sustainability from the integrated perspective of resource, community and tourism', *Tourism Management*, 27(4), pp. 640-653. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.02.006>.

TUCKER, H. (2003) *Living with Tourism: negotiating identities in a Turkish village*. London: Routledge.

TUOHINO, A. AND HYNÖNEN, A. (2001) *Ecotourism – imagery and reality . Reflections on Concepts and Practises in Finnish Rural Tourism*. The 2nd International Conference "New directions in managing rural tourism and leisure – local impacts, global trends in Ayshire", 5th-8th September, 2001. Scotland, UK.

UN (1994) *Recommendations on Tourism Statistics. Statistical Papers Series M No. 83*, ST/ESA/STAT/SER.M/83. New York.

UNEP (2019) *Costa Rica: the 'living Eden' designing a template for a cleaner, carbon-free world*. Available at: <https://www.unep.org/news-and-stories/story/costa-rica-living-eden-designing-template-cleaner-carbon-free-world> (Accessed: 14 January 2022).

UNWTO (1991) *Tourism Trends*. Madrid: UNWTO.

UNWTO (1995) *UNWTO*. World Tourism Organisation News.

UNWTO (2008) *UNWTO*. Available at: <http://www.wto.org/> (Accessed: 15 January 2009)

UNWTO (2019) *International Tourism Highlights*. 2019 edn. Available at: <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421152> (Accessed: 24 September 2020).

UNWTO (2020) *Tourism and Rural Development*. Available at: <https://www.unwto.org/news/tourism-and-rural-development> (Accessed: 16 March 2021).

UNWTO/UNEP (2000) *Island tourism in Asia and the Pacific: a report on WTO/UNEP*. International conference on sustainable tourism in the islands of the Asia-Pacific region, 6-8 December, 2000. Sanya, Island of Hainan, China. World Tourism Organisation (WTO).

UNWTO/UNEP (2002) 'World Ecotourism Summit 2002', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 1(2-3), pp. 208-210. doi: 10.1080/14724040208668128.

UNWTO/UNSTAT (1994) *Recommendations on Tourism Statistics*. Madrid.

URRY, J. (1990) *The Tourists' Gaze, Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. London: SAGE.

USAID (2004) *USAID announces partnership with Kraft Food Inc.* Available at: <https://www.usaid.gov/press/releases/2004/pr040805.html> (Accessed: 24 September 2020).

UZZELL, D. (1989) *Heritage Interpretation Volume 1*. London: Bellhaven Press.

VALENTINE, G. (1997) 'Tell Me About...': using interview as a research methodology', in FLOWERDEW, R. AND MARTIN, D. (eds.) *A Guide for Student Doing Research Project*. Edinburgh: Addison Wesley Longman.

VALENTINE, G. AND CLIFFORD, N. (2003) *Key Methods in Geography*. London: SAGE Publications.

VALENTINE, P. S. (1993) 'Ecotourism and nature conservation: A definition with some recent developments in Micronesia' *Tourism Management*, 14(2), pp. 107-115 doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177\(93\)90043-K](https://doi.org/10.1016/0261-5177(93)90043-K).

VAN DEN BERGHE, P. L. AND FLORES OCHOA, J. (2000) 'Tourism and nativistic ideology in Cuzco, Peru', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), pp. 7-26. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(99\)00043-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00043-2).

VERÍSSIMO, D., FRASER, I. M., GROOMBRIDGE, J. J., BRISTOL, R. M. AND MACMILLAN, D. C. (2009) 'Birds as tourism flagship species: a case study of tropical islands', *Animal Conservation*, 12, pp. 549-558. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-1795.2009.00282.x>.

VUKOVIC, D. B., PETROVIC, M., MAITI, M. AND VUJKO, A. (2021) 'Tourism development, entrepreneurship and women's empowerment – Focus on Serbian countryside', *Journal of Tourism Futures*, pp. 1-21.

WALL, G. (1994) 'Ecotourism: old wine in new bottles?', *Trends*, 31(2), pp. 4-9.

WALL, G. (1997) 'Is ecotourism sustainable?', *Environmental Management*, 21(4), pp. 483-491.

WALLACE, G. N. (1993) 'Wildlands and Ecotourism in Latin America', *Journal of Forestry*, 91 (February), pp. 37-40.

WALLACE, G. N. AND PIERCE, S. M. (1996) 'An evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(4), pp. 843-873. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(96\)00009-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(96)00009-6).

WALLERSTEIN, I. (1994) 'Development: Iodestar or illusion?', in SKLAIR, L. E. (ed.) *Capitalism and Development*. London: Routledge.

WALSH, A. AND YUN, I. (2016) 'Evoked Culture and Evoked Nature: The Promise of Gene-Culture Co-Evolution Theory for Sociology', *Frontiers in Sociology*, 1, pp. 1-11. doi: 10.3389/fsoc.2016.00008.

WALTER, D. R. AND CRONIN, L. (2020) *How Reducing Urban Glow is Helping Turtle Conservation – and Bringing a Community Together*. Available at: <https://www.ecotourism.org.au/news/how-reducing-urban-glow-is-helping-turtle-conservation-and-bringing-a-community-together/> (Accessed: 6 January 2022).

WALTER, P., REGMI, K. D. AND KHANAL, P. R. (2018) 'Host learning in community-based ecotourism in Nepal: The case of Sirubari and Ghalegaun Homestays', *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 26, pp. 49–58. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2018.02.002>.

WALTER, P. AND SEN, V. (2018) 'A geography of ecotourism in Cambodia: regions, patterns, and potentials', *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 23(3), pp. 297 - 311. doi: 10.1080/10941665.2017.1422771.

WALTER, P. G. (2013) 'Theorising visitor learning in ecotourism', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 12(1), pp. 15-32. doi: 10.1080/14724049.2012.742093.

WALTON, J. (1993) 'Tourism and Economic Development', in HITCHCOCK, M., KING, V. T. AND PARNWELL, M. J. G. (eds.) *Tourism in South-East Asia*. London: Routledge.

WANG, L. E., ZHONG, L., ZHANG, Y. AND ZHOU, B. (2014) 'Ecotourism Environmental Protection Measures and Their Effects on Protected Areas in China', *Sustainability*, 6, pp. 6781-6798. doi: 10.3390/su6106781.

WARR, P. (2002) 'Thailand's Non-Recovery', *Southeast Asian Affairs*, pp. 326-342.

WARR, P. (2019) 'Economic development of post-war Thailand 1', in CHACHAVALPONGPUN, P. (ed.) *Routledge Handbook of Contemporary Thailand*. London: Routledge.

WCED (1987) *Our Common Future*. London: Oxford University Press.

WEARING, S. (1998) *The nature of change through ecotourism: The place of self, identity and communities as interacting elements of alternative tourism experiences*. PhD, Charles Sturt University.

WEARING, S., CYNN, S., PONTING, J. AND MCDONALD, M. (2002) 'Converting environmental concern into ecotourism purchases: a qualitative evaluation of International Backpackers in Australia', *Journal of Ecotourism*, 1(2-3), pp. 133-148.

WEARING, S. AND MCDONALD, M. (2002) 'The Development of Community-based Tourism: Re-thinking the Relationship Between Tour Operators and Development Agents as Intermediaries in Rural and Isolated Area Communities', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10(3), pp. 191-206. doi: 10.1080/09669580208667162.

WEARING, S., MCDONALD, M. AND PONTING, J. (2005) 'Building a Decommodified Research Paradigm in Tourism: The Contribution of NGOs', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(5), pp. 424-439. doi: 10.1080/09669580508668571.

WEARING, S. AND NEIL, J. (1999) *Ecotourism: Impacts, Potentials and Possibilities*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

WEAVER, D. B. (1998) *Ecotourism in the Less Developed World*, Oxen, CAB International.

WEAVER, D. B. (2001) *Ecotourism*. Queensland: John Wiley & Sons Australia Ltd.

WEAVER, D. B. (2002) 'Asian ecotourism: Patterns and themes' *Tourism Geographies*, 4(2), pp. 153-172. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616680210124936>.

WEAVER, D. B. (2005) 'Comprehensive and minimalist dimensions of ecotourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(2), pp. 439-455. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2004.08.003>.

WEAVER, D., GLENN, C. AND ROUNDS, R. (1996) 'Private Ecotourism Operations in Manitoba, Canada', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 4(3), pp. 135-146. doi: 10.1080/09669589608667264.

WEAVER, D. B. AND LAWTON, L. J. (2007) 'Twenty years on: The state of contemporary ecotourism research', *Tourism Management*, 28, pp. 1168-1179.

WEBER, M. (1995) 'The Russian Revolutions', in WELLS, G. C. AND BAEHR, P. (eds.) *Trans. and Ed.* Cambridge: Policy Press.

WEBER, W. (1993) 'Primate Conservation and Ecotourism in Africa', in POTTER, C., COHEN, J. AND JANCZEWSKI, D. (eds.) *Perspectives on Biodiversity: Cases of Genetic Resource Conservation and Development*. Washington, DC: American Association for the Advancement of Science.

WEI, C., DAI, S., XU, H. AND WANG, H. (2020) 'Cultural worldview and cultural experience in natural tourism sites', *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 43, pp. 241-249. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.04.011>.

WEILER, B. AND BLACK, R. (2015) 'The changing face of the tour guide: one-way communicator to choreographer to co-creator of the tourist experience', *Tourism Recreation Research*, 40(3), pp. 364-378. doi: 10.1080/02508281.2015.1083742.

WEILER, B. AND HAM, S. H. (2002) 'Tour guide training: a model for sustainable capacity building in developing countries', *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 10(1), pp. 52-69. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580208667152>.

WEIST, D. (2001) *Thailand's Decentralisation: Progress and Prospect*. the KPI Annual Conference III on Decentralisation and Local Government in Thailand, November 2001. Available at: www.worldbank.org/wbiep/decentralization/eaplib/weist.pdf (Accessed: 2 September 2013).

WELLS, M. P. AND BRANDON, K. E. (1993) 'The Principles and Practices of Buffer Zones and Local Participation in Biodiversity Conservation' *Ambio*, 22(2-3), pp. 157-162.

WEST, P. AND CARRIER, J. G. (2004) 'Ecotourism and Authenticity: Getting Away from It All?', *Current Anthropology*; Aug-Oct 2004; 45(4), pp. 483-498. doi: 10.1086/422082.

WESTERN, D. (1993) 'Defining Ecotourism', in LINDBERG, K. AND HAWKINS, D. F. (eds.) *Ecotourism: a guide for planners and managers*. Vermont: The Ecotourism Society.

WHITE, R. AND SMOKE, P. (2005) 'East Asia Decentralizes', in BANK, T. W. (ed.) *East Asia decentralizes : making local government work*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

WIERTSEMA, W. 1995. 'Paths to Sustainability', in GOLDSMITH, E., KHOR, M., NORBERG-HODGE, H. AND SHIVA, V. (eds.) *The Future of Progress: reflections on environment and development*. Dartington: Green Books in association with The International Society for Ecology and Culture.

WIGHT, P. (1993) 'Ecotourism: Ethics or Eco-Sell?', *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(3), pp. 3-9. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759303100301>.

WIGHT, P. (1996) 'North American Ecotourists: market profile and trip characteristics', *Journal of Travel Research*, 34, pp. 2-10.

WIGHT, P. A. (2002) 'Supporting the Principles of Sustainable Development in Tourism and Ecotourism: Government's Potential Role', *Current Issues in Tourism*, 5(3-4), pp. 222-244. doi: 10.1080/13683500208667920.

WILKINSON, S. (1999) 'Focus Groups: A Feminist Method', *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 23(2), pp. 221-244. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.1999.tb00355.x.

WILLIAMS, P. AND GILL, A. (1994) 'Tourism carrying capacity management issues', *Global tourism: The text decade*, pp. 174-187.

WILSON, J. AND MOORE, K. 2018. 'Performance on the Frontline of Tourist Decision Making', *Journal of Travel Research*, 57(3), pp. 370-383. doi: 10.1177/0047287517696982.

WONDIRAD, A., TOLKACH, D. AND KING, B. (2020) 'Stakeholder collaboration as a major factor for sustainable ecotourism development in developing countries', *Tourism Management*, 78, pp. 1-21. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.104024>.

WOOD, A. J. (2007) *Thailand Tourism 2007—Chic Optimism*. Available at: <https://www.htrends.com/trends-detail-sid-25701.html> (Accessed: 15 September 2021).

WOOD, M. E. (1991) 'Formulating the Ecotourism Society's Regional Action Plan', in KUSLER, J. E. (ed.) *Proceeding of the 1st International Symposium on Ecotourism*, Merida, Mexico. Ecotourism and Resource Conservation.

WOOD, M. (2002) *Ecotourism: principles, practices & policies for sustainability*. Division of Technology, Industry and Economics. International Ecotourism Society: UNEP.

WOODFORD, M. H., BUTYNSKI, T. M. AND KARESH, W. B. (2002) 'Habituating the great apes: the disease risks', *Oryx*, 36(2), pp. 153–160. doi: 10.1017/S0030605302000224.

WORLDBANK (2020) *Enabling Ecotourism Development in Cambodia*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

WTTC (2004) *Tourism Satellite Accounting 2004: Executive Summary*. Available at: <http://www.wttc.org/2004tsa/PDF/Executive520Summary.pdf> (Accessed: 16 April 2008).

WTTC (2019) *Economic Impact Report*. Available at: <https://wttc.org/Research/Economic-Impact> (Accessed: 24 September 2020).

WTTC (2021) *Global Economic Impact & Trends 2021*. Available at: <https://wttc.org/Portals/0/Documents/Reports/2021/Global%20Economic%20Impact%20and%20Trends%202021.pdf> (Accessed: 19 August 2021).

WTTERC (1993) *World Travel and Tourism Environmental Review 1993*. Oxford: WTTERC.

WUNDER, S. (2000) 'Ecotourism and economic incentives — an empirical approach', *Ecological Economics*, 32(3), pp. 465-479. doi: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009\(99\)00119-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(99)00119-6).

WWFNM (1996) *National Ecotourism Plan, Part2 – Ecotourism Potential: Site listings*. Malaysia: The Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism.

YIN, R. K. (2009) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. London, UK: SAGE.

YOGI, H. N. (2010) *Eco-tourism and Sustainability – Opportunities and Challenges in the Case of Nepal*. Sweden: University of Uppsala.

YOUNG, R. A. AND COLLIN, A. (2004) 'Introduction: Constructivism and social constructionism in the career field', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64(3), pp. 373-388. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2003.12.005>.

ZACARIAS, D. AND LOYOLA, R. (2017) 'How Ecotourism Affects Human Communities' in BLUMSTEIN, D., GEFFROY, B., SAMIA, D., AND BESSA, E. (eds.) *Ecotourism's Promise and Peril*. Springer: Cham. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-58331-0_9

ZEPPEL, H. (2006) *Indigenous ecotourism: Sustainable development and management*. Wallingford, CABI.

ZHANG, H. AND LEI, S. L. (2012) 'A structural model of residents' intention to participate in ecotourism: The case of a wetland community', *Tourism Management*, 33(4), pp. 916-925. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.09.012>.

ZHANG, R., WANG, J. AND BROWN, S. (2021) 'The Charm of a Thousand Years: exploring tourists' perspectives of the 'culture-nature value' of the Humble Administrator's Garden, Suzhou, China' *Landscape Research*, 46(8), pp. 1071-1088. doi: 10.1080/01426397.2021.1940904.

ZHANG, X. (2021) 'Impact of rural tourism on residents' well-being in traditional ancient villages: a case of North Guangxi', *Heritage Science*, 9(1), pp.138-146 doi: 10.1186/s40494-021-00616-y.

ZHANG, Y., QU, H. AND TAVITIYAMAN, P. (2009) 'The Determinants of the Travel Demand on International Tourist Arrivals to Thailand', *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(1), pp. 77-92. doi: 10.1080/10941660902728080.

ZHANG, Y. L., ZHANG, J., ZHANG, H. O., ZHANG, R. Y., WANG, Y., GUO, Y. R. AND WEI, Z. C. (2017) 'Residents' environmental conservation behaviour in the mountain tourism destinations in China: Case studies of Jiuzhaigou and Mount Qingcheng', *Journal of Mountain Science*, 14(12), pp. 2555-2567.

ZHANG, Z. AND ZHANG, Y. (2020) 'Impact of Ecotourism on Wildlife in Nature Reserves', *Revista Científica de la Facultad de Ciencias Veterinarias*, 30(1), p. 312.

ZHAO, X. (2022) 'Research on the Integration and Development of Ecotourism Industry and Sports Health Industry under the Background of Rural Revitalization Strategy', *Journal of healthcare engineering*, pp. 1-5. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/3343297>.

ZIFFER, K. A. (1989) *Ecotourism: The Uneasy Alliance*. Washington DC: Conservation International.

ZIOLKOWSKI, H. (1990) 'Ecotourism: Loving Nature on Its Own Terms', *Calypso Log*, 17(3), pp. 16-19.

ZZANGPEN, (2009) *Global fair & festival 2009 Incheon*. Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KECt__BDOqk (Accessed: 10 December 2009)