Agriculture, Industry and Tourism

Agriculture, or farming, is a primary industry. Farmers cultivate crops and rear animals to produce food and other products. Agriculture is affected by many of the same factors and concerns as other types of industry.

There are a range of agricultural operations from large commercial farms to small subsistence farms. All of these farms work to supply the constant demand for agricultural produce.

Primary industry

Primary industries are those that make use of the Earth's natural resources - farming, fishing, forestry and mining.

Farming systems

Like any other industry, farming is a system of inputs, processes and outputs.



Sheep farmer

- Inputs will be physical (land, sun, rain), human (labour) and capital (money for livestock and feed, seeds, equipment, wages).
- Processes are the activities on the farm that turn inputs into outputs. For example, feeding and caring for the animals or planting and tending to the crops.
- Outputs are products farmers sell at market or use to feed and clothe their families. Barley, hops, wheat, hay and straw are products from crops and meat, wool, leather and cheese are products from animals.
- In an sheep farm, for example, the inputs will include the sun and water required by the grass, the purchase of breeding stock and the farmer's labour. The processes will include herding and caring for the sheep and lambs. Finally, the outputs will include wool and meat.

If a farm is to make a profit, the revenue from selling outputs must be greater than the cost of the inputs.

Farming



Farms can be categorised according to **what** is being grown or reared, the **size** of the operation and the **agricultural techniques** being used.

Farming can be:

- ✓ sedentary or nomadic
- ✓ subsistence or commercial
- ✓ arable, pastoral or mixed
- ✓ extensive or intensive

Sedentary or nomadic?

- ✓ Sedentary farming is when a farm is based in the **same location** all the time.
- ✓ Nomadic farming is when a farmer **moves** from one place to another.

Subsistence or commercial?

- ✓ Subsistence farming is when crops and animals are produced by a farmer to feed their family, rather than to take to market.
- ✓ Commercial farming is when crops and animals are produced to **sell** at market for a profit.

Arable, pastoral or mixed?

- ✓ Arable farms grow crops. Crops are plants that are harvested from the ground to be eaten or sold.
- ✓ Pastoral farms rear **animals** either for animal by-products such as milk, eggs or wool, or for meat.
- ✓ Mixed farms grow crops **and** rear animals.

Extensive or intensive?

- Extensive farming is where a relatively small amount of produce is generated from a large area of farmland. Inputs will be low with either poor quality land or few workers.
- Intensive farming is where a large amount of produce is generated from a relatively small area of land. Inputs will be high to achieve a high yield per hectare. Inputs could be either fertilisers, machines or labour.

Factors affecting farming

Physical factors



Like other primary industries, farming is highly dependent on physical inputs such as:

- ✓ Weather and climate
- ✓ Slope or relief of the land
- ✓ Soil fertility

✓ Water and drainage

These inputs are **naturally occurring**, so farmers must work with the physical factors of their farm's location. They can **intervene** in these inputs - for example by growing crops in a polytunnel (plastic tunnel greenhouse) to protect them from frosts and improve plant growth. However, such human interventions require extra inputs in the form of **money** or **work**.

Human factors



A market garden

Like physical factors, these vary according to the type of farm and the country where the farm is located. Factors include:

- ✓ **Government policy** eg EU subsidies and loans and US tax reductions.
- Labour some farms require more labour than others, eg a market garden will employ more labourers than a hill sheep farm.
- Finance money is needed for wages, seed, buildings, animal feed, fertilisers, pesticides and machinery.

Distribution of farming in the UK



Map showing distribution of farming in UK

Physical factors will determine which **type** of farming takes place in a particular **area**. **Climate** and **relief** are the dominant factors in determining which crops will grow and which animals are suited to the landscape.

Arable farming

Arable farming is common in the south-east where the summers are warm and the land is low, flat and fertile. The south-east also has good transport links and farms are close to markets in towns and cities such as London.

Market gardening

Human factors such as finance and proximity to markets are important to market gardening. It is common in East Anglia where fruit, vegetables and flowers are grown.

Hill sheep farming

Hill sheep farming takes place in the north and west of Britain in highland areas such as Snowdonia and the Lake District. There are cool summers and high rainfall. The climate and steep land make these areas unsuitable for growing crops.

Dairy farming

Dairy farming is common in the south-west and the west of England where the climate is warm and wet. There are also good transport links and good access routes to markets in these areas. The land may be flat or hilly, but not too steep.

Mixed farming

Mixed farming is found in areas where the climate and relief suit both crops and animals. It needs to be warm, but not too wet, and the soils need to be fertile and flat. Mixed farms need good transport links and accessibility to markets.

Farming is an industrial process which requires inputs (such as labour, machinery, climate and soil) in order to produce outputs (crops and animal products).

The factors affecting farms can vary because different types of farm need different inputs and produce different outputs. Here we analyse three methods of farming.

Extensive commercial farming in the UK

Arable farming in East Anglia



An arable farm

Inputs

- ✓ Warm climate with low rainfall, which mainly falls during the summer
- ✓ Warm summers help to ripen grain

Outputs

✓ Cereals such as wheat and barley, potatoes and sugar beet

Factors

- ✓ Flat land which allows the use of machinery
- ✓ Well-drained fertile soils
- ✓ Good transport links with large markets nearby

Issues

- ✓ Soil erosion, due to hedgerow removal, means that the soil needs careful management.
- ✓ Competition from cheap imports of cereals means that profits are declining farmers need to diversify in order to survive.

Intensive farming

Intensive commercial farming in Denmark



Danish pig farm

Inputs

✓ Fertiliser, seeds and animals for breeding.

Outputs

- ✓ Cereals, sugar beet, dairy products and bacon.
- ✓ Danish bacon is imported to the UK and is often cheaper than UK bacon, pricing UK farmers out of the market.

Factors

- ✓ Large fields with no hedgerows.
- ✓ Climate conducive to cereal growing.
- ✓ Farming is gradually becoming less labour intensive with increased mechanisation.

Issues

- ✓ Farmers are vulnerable to price fluctuations as there is a surplus of milk produced in the EU.
- ✓ These 'milk lakes' lower the price a farmer receives for every litre of milk produced.

Intensive subsistence farming

Rice growing in South East Asia



Rice being grown in SE Asia

Inputs

- ✓ Many workers.
- ✓ Flat land (or sometimes steep terraced hillsides).
- ✓ Hot and wet monsoon climate.
- ✓ Limited amounts of fertiliser and pesticide.

Output

- ✓ Rice (and possibly other crops such as maize).
- ✓ Some farmers keep animals such as chickens to supplement their diet.
- ✓ Very little, if any, will be left over to sell and most will feed the farmer and his family.

Factors

- ✓ Rice growing is labour intensive and heavily dependent on high rainfall and hot temperatures.
- ✓ The growing population means there is a high demand for food which puts pressure on the farmer to produce two or even three crops a year.

Issues

- ✓ Crops can be affected by disease, which can reduce yields.
- ✓ Children are often denied basic education because they are required to work on the farms. This has a long-term impact on the development of the country.
- ✓ Without enough rain the rice crop fails and there is a lack of food. This can lead to starvation in remote communities.

Soil erosion and salinisation

Soil erosion

This is a problem in parts of the UK that are very flat, such as East Anglia. When the soil is left bare after ploughing, the wind can pick up speed due to the flat land and **blow away** the unprotected soil.

In addition, **hedgerows** have been removed from farmland to allow machinery to be used more easily and farm the land more intensively. Hedgerows help to hold the soil together and act as valuable windbreaks.

Consequences of soil erosion in MEDCs

The effects of drought in Africa

- ✓ If the topsoil (the most productive layer of the soil) is removed, then crop yields can decline.
- Loss of biodiversity (a diverse range of wildlife) in rivers – fish species find it difficult to breed because they lay their eggs in the gravel at the bottom of rivers and deposition of sediment smothers the gravel. Eggs that are smothered in sediment do not receive sufficient oxygen to survive.



- ✓ Roads and footpaths can become slippery, causing a hazard to walkers, motorists and cyclists.
- ✓ Drains can become blocked with eroded soil causing localised flooding.
- ✓ Sediment can find its way into water storage reservoirs, reducing storage capacity for water supplies and increasing flood risks.
- Phosphates (chemicals from fertilisers) in the soil can cause excessive algal growth in rivers, lakes and reservoirs. If the sediment finds its way to an estuary or is dredged and dumped out at sea it can also cause algal growth in marine water. Algal growth causes damage to ecosystems and can be toxic.
- ✓ Water quality can be reduced it may require treatment before it becomes fit for human consumption.
- ✓ The navigability of water courses can be reduced because of deposition of sediment.
- ✓ Soil erosion is also a problem in *LEDCs*.
- ✓ The soil is exposed and vulnerable to erosion as a result of the removal of vegetation and overgrazing.
- ✓ Trees, which provide protection from the wind and rain, are removed to be used as **fuel**.
- ✓ Nomadic tribes have become more sedentary, which puts pressure on the land where they settle.
- ✓ When soil is blown away the land becomes useless for grazing and crops and causes desertification. This is a problem in the Sahel region of Africa.

Appropriate technology

This means technology that is **simple**, **cheap** and **suitable** for use by local people. Typically the technology is also **sustainable** and often **involves local people** in the manufacture, therefore creating jobs and providing valuable skills for future development. Examples of appropriate technology include using **boreholes** for water, using **wind power** to pump the water and using renewable energy such as solar power. An example of innappropriate technology would include using fossil fuels, which pollute the atmosphere and are a non renewable energy source.

The construction of stone lines

This solution to soil erosion involves the local community building low stone walls along the contours in the land. This has been done in parts of Burkina Faso. The stones trap both soil and water, which increases yields and prevents soil erosion. It is cheap and sustainable and gives the local community a sense of ownership of the project.

Crossbreeding

In the 1960s plans were made to increase crop yields in LEDCs by introducing new hybrid strains of plants with **higher yields**. These plans became known as 'The Green Revolution'.

Ultimately, it was not a success as the crops concerned needed lots of **expensive fertilisers and pesticides** and farmers' profits fell. However, by crossbreeding traditional and new varieties of crops, there has been some success in improving the yields of rice and millet.

Industry

All industries can be thought of as a system of inputs, processes, outputs and feedback.

Industry as a system



System diagram for industrial activity

- 1. **Inputs** are the things that go into the system. The main three inputs are:
 - Physical inputs. These include sun, soil and water in *primary industries* and raw materials such as cotton, metal or oil in *secondary industries*.
 - ✓ **Labour** either skilled or unskilled.
 - Capital. This is the money invested in the business to pay for raw materials, staff, machinery and the buildings used for production and storage.
- 2. **Processes** are all the things that happen to those inputs to help turn them into outputs. These include:
 - ✓ Production for example the manufacturing of cars, or the sewing of textiles.
 - ✓ **Factory maintenance**, which is necessary to keep machines in working order.
 - Packaging which protects products during transit and presents them in a way that makes customers want to buy them.
 - Transport, which is needed to move products from the factory to the warehouse and then on to the shops.
- 3. **Outputs** are the finished products, together with profits and wages.
- 4. **Feedback** includes anything that refines or improves the system, such as:
 - Customer feedback. Companies find out what consumers think of their products through *market research*. They may alter or adapt their range according to feedback to sell more products and maximise profits.
 - A profit is the money left over after inputs (staff wages, raw materials, machinery and buildings) have been paid for. Profits need to be high enough to make it worthwhile for the company to continue investing in making the product. If profits fall too low, the company will need to change the inputs, process or outputs to improve profit or diversify into other products. If they do not they will go bust!

Classification of industry

Secondary industry

Factory

Secondary industries are those which take the *raw materials* produced by the primary sector and process them into *manufactured* goods and products.

Examples of secondary industries include **heavy manufacturing**, **light manufacturing**, food processing, oil refining and energy production.



Tertiary and quaternary industry

The **tertiary** sector is also called the service sector and involves the selling of services and skills. They can also involve selling goods and products from primary and secondary industries. Examples of tertiary employment include the health service, transportation, education, entertainment, tourism, finance, sales and **retail**.

The biggest area of expansion in the tertiary sector in the UK has been in financial and business services. According to government statistics, 25 years ago one in ten people worked in this industry, now it is one in five.

The **quaternary** sector consists of those industries providing information services, such as computing, ICT (information and communication technologies), consultancy (offering advice to businesses) and R&D (research, particularly in scientific fields).

The quaternary sector is sometimes included with the tertiary sector, as they are both service sectors. The tertiary and quaternary sectors make up the largest part of the UK economy, employing 76% of the workforce.

Comparing employment structures

The employment structure of a country shows how the labour force is divided between the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. Different countries have different employment structures. The employment structure of a given country can tell you quite a lot about that country's economy.

In the richest countries, for example, there will usually be more people working in the tertiary/quaternary sector than in the primary and secondary sectors. In the poorest countries, there tend to be more people working in the primary sector than in either the secondary or tertiary sectors.

Look at the diagram below. Based on the employment structure, which countries do you think are the richest and poorest?



In the richest country (USA), most people work in the tertiary sector. In the poorest country (Nepal), most people work in the primary sector. In Brazil, the labour force is more evenly distributed between the three sectors.

Note that the quaternary sector has been included in the tertiary sector.

Industrial location factors

Different industries require different *inputs*. Industries are more likely to locate where these inputs are readily and cheaply available. Factors that influence where an industry locates include:

- ✓ Power supply
- ✓ **Communications** including transport, telecommunications.
- ✓ **Labour supply** including workers with the right skills.
- ✓ Access to market where the goods are sold.
- ✓ Grants and financial incentives usually from governments.
- Raw materials

Agglomeration and footloose industries

These are two 'special cases' of industrial location.

Agglomeration is when a number of producers in the same or related industries group themselves together. They do this to benefit from local skill pools, economies of scale or the prowess of a locality in a particular field. An example is the large number of financial services companies (eg banks and insurance companies) which are headquartered in the City of London.

Footloose industries are those that are less dependent on factors that tie them to a specific geographical location. Unlike manufacturing industries, tertiary or services companies do not have to be near a source of raw materials. As long as they have suitable transport, energy and communications links, they can locate themselves virtually anywhere in the world. Examples of footloose industries are computer software development, telephone sales and call-centres.

The Ruhr is a heavily industrialised area of western Germany named after the river that flows through the region. It is the centre of Germany's manufacturing industry and includes the cities of Essen and Dortmund.

Heavy industry in the Ruhr – A case study

Background



Heavy industry in Germany

- Natural resources such as coal, iron ore and limestone enabled the iron and steel industry to develop in the Ruhr. The chemical and textile industries also grew due to good transport links and available workforce.
- ✓ Canals and rivers such as the Rhine were used for transport and power.
- \checkmark The area developed industrially in the 1930s and 1940s to supply arms for Germany.
- ✓ Up until the 1970s the factories and associated services were an important source of employment for people in the region.

Problems and Issues

- ✓ The decline in the Ruhr's importance as a heavy industrial area has caused job losses in steelworks and coal mines. Many people have left the area, eg cities such as Dortmund, due to economic and associated social problems. The environmental legacy of the heavy industry in the area includes waste tips from coal mining, air and water pollution.
- ✓ Many of the original raw materials are exhausted, there are high labour costs and old, outdated machinery. This has led to cheaper steel being imported from south east Asia where labour costs are lower. This is one of the drawbacks of globalisation for MEDC industry.
- ✓ Many of the problems and changes in the Ruhr have also been experienced in other industrial regions in the EU such as South Wales.

The Ruhr today

- ✓ There is still a large workforce living in the area that have had to learn new skills as industries have changed.
- ✓ New industries, eg electronics, are moving in to replace the traditional heavy industries.
- Much of the derelict land has been improved to provide a more pleasant living and working environment.
- ✓ The Ruhr has good access to much of the EU is once again an attractive location for industry.

Footloose industry in the UK – A case study

Footloose industries are not tied to a particular location. They include high-tech industries and are located near motorway junctions or on the edges of towns and cities in business parks. The products are often electronics and computer components. Examples include Silicon Glen in Scotland and the M4



corridor. Some of the benefits of locating an industry in the M4 corridor are shown in the

Inputs and Outputs

- The M4 corridor stretches from Heathrow airport in the east to Bath and Bristol in the west. The corridor is home to companies such as Hewlett Packard and Sony who are involved in research and development (quaternary industry) and have links with universities who provide well-qualified graduates.
- ✓ Few raw materials are used and therefore transport costs are low, making the industries 'footloose'.

Advantages

- Land on the edge of cities is often cheaper than in the centre. The out of town surroundings and easy access to workers in the suburbs provides an ideal location for building science and business parks.
- Motorway links and railways also provide access for commuters and for transporting components and products.

Disadvantages

- ✓ Workers wanting to live near their place of work increases the demand for housing and puts pressure on green belt land.
- ✓ As demand grows, house prices increase. This means that less skilled and lower paid workers are priced out of the market in desirable areas.

We now communicate, travel and share each other's cultures on a world scale.

We also trade more than ever before, transporting products around the world in hours or days. The biggest companies are no longer national firms but multinational corporations or transnational corporations (TNCs) with subsidiaries in many countries.

This process is called globalisation.

What is globalisation?

Globalisation is the process by which the world is becoming increasingly interconnected as a result of massively increased trade and cultural exchange.

Globalisation has been taking place for hundreds of years, but has speeded up enormously over the last half-century.

Factors influencing globalisation include:

- Communications. TV, telephony and the internet have allowed information and ideas to travel quickly. UK businesses can have a call centre in India answering calls from UK customers.
- Transport has become cheap and quick. UK people now holiday all over the world. People from other countries can travel to the UK to seek better-paid jobs. Businesses can ship products and raw materials all over the world more easily making products and services from all over the globe available to UK customers.
- Trade liberalisation. Laws restricting trade and foreign investment have been relaxed. Some governments even offer grants and tax incentives to persuade foreign companies to invest in their country. The idea that there should be no restrictions on trade between countries is known as free trade.

Although globalisation is probably helping to create more wealth in developing countries - it is **not** helping to close the gap between the world's poorest countries and the world's richest.

Transnational corporations (TNCs)

Globalisation has resulted in many businesses setting up or buying operations in other countries. When a foreign company invests in a country, perhaps by building a factory or a shop, this is called **inward investment**. Companies that operate in several countries are called multinational corporations (MNCs) or transnational corporations (TNCs). The US fast food chain **McDonald's** is a large MNC. It has nearly 30,000 restaurants in 119 countries.

The majority of TNCs come from *MEDCs* such as the US and UK. Many multinational corporations invest in other MEDCs. The US car company Ford, for example, makes large numbers of cars in the UK. However, TNCs also invest in *LEDCs* - for example, the British DIY store B&Q now has stores in China.

Factors attracting TNCs to a country may include:

✓ Cheap raw materials.

- ✓ Cheap labour supply.
- ✓ Good transport.
- ✓ Access to markets where the goods are sold.
- ✓ Friendly government policies.

Positive impacts of globalisation

Globalisation is having a dramatic effect - for good or ill - on world economies and on people's lives.

Some of the **positive impacts** are:

- ✓ **Inward investment** by TNCs helps countries by providing new **jobs** and skills for local people.
- TNCs bring wealth and foreign currency to local economies when they buy local resources, products and services. The extra money created by this investment can be spent on education, health and infrastructure.
- ✓ The sharing of ideas, experiences and lifestyles of people and cultures. People can experience foods and other products not previously available in their countries.
- ✓ Globalisation increases awareness of events in far-away parts of the world. For example, the
 UK was quickly made aware of the 2004 tsunami tidal wave and sent help rapidly in response.
- ✓ Globalisation may help to make people more aware of global issues such as *deforestation* and *global warming* and alert them to the need for *sustainable* development.

Negative impacts of globalisation

Critics include groups such as *environmentalists*, anti-poverty campaigners and *trade unionists*. Some of the **negative impacts** include:



Protestors in London

- ✓ Globalisation operates mostly in the interests of the richest countries, which continue to dominate world trade at the expense of developing countries. The role of LEDCs in the world market is mostly to provide the North and West with cheap labour and raw materials.
- There are no guarantees that the wealth from inward investment will benefit the local community. Often, profits are sent back to the MEDC where the TNC is based. Transnational companies, with their massive *economies of scale*, may drive local companies out of business. If it becomes cheaper to operate in another country, the TNC might close down the factory and make local people redundant.
- ✓ An absence of strictly enforced international laws means that TNCs may operate in LEDCs in a way that would not be allowed in an MEDC. They may pollute the environment, run risks with safety or impose poor working conditions and low wages on local workers.
- ✓ Globalisation is viewed by many as a threat to the world's cultural diversity. It is feared it might drown out local economies, traditions and languages and simply re-cast the whole world in the mould of the capitalist North and West. An example of this is that a Hollywood film is far more

likely to be successful worldwide than one made in India or China, which also have thriving film industries.

✓ Industry may begin to thrive in LEDCs at the expense of jobs in manufacturing in the UK and other MEDCs, especially in textiles.

Anti-globalisation campaigners sometimes try to draw people's attention to these points by demonstrating against the **World Trade Organisation**. The World Trade Organisation is an intergovernment organisation that promotes the free-flow of trade around the world.

Industrial pollution

Any large-scale economic activity may have a negative impact on the natural environment. Manufacturing industries in particular can cause air, water and noise *pollution*. Industrial pollution can affect the environment in a number of ways:



Air pollution in Shanghai

- ✓ It may damage the well-being of humans and other species for example, it can pollute drinking-water supplies or poison plants and animals.
- ✓ It may interfere with natural processes for example, it could change local climatic conditions or destroy wildlife habitats.
- ✓ It may impact on people's livelihoods for example, pollution of the sea will hurt people who are involved in fishing and tourism.
- Some governments have introduced legislation to try to cut down on avoidable pollution and to encourage industries that are more *sustainable*. These laws need to be enforced by courts.

The Exxon oil spill



A dead seabird

A recent example of courts taking action against a company for causing pollution was in 2004 when a US court ordered the oil company **Exxon** to pay £2.5bn for an oil spill in 1989.

The oil tanker **Exxon Valdez** ran aground while off course. It spilled 11 million gallons of crude oil contaminating over 1,300 miles of the coast of Alaska. It is estimated that the spill killed as many as 250,000 seabirds, 3,000 sea otters, 300 seals and 22 killer whales.

The court wanted Exxon to pay to help compensate those people in Alaska whose livelihoods were hurt the worst. The £2.5bn pay out is the latest ruling in a long-

<u>Tourism</u>

Tourism is an important contributor to many countries' economies but it can have negative impacts unless it is properly managed, and the conflicting needs of interest groups are balanced. LEDCs in particular can become dependent on tourism, which is dangerous if the tourists suddenly stop coming.

Human and physical resources



The National Gallery in London

The human and physical resources found in a particular place often influence tourism to a particular destination. **Human resources** are tourist attractions that have been made by people, such as the Eiffel Tower in France. **Physical resources** are the attractions that have been made by nature such as beaches or lakes.



Walkers in the Lake District

- According to a recent survey of British people travelling within the UK, the activity that people like to do the most while on holiday is **walking.** Walking allows people to enjoy the physical resources of the countryside such as hills, rivers and lakes.
- ✓ The second most popular activity was visiting **heritage sites**. This includes historical buildings and sites of historic significance. These are human resources.
- ✓ The third most popular activity was **swimming.** People like to swim at the beach or in lakes (physical resources) or swimming pools (human resources).
- ✓ Other popular activities were visiting art exhibitions, watching performing arts and visiting theme parks (all human resources).

Human resources



The Eiffel Tower, Paris

Man-made tourist attractions include:

- ✓ Art
- ✓ Architecture
- ✓ Cultural monuments
- ✓ Museums
- ✓ Local traditions
- ✓ Food and drink
- ✓ Music and drama
- ✓ Important historical or political sites.

The **Eiffel Tower in Paris** is an example of a **cultural monument** and a place of architectural interest. As well as admiring it from ground level, tourists can go to the top and see a great view of Paris, with the River Seine (physical resource) and many beautiful buildings (human resources).



Guard Tower at Robben Island

Robben Island in South Africa is an example of a **historical** or political site. Many people who visit South Africa go to Robben Island to see where *Nelson Mandela* spent most of his 27 years in prison. People are interested because Nelson Mandela's struggle and sacrifice helped end *Apartheid* in South Africa.

The table below shows that tourists in the UK are attracted to many different types of man-made tourist attractions.



Graph showing top 10 tourist attractions in the UK

Physical resources



Beach on Rawa Island, Malaysia

'Physical resources' are the natural features of an area which might attract tourists. They include:

- ✓ The physical relief of the landscape, such as beaches, mountains, rivers, lakes and glaciers.
- ✓ Ecosystems such as rainforest or tropical grasslands.
- ✓ Weather and climate most tourists seem to like it warm and dry!

Tourism in an MEDC: National Parks

The UK's National Parks include some of the country's most beautiful natural landscapes, including coasts, mountains and forests. In 1949, the **National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act** was passed in order to protect the UK's areas of natural beauty and ensure that everyone could enjoy them today and in the future.

There are currently 12 national parks across England and Wales, including Dartmoor, the New Forest, the Lake District, the Peak District, the Yorkshire Dales and Snowdonia.

Lake District National Park



Grasmere in the Lake District

The Lake District National Park was created in 1951. Covering 880 square miles, it is the UK's largest national park and receives 12 million visitors a year. People come to the Lake District for many reasons, including hill walking, rock-climbing, mountain-biking, fishing and boating. They also come to visit historical buildings, or just to enjoy the beautiful lakes and mountains.

Balancing different interests

The park is managed by the **National Parks Authority (NPA)**, which attempts to balance the conflicting priorities of different park users. For example:

- The protection of the park's environment, wildlife and natural features things that can be harmed by excessive tourism. This is not only the Authority's job, but is also powerfully lobbied for by conservation and wildlife groups.
- ✓ Tourists who come to enjoy the park need roads, parking, accommodation, shops and restaurants which are not necessarily going to be good for the countryside.
- ✓ Local businesses may want to encourage more and more visitors.
- ✓ Farmers, who may be concerned about damage to fences and livestock by walkers and their dogs.
- ✓ Local residents, who may be worried about congestion, littering, noise pollution and the erosion of footpaths.

If these different interests are not carefully balanced, the result could be damage to the environment, local people becoming upset or even hostile, and tourists being put off visiting the park. **Case study:** sustainability in a national park

Here are some of the measures that have been adopted to help maintain the Lake District for future generations.



The Lake District

- The National Trust and other conservation groups have undertaken footpath maintenance.
 Some paths have been rebuilt or access restricted to reduce the effects on paths and vegetation.
- Public transport has been improved and subsidised, for example the 'Langdale Rambler' bus service. Visitors are encouraged to use the buses instead of bringing their cars into the national park.
- Restricted parking zones have been set up in some villages, for example in Elterwater. The car park on the edge of the village has been expanded and parking on grass verges and near houses has been restricted.
- Raising awareness of conservation issues for visitors with posters and leaflets at tourist information and visitor centres.
- A 10mph speed limit was introduced on Windermere in March 2005. The lake had become congested with powerboats and water skiers and noise from the speedboats was spoiling the lake for other users such as swimmers and canoeists. There was also concern that the wake from powerboats has caused shore erosion and that boats had contributed to pollution and the disappearance of reed beds in the lake. Conservationists welcomed the new speed limit, but speedboat owners, water-skiers, and boat companies around the lake objected to the change. Businesses have been affected and boat users have had to find alternative lakes.

Tourism in an LEDC: advantages and disadvantages



A beach in Bali, Indonesia

- ✓ Tourism in an *LEDC* can have different problems associated with it. Governments in LEDCs often see tourism as a vital source of income, which can be used for development.
- Countries rich in **physical resources** such as warm climates, beautiful beaches, rare ecosystems, and abundant plant and animal life are often sought-after holiday destinations by people from *MEDCs*. Tour operators and developers invest in these locations in the hope that they will become as popular as European resorts.

Tourism: pros and cons

Places such as **Kenya** in East Africa, where tourists go on safari, or **Bali** in Indonesia, which people visit for the beautiful beaches, all benefit financially from tourism. However, tourism in LEDCs needs to be carefully managed to prevent harm to the environment and local communities.

The effects of tourism on LEDC's:

Advantages	Problems
Foreign currency spent by tourists can be invested in improving local education, health and other services.	Profits go to foreign companies, such as tour operators and hotel chains, rather than to the local community.
Jobs for local people are created and people can learn new skills in tourism services.	Foreign companies may bring foreign workers to do the skilled jobs; so local people only do low skilled, poorly paid work.
Construction creates jobs and develops skills for local people.	House prices rise when foreign companies and investors buy property for hotels and holiday homes. This often makes houses too expensive for locals.
Local infrastructure is improved as water and sanitation facilities, roads, buses, taxis and airports are provided for tourists.	Important projects for local communities might be sidelined as infrastructure developments are focused on tourists.
Visitors get an insight into local customs and traditions.	If the aim of activities is to entertain, rather than educate tourists, this may belittle the local people.
Tourists see beautiful landscapes, wildlife and plants. They can also be educated about the dangers to fragile ecosystems in the modern world.	Pollution and disruption to wildlife habitats could occur if tourism isn't sustainable.

Ecotourism

Ecotourism is a type of sustainable development. The aim of **ecotourism** is to reduce the impact that tourism has on naturally beautiful environments.



Jungle hut in Ko Pha Ngan, Thailand

Any tourist destination can be harmed by increased tourism. If areas are damaged or destroyed, they will not be available to future generations

The ecotourism approach includes:

- ✓ Ensuring that tourism does not exploit the natural environment or local communities.
- ✓ Consultation with local communities on planned developments.
- ✓ Making sure that infrastructure improvements benefit local people and not just tourists.

Ecotourism now has the backing of the *United Nations*, which made 2002 the "International Year of Ecotourism".

Guidelines for ecotourists

Ecotourism sets out guidelines for how tourists should behave when visiting fragile environments. These include:

- ✓ Protect the environment keep to footpaths, don't leave litter or start fires.
- ✓ Don't interfer with wildlife don't scare or feed the animals.
- ✓ Protect resources don't take too many showers or use air conditioning.
- Support local communities stay in locally owned accommodation and buy produce from local people.
- ✓ Eat local food and drink avoid products that have been imported from MEDCs.
- Respect local customs and traditions some communities are offended when tourists wear inappropriate clothes in religious places, strip off on the beach or behave in a rowdy manner. Locals appreciate tourists who try to learn the language and show an interest in their culture.
 Ecotourism is increasingly popular and many people appreciate remote locations, small numbers of tourists and less sophisticated facilities. If a resort becomes over-developed then they will choose

alternative destinations.

Case study: ecotourism at Uluru



Uluru / Ayers Rock in Australia

Uluru (formerly known as Ayers Rock) in Australia is one of the largest rocks (or monoliths) in the world. Until recently large numbers of tourists visited the rock and climbed it using a rope-and-pole path drilled into the side of the rock. As a result the rock was becoming eroded.



Tourists climbing Uluru

In 1985 the Australian government handed the land on which Uluru stands back to the Aboriginal inhabitants, the Anangu. The rock has spiritual significance for the Anangu and they do not climb it. The Anangu now ask tourists to respect the rock by not climbing it, and most tourists comply.