

# HERITAGE TOURISM AND THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT

By

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## ABSTRACT

The aims of this research are to examine and explore perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements; to explore the practice of heritage tourism management; and to examine the consequences of both for the sustainability of the heritage environment. The literature review explores the concepts of heritage management, the heritage production model, the tourist-historic city, and sustainability and the impact of tourism on the built environment. A theoretical framework is developed, through an examination of literature on environmental impacts, carrying capacity, sustainability, and heritage management; and a research framework is devised for investigating the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements, based around five objectives, or questions. The research methodology is explained. Fieldwork took place in Ludlow, Shropshire from 2006 to 2010. It included an analysis of the national and local planning policy framework; and the phenomenon of the small English heritage town, of which Ludlow is a prime example. Linked surveys were undertaken in Ludlow of visitors, business providers, and managers of heritage tourism.

The study establishes (a) that the concept of ‘perceived impacts’ of heritage tourism on the built environment is a stronger analytical and management tool than the concept of carrying capacity; and (b) that understanding stakeholders’ perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism provides empirical evidence that can contribute a new dimension to debates on the definition of ‘heritage’. It also (c) takes forward the typology of the built environmental impacts of tourism as developed by Hunter and Green, using empirical data to show what different stakeholders think about the relative importance of different aspects of heritage.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

AONB	Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty
DCMS	Department for Culture, Media and Sport
DCLG	Department for Communities and Local Government
DEFRA	Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs
DTLR	Department for Transport, Local Government and the Regions
EH	English Heritage
EHTF	English Historic Towns Forum (now Historic Towns Forum)
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ETB	English Tourist Board (now Visit England)
CEA	Cumulative Effects Assessment
CLG	Communities and Local Government
HTF	Historic Towns Forum
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
LAC	Limits of Acceptable Change
LDF	Local Development Framework
NHPP	The National Heritage Protection Plan
NNRs	National Nature Reserves
NMR	National Monument Report
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAF	Small Users Postcode Address File
PCC	Perceptual Carrying Capacity

PPS 4	Planning Policy Statement 4 - Planning for Sustainable Economic Growth (replaces Planning Policy Guidance 4)
PPS 5	Planning Policy Statement 5 - Planning for the Historic Environment (replaces Planning Policy Guidance 15)
RSS	Regional Spatial Strategies
SIA	Social Impact Assessment
SPI	Statement of Community Involvement
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Software)
SSSIs	Sites of Special Scientific Interest
SNPP	Statements of National Planning Policy
TIC	Tourist Information Centre
VIM	Visitor Impact Management
VERP	Visitor Experience and Resource Protection
WHC	World Heritage Committee
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WTO	World Trade Organisation
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

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## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 What is the research about?

There is much debate on the nature and scope of ‘heritage’ studies, and the concept of heritage is not easily defined. Larkham (1995:85) has suggested that heritage is simply ‘all things to all people’ and a cynical view might be that there are as many definitions of heritage as there are heritage practitioners. Many scholars have preferred to leave the definition as broad as possible, perhaps because, as shown by Harvey (2001), the *concept of heritage* has always developed and changed according to the contemporary societal context of transforming power relationships and emerging national, and other, identities, while the *products of heritage*, such as heritage development, heritage tourism and heritage management are easier to define than the concept of heritage itself.

Historic resources are often a matter of great pride to local communities. At the same time, they are seen as a benefit for any town or city wishing to grow or revitalise its local economy. In many cases, especially in the developed world, this has led to a commodification of the historic environment and its history, into a form of tourism product as explained in the heritage production model (Ashworth and Larkham, 1994). This commodity of ‘heritage tourism’ is used to attract visitors. The growing appreciation of heritage among tourists is reflected in the fact that heritage is one of the key attractions in Britain (Heritage Count 2011 England), as it is in most European countries. Heritage gives a big boost to the position of tourism as the fifth largest industry in the UK. The extent and variety of heritage resources attracts both domestic and international tourists.

Tourism brings diverse impacts: economic, physical and social; positive and negative. The historic built environment is often fragile and can be sensitive to negative impacts or threats, such as large visitor numbers and overcrowding, and the behaviour of users. This has been shown in a range of studies, covering heritage values (Carter and Bramley, 2002), heritage ownership (Swarbrooke, 2005), heritage users (Rojas and Camarero, 2008; Chen, and Chen, 2009; Prentice et al., 1996), heritage authenticity and identity (Lowenthal, 1984, 1992; Worsley, 2004; McLean, 2006; Gonzalez, 2008), heritage terminologies (Ahmad, 2006), dissonance heritage (Bruce and Creighton, 1996), heritage property value (Ashworth, 2002), heritage sustainability (Moscardo, 1996; Fyall and Garrod, 1998; Timothy and Boyd, 2003), heritage conservation (Harmon, 2007; Deacon, 2004; Wood, 1995) and heritage management (Markwell, et al., 1997; Hodges and Watson, 2000; Leask, et al., 2002 ; Holmes, 2003; Turpenny, 2004; Edson, 2004; McKercher, et al., 2005; Greffe, 2004; Poria, et al., 2005).

Inevitably, ‘heritage’ requires careful management of historic premises and their visitors; and of situations where these premises are located within a wider historic milieu which is shared by other economic activities and populations, including local residents and businesses. It is not surprising, therefore, that there is often a certain tension (a) between the commercial tourism sector and the parties that have responsibility for the protection of the physical and cultural heritage: and (b), according to Munsters (1996), between the needs of different categories of visitors: the cultural (‘up-market’) tourists, the educational groups such as school parties and students, and the recreational sightseers (‘day trippers’).

The main concern in this research is with the nature of, and the processes at work in, a situation described by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) as the ‘tourist-historic city’, with its

overlap between ‘heritage tourism’ and ‘urban heritage’, giving rise to the kind of tensions described above, and with important implications for the management of the heritage environment. Much of the extensive work on ‘environmental impacts of tourism’ has been focused mainly on the natural environment such as coasts, forests, mountains and rural areas (for example, Cohen, 1978; Romeril, 1989; Farrell and Runyan, 1991; Sun and Walsh, 1998; Madan and Rawat, 2000; Deng, 2003; Burak et al., 2004). By contrast, the study of the *impact of tourism on the built environment in historic towns* has not attracted similar research attention: and this thesis aims to make a contribution to redressing that imbalance. From the outset, it was clear that, given the limited resources available to an individual researcher, a case study approach should be adopted and after due consideration of possible alternatives, the town of Ludlow in Shropshire, close to the border between England and Wales, was chosen as the case study location.

A principal reason for the lack of previous research on the impact of tourism in more urban areas is the absence of a developed approach for empirical work on the tourist-historic city. For the present study, the only typology available on the impacts of tourism on the built environment was from the work of Hunter and Green (1995). Their typology was developed using the Delphi technique with a panel of experts. By contrast, the present research aims to examine, through the case study, the perceptions of key stakeholders on the built environmental impacts of tourism in an historic town. The ‘stakeholders’ represent both the demand and supply sides: namely, visitors, local businesses, and managers of tourism and related services in the public, private and voluntary sectors. Mixed research methods are used, including literature and secondary data analysis; quantitative and qualitative interviews; observation; and informal discussion with local residents.

Another focus of the study is on the sustainability of the historic environment and in particular on the nature and practice of heritage management and stakeholder collaboration in managing and sustaining the heritage town.

## 1.2 How the idea of the research started

The idea for this research grew out of the author's Master's dissertation which, in Georgetown, Penang, Malaysia examined the perceptions of local residents on tourist arrivals in the city (Suraiyati, 2002; 2006). At the time of the study in 2001, Melaka and Georgetown were contenders for designation as a UNESCO World Heritage Site 'Historic Cities of the Straits of Malacca', a status that was granted in 2008. Already a popular and growing tourist destination, it was expected that tourism numbers in Georgetown would continue to increase in future, resulting in a new agenda for a developing country, requiring expertise in the conservation and management of the heritage town, where many historic buildings and their surroundings dated from the time of British colonization.

The author was given the opportunity to study in the United Kingdom and was enthusiastic to use this experience to learn about the practice of heritage conservation, and tourism planning and management in historic towns in England. Following Nuryanti's (1996) discussion of the issues and challenges for third world countries in managing heritage, the author hoped her studies in the UK would be of eventual benefit to Malaysia in developing its heritage tourism.

Although much time was spent visiting and working in the case study town of Ludlow, many other visits were made, some connected with the research and others privately, to places of historic interest throughout the UK and other parts of Europe, including Granada, Spain, Rome and Venice, Italy and Istanbul, Turkey. These were profound learning experiences and gave exposure to the reality of the planning and management of heritage tourism in practice.

The UK is well known for its conservation and protection of heritage assets; and for its recognition of the importance of heritage tourism to the national and local economies. For the author, to experience this at first hand and to gain some in-depth knowledge of professional practice in the UK is a very beneficial outcome of this research.

### 1.3 Research Aims, Objectives and Strategy

The aims of the research are to examine and explore perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements; to explore the practice of heritage tourism management; and to examine the consequences of both for the sustainability of the heritage environment.

The objectives, which emerge from the literature review presented in Chapters 2 to 4, are:

1. To explore the nature of the built environmental impacts of urban heritage tourism and their typology.
2. To examine the perception of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements from the perspective of key participants, or stakeholders.

3. To examine how and why impacts may be perceived differently by tourists (demand side stakeholders) and business/service providers (supply side stakeholders).
4. To explore the role of appointed officials and others in managing/promoting heritage tourism.
5. To explore the implications of heritage tourism perceptions and management for the sustainability of the heritage environment.

The research strategy is presented diagrammatically in Figure 1.1, showing the five main stages of the work.

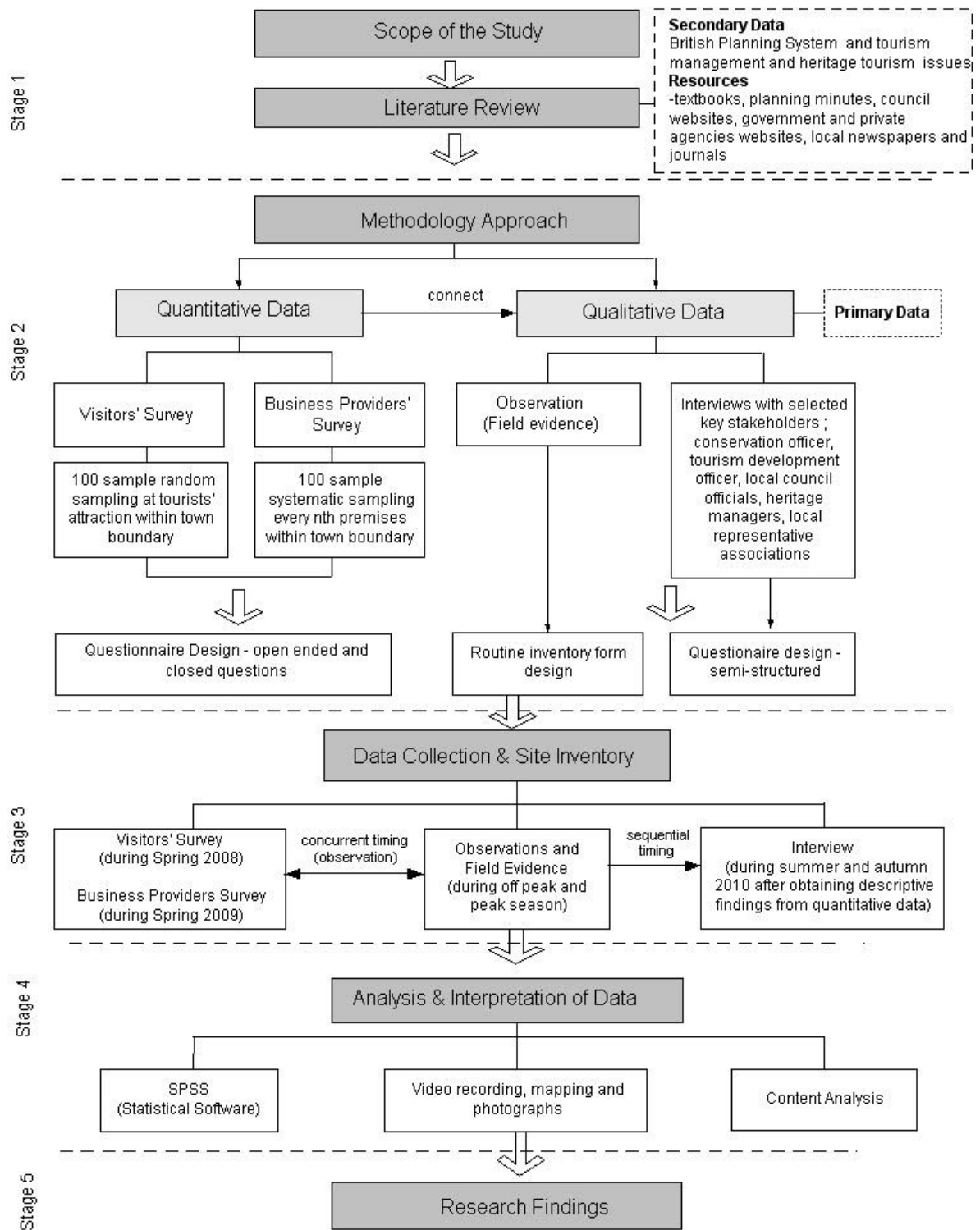


Figure 1.1: Flow chart of research strategy



## Stage 1: Literature Review

As part of the process of defining the scope of the study, the research began with an extensive literature review, drawing on a variety of secondary sources including textbooks, journals, magazines, local newspapers, government and private organisations' reports and websites. The aim was to become familiar with previous work and to keep up to date with all relevant material published during the research process. The main areas covered in the literature review were:

- i- The definition of heritage and heritage consumption;
- ii- The distinctive nature of heritage tourism;
- iii- Use and users of 'the heritage city';
- iv- The nature of historic towns;
- v- The chronology of British history (invasion and influences on the morphology of urban forms and functions);
- vi- Sustainable tourism: definition and approach;
- vii- Carrying capacity: terminology and approach;
- viii- Different forms of physical environmental impact;
- ix- Methods used by other researchers to assess physical environmental impact;
- x- Tourism policies and strategies, and the England and Wales planning system in relation to conservation.

Visits were made during this stage to a number of towns in Britain, in order to observe the historic environment and gain some understanding of its use and management. This stage of the work enabled the development of a theoretical framework for the study, which provided the basis for the research aims and objectives.

## Stage 2: Designing the Methodology

A methodology was needed to address the research aims and objectives. First, it was agreed that these should be pursued through a case study approach and the town of Ludlow was selected for this purpose. Second, it was decided, as mentioned previously, that a mix of research methods would be used, including both quantitative and qualitative surveys. Third, it was clear that the field work should be carried out in stages and a three-phase approach was adopted.

## Stage 3: Fieldwork

The first phase of the field work involved observation of resident, visitor and business activity in the case study town. In the second phase, two questionnaire surveys were carried out, one of visitors and one of business providers. The third phase was a series of qualitative interviews with a small number of key stakeholders in the town, referred to as the ‘managers of tourism and related services’. Phases one, two and three were carried out consecutively in the period 2008-10.

## Stage 4: Analysis and Interpretation

The questionnaire survey results (visitors and business providers) were analysed using SPSS to provide data for the tabulation and description of the survey findings. In a second stage, these data were further analysed by selecting potential test. The design of the qualitative

survey in phase three of the field work was informed by the analysis of data gathered in the two earlier phases.

## Stage 5: Findings

The final stage is to present and discuss the findings of the research. These are explained particularly in relation to the aims and objectives of the study.

## 1.4 The Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis has nine Chapters.

### The research context

The first three chapters set the context for the research and provide the theoretical background.

The present chapter (Chapter 1) introduces the study. Chapter 2 explores the concept of heritage management and examines the main theories such as the heritage production model and the tourist-historic city.

Chapter 3 looks at sustainability and the impact of tourism on the built environment. The concept of sustainable development is discussed. The definition of ‘environment’ and ‘impact’, and the methods of assessing environmental impacts are examined.

## Developing the theoretical framework, research aims and methodology

Chapter 4 develops the theoretical framework for the research, through a further examination of literature on environmental impacts, carrying capacity and sustainability, and heritage management. The implications of previous research for the present study are assessed, and issues for investigation are determined. This leads to the definition of research aims and objectives.

Chapter 5 explains and justifies the methodology adopted for examining the research aims and objectives, and shows how this will be done through the case study of Ludlow that forms the subject of the following three chapters.

## Research findings, discussion and conclusions

Chapter 6 sets the case study of Ludlow in context. It looks at the national and local planning policy framework; and at the phenomenon of the small English heritage town, of which Ludlow is a prime example. It also gives an introduction to the history of the town and its present-day character, which have helped to shape its attraction as a tourist destination.

Chapter 7 presents the findings of the first and second phases of the field work carried out in Ludlow for this research, namely (a) the ‘observation’ stage of the study and (b) the results of the questionnaire surveys of visitors (2008) and business providers (2009).

Chapter 8 presents the findings of the third phase of the field work: the interviews with the key stakeholders, referred to as the ‘managers of tourism and related services’. The organisation of the chapter reflects the themes emerging earlier in the research: heritage tourism and management; the built environmental impact of tourism; and sustainability. The chapter integrates information from the ‘managers’ survey with findings from the questionnaire surveys, and from secondary data including official documentation in reports and websites; and is the first step in beginning to draw conclusions from the research.

Chapter 9 summarises the whole study by drawing conclusions based on the key findings presented in the earlier chapters. It discusses these findings in relation to previous work, using as a framework the five research objectives developed from the literature review, which are presented in Chapter 4. In addition, the main achievements of the study and some recommendations for future research are addressed.

The Appendices contain the questionnaires for the visitors’ and business providers’ surveys and the topic guide(s) for the survey of managers of tourism and related service.

The research reported in the thesis was undertaken from January 2006 to February 2012 and the three surveys were carried out in 2008 (visitors), 2009 (business providers) and 2010 (managers).

## 2.0 THE CONCEPT OF HERITAGE MANAGEMENT

### 2.1 Introduction

The concept of heritage management appears ambiguous and the perceptions of it are varied, depending on the interests involved, for example, those of conservationists, heritage managers, visitors, the private sector, local communities and local authorities. This chapter will first explain the importance, the concept and the definition of heritage; and the heritage production model. Second, the concept of the ‘tourist-historic’ city will be examined with reference to its setting (a city), its heritage resources and associated activity (tourism). This leads to a discussion on the concepts of heritage management, heritage values, and the ownership of heritage; and on the key actors involved. Finally issues and problems related to the management of heritage sites will be discussed.

### 2.2 The Importance of Heritage

Although heritage, by its very nature, has been in existence for a long time, an understanding of the way it is used is relatively recent. Heritage is a valuable legacy inherited from the past. Heritage buildings, monuments and culture promote a feeling of pride in the nation because they contribute towards a sense of place and remind us of past history as we move towards the future. Sometimes, heritage arising from a colonial era can be a painful legacy, especially when the colonial period is part of a living memory for many people; but others may see it as representing a contribution to national culture and collective experience, especially when rooted far in the past. For example, the impact and influence of Roman

colonization left much that was learned in terms of urban form and development, administrative and legal systems, social entertainment and transportation. Thus, heritage can be an important way to educate present and future generations about the significance of past history, and the need to conserve heritage buildings, monuments and heritage sites. Today, heritage tourism in an urban context can also be beneficial in boosting the local and national economy and in revitalizing historic places and their surroundings. There are social, political and economic dimensions to the development of the heritage 'industry', as it has often now become.

The growing number of heritage buildings being conserved and the range of museums that has been opened to the public indicate a growing appreciation of the value of heritage. The United Kingdom government has listed approximately 374,081 listed building entries as being worthy of preservation, presenting a richer variety of types, styles and periods (English Heritage: Listed buildings, online <http://www.english-heritage.org.uk/caring/listing/listed-buildings/> Assessed 10 March 2012). Built heritage, cultural heritage and contemporary culture are the strongest product driver in most overseas markets, and is the highest rated attribute when perceiving Britain as a tourist destinations. Furthermore, in 2010 tourism is the UK's fifth largest industry sector and generated around £86 billion total revenue in the UK (British Tourism Framework Review, 2010). In 2010 the UK ranked sixth in the international tourist arrivals league behind France, USA, China, Spain and Italy, accounting for 3.0% of global arrivals [3.2% in 2009](ibid).

Heritage resources are irreplaceable and non-renewable; they require conservation and good management. The broad field of heritage values, questions of whose heritage, and for

whom heritage is commodified are the major issues in developing heritage as a ‘product’ which thus requires ‘heritage management’, with all its complexities. Linked to management is the theme of sustainability; and with this in mind, Hall and McArthur, (1998) note that in the past, heritage has often been treated as a static commodity, where managers are sometimes not aware that this resource and its associated values are constantly changing, and any serious attention to achieving sustainability requires the development of management strategies that can accommodate change. The recent literature on dissonance heritage (Tunbridge and Ashworth, 1996), integrated heritage management (Hall and McArthur, 1998), heritage management (Garrod and Fyall, 2000), heritage visitor attraction (Leask and Yeoman, 1999), clarifying the core heritage (Poria et al., 2003), heritage and post-modern heritage (Nuryanti, 1996), and consuming heritage (Waite, 2000) have shown the growing concern about heritage values and the heritage management context.

## 2.3 The Concept and Definition of Heritage

Heritage is our legacy from the past. It is what we live with today and what we pass on to future generations. Although the term ‘heritage’ seems easy to understand, when looked at in greater depth, it can be more difficult to define. The Oxford English Dictionary refers to heritage as ‘property that is or may be inherited’, ‘valued things that have been passed down from previous generations’ and ‘a special or individual possession’. Heritage can be regarded as anything that someone wishes to conserve or to collect, and to pass on to future generations (Hewison, 1987). Yet what is meant by ‘anything’ can vary widely. For example one person might have a classic grandfather clock inherited from their family and consider it as part of their heritage. Another might see this as an item of personal value to the owner but not as



having heritage value to others. In these terms, the definition of heritage may be seen as ambiguous and complex. Moreover, to 'inherit' implies also the possibility of disinheritance.

Since the 1970s, the term heritage has been used increasingly to refer to cultural and natural heritage such as historic buildings and landscapes that are to be preserved and passed on for future generations (eg UNESCO 1972). The World Heritage Committee in 1984 prescribed the aim of the World Heritage Convention as being to conserve places that have universal values for the whole of humankind. It appears that the WHC, in focusing on natural and cultural heritage, was concerned with heritage as an element of culture, community and symbolic identity property due to selection classification of natural and cultural outstanding elements.

Traditionally, scholars who study heritage have come from disciplines that study some of the phenomena and artefacts that are commonly collected and conserved. Indeed, quite often these objects first became perceived as 'heritage' as a result of such scholarly interest. According to Hardy (1988), the term 'heritage' can be used to describe cultural traditions, as well as artefacts inherited from the past. However, Whiteland (1990) has a different view, stating that heritage has been regarded as accumulated experience, an educational encounter and a contact with previous generations. Heritage also has been seen as an urban product, an assemblage of selected resources bound together by interpretation (Ashworth and Voodg, 1990). Tunbridge and Ashworth, (1996: 1-2) identified five aspects of the expanded meaning of heritage: (1) a synonym for any relict or physical survival of the past; (2) the idea of individual and collective memories in terms of non-physical aspects of the past when viewed from the present; (3) all accumulated cultural and artistic productivity; (4) the natural

environment; and (5) a major commercial activity such as the heritage industry. As can be seen, there are two views on heritage: one that regards it primarily as *physical* attractions (museums, landmarks, historic structures, culture) and one that sees heritage tourism as a valuable *experience* as well as an activity with an *educational* dimension.

The dilemmas resulting from the ‘heritage inheritance’ are: *whose* heritage is it and *for whom* has the heritage been created? The link between heritage and identity is crucial to an understanding of not only the significance of heritage as something to be valued but also the difficulties faced by managers in identifying and conserving it. Tunbridge and Ashworth, (1996) recognised this argument by noting that the attempt to create a universal heritage which provides an equal but full inheritance for all is illogical, due to different interpretations or perceptions of ‘heritage’: for example, relating to historic conflicts between the English and the Scots, or between Britain and America at the time of (to some) the ‘American Revolution’ or (to others) the ‘War of Independence’. More recent ‘colonial’ and other conflicts can have even greater poignancy in this respect.

In the case of urban heritage, Masser et al., (1993) defined it as the power of continuity from one generation to the next. As they state: *‘it is something we want to hand down to future generations, it is also something we want to appreciate to the fullest extent’*. But the term as defined by Masser et al. seems blurred, since what is meant by ‘something’ and by ‘we’ are not specified. Yet, since urban heritage shows a relationship between several elements, a link to history is a combination of physical parts, historic association and mythical story telling. Lowenthal, (1996) suggested that although the ability of history to explore and explain the past grows more opaque over time, heritage can clarify the past and help to bring

history to life. This shows that the morphology of history can be seen through the existence of heritage and heritage interpretation which reveal the stories over time. Orbasli, (2000) added that heritage exists in the physical attributes of buildings, public spaces and urban morphology; it is experienced by users (inheritors) in the present and at the same time is contributing to the next generation of heritage.

In the tourism context, McNulty, (1991) defined heritage tourism as referring to monuments, museums, battlefields, historic structures and landmarks. Collins, (1983) added that the definition of heritage tourism should include cultural traditions such as family patterns, religious practices, folklore traditions and social customs. In addition to the cultural and built environments of an area, natural heritage can also include gardens, wilderness areas of scenic beauty and valued cultural landscapes (Tassell and Tassell, 1990). Heritage tourism is thus a broad field of speciality travel including many aspects of tourism ranging from examination of the physical remains of the past and natural landscapes to the experience of local cultural traditions (Zeppel and Hall, 1992).

## 2.4 A Heritage Production Model

History is a remembered record of the past while heritage is a contemporary commodity purposefully created to satisfy contemporary consumption (Ashworth and Larkham, 1994: 16) . The initial and basic assumption is that heritage is an industry in the sense of a modern activity, deliberately controlled and organised with the aim of producing a marketable product. This ‘commodification’ process has not been uniquely applied in history

but has been applied to human activities and creativity (Whitt, 1987). Ashworth and Larkham (1994) have a model which summarises the heritage production process.

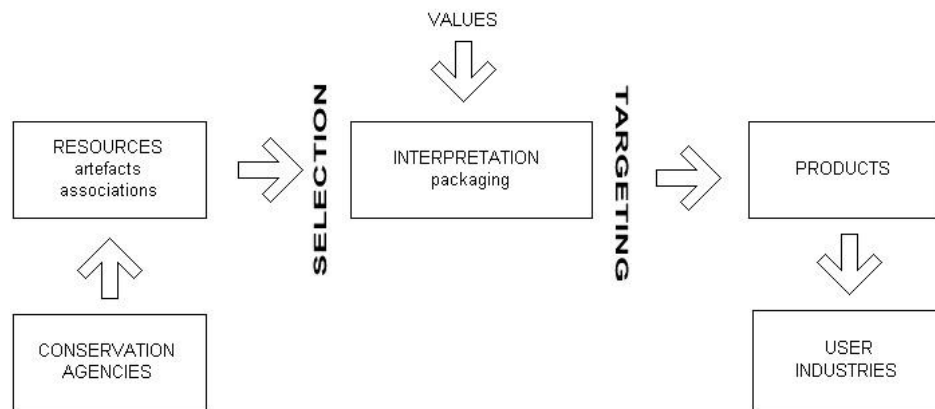


Figure 2.1: A model of heritage production

Source: Ashworth and Larkham (1994:17)

A wide range of heritage resources from a varied mixture of past events, personalities, folk memories, mythologies, literary associations and surviving physical relics, whether sites or towns, constitutes the heritage product. The selection of the basic raw material (heritage resources) consists of a remaining element of past history, some or all of which will be utilized as heritage. Where existing resources are limited, this can be a challenge to the expertise of those such as archaeologists and historians in selecting the heritage products to be featured.

Selected heritage resources are converted into products through interpretation, which can be described as packaging. Interpretation has been defined as the basic art of telling the story of a place (Walsh-Heron and Stevens, 1990). For example, the flow of exhibits story,

the signage, the storyboard, the setting of exhibit resources and the audio tools will provide interpretation of the heritage product and the value of the experience for those who come to consume it. In this way, heritage resources do not just stand alone in presenting the history of the past: the interpretation also plays an important role in the heritage commodification process. Tunbridge and Ashworth (1996) added that trading usually goes beyond the physical components of heritage, such as monuments and sites, to include intangible ideas and feelings such as fantasy, nostalgia, pleasure, and pride, which are communicated through the interpretation of physical elements. This is another challenge for the producers and heritage managers: to interpret the selected resources effectively, in anticipation of the expected 'market' for the product.

Heritage and heritage products are not synonymous. As discussed by Ashworth and Larkham (1994) and Tunbridge and Ashworth (1996), heritage exists only in terms of the legatee, while heritage product is a response to the specific needs of actual potential users. As heritage products will be commodified, based on the demand of the users or specific consumer groups, then the challenge for heritage managers or producers is to fulfil a variety of visitor aspirations. The important point for the producers is that not only are different materials combined to create a product but equally, quite different products for quite different markets can be created from the same raw materials by varying the interpretation process (Ashworth and Voodg, 1990). As in all such market-driven models, heritage product is determined by the requirements of the consumer, not by the existence of the resources. A wide range of users or a segmented market might demand different forms of interpretation and this can be a challenge for heritage managers.

Some producers or heritage managers have adopted a good approach in interpreting the heritage product in an attractive way. At Warwick Castle, for example, aesthetic and antique values have been used to educate visitors about the history that lies behind the heritage product. The beautifully striking castle, the architectural style - including elements from the Norman period to the nineteenth century - the interior design and the collections of items associated with royalty and the nobility are the heritage resources. The selection and presentation of these materials has been designed to interpret them effectively, so that users can understand and appreciate the heritage product. Some of the materials have been shown to represent aspects of the 'reality' of the past such as the wax figures of King Henry VIII and his six wives wearing royal clothing, which aim to give a valuable experience to the viewers, including an element of educational value. Besides that, these experiences may contribute to and enhance aspects of national identity and experience. On the other hand, some will argue about the authenticity of the heritage product and ask whether, in certain (and possibly all) respects, it is presenting a superficial and populist view in order to satisfy the demands of visitors. Indeed, Lowenthal (1996) stated that we preserved such things because the pace of change and development has attenuated a legacy integral to our identity and well being.

## 2.5 The Tourist-Historic City

Most heritage product is found in historic cities which are rich with the history of the past and with heritage resources. Towns and cities provide a diverse range of social, cultural and economic activities which the population engages in and where tourism, leisure and entertainment form major service activities. Generally, tourists are attracted to cities because of the specialized functions they offer and the range of services provided. Tourism, of course,

is not the only activity that occurs in historic towns and cities and the historic heritage is only one element among their many tourism resources. But it is undoubtedly true that heritage tourism in historic cities is a major strength in generating economic activity and revitalisation.

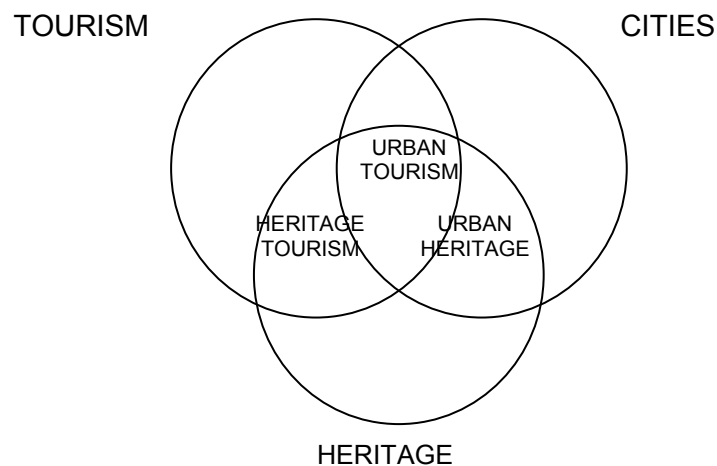


Figure 2.2 : Tourism, cities and heritage

Source: Ashworth and Tunbridge, (2000:54)

As shown in Figure 2.2, three elements need to be related, namely an activity, tourism; a set of resources, heritage; and a setting, the city, as illustrated by Ashworth and Tunbridge, (2000). The balance between these three elements will vary from city to city but the link between them provides a justification for the concept of the tourist-historic city. The interactions of tourism, heritage and cities can be combined in two ways. Firstly through supply, in this case with the city as a heritage tourism resource; and secondly through demands made by tourists upon that resource.

As noted by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000), all cities have history, culture, people and their associations. This leads to the questions of how, and by whom, are particular episodes, character, relics, cultural attributes and historical artefacts selected to become the resources for shaping the heritage tourism product of the city? There can be difficulties in identifying which of these heritage resources might be the important catalyst. Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) assert that the 'who', 'what' and 'how' of heritage resources marked out for tourism raise serious questions of balance and indeed of equity in the representation of different possible heritages. This can be important because the representation of heritage resources nowadays and the value of the heritage commodity keep changing. On the other hand, the demands made by tourists upon these resources have resulted in some complex issues. The provision of resources in a town or city will be shared by tourists, residents and other populations. It cannot be assumed that each group has the same needs and priorities and this can be a source of possible competition and conflict. On the other hand, the demands of tourism can sustain some resources, attractive to local people, that otherwise would not be viable without the support of tourism.

This concept of the tourist-historic city has highlighted some of the complexity and ambiguity that characterises the subject and that will lead to an examination of the underlying causes of differences between the demands of the users and what is supplied by the providers. An investigation of the primary 'values, motivation and socio-demographic' among users, and the 'motivation, goals and strategy' of the heritage managers and local authorities in the heritage town can be expected to enhance understanding of the 'who, what and how' of the marketing of what are described as 'tourism resources' or the 'heritage product'.



## 2.6 The Heritage Management Concept

Heritage management is recognised as an increasingly complex and controversial domain. Researchers, conservationists and heritage managers face pressure in determining the most appropriate methods of conservation and management. The fact is that heritage management faces conflicts and ambiguities, many of which relate to the concept and definition of heritage itself, as discussed previously in this Chapter. Questions of identity, meaning and values indicate the likelihood of there being conflicting notions of ownership attached to heritage and therefore conflicting sets of values and interests with which the heritage manager has to contend.

An explanation for these conflicts lies in the notion of ‘dissonance heritage’ (Ashworth and Larkham, 1994). This implies a discordance or lack of agreement and consistency that allows new classifications to be constructed based on the type of dissonance perceived. However, analogies with musical or psychological harmony imply that, where dissonance occurs, there will be a tendency for people to adjust behaviour in order to achieve or regain harmony (Sears et al., 1985). The recognition of these features as part of the concept of heritage management means that behaviour is, or should be, managed with sensitivity towards the incidence of dissonance.

As heritage tourism is one of the important elements in the heritage product, the heritage management concept as applied to the tourist-historic town will be discussed as an example. Generally, heritage tourism management must address both demand and supply; and must be concerned with two major elements - the *tourists’ experience* and the *quality of*

*the heritage site*. Davidson and Maitland (1997) stated that tourism needs to be managed because the market response to increasing demands for tourism activities often leads to unacceptable adverse impacts, affecting the environment, the local economy and the host population. For example, an increasing number of visitors to historic cities such as Bath, Cambridge or York can cause physical damage; a series of problems for the host population; and can create a visitor experience that is tawdry and inauthentic. A sensitive understanding of the town(s) is needed to secure and sustain the asset by promoting the best approach of heritage management.

All visits might contribute to both positive and negative impacts. However, the most crucial issue in heritage management is the question of the type and the level of impact in terms of what is ‘unacceptable’ to the visitors and all other related parties or stakeholders. This can be complex as everybody might experience or perceive the impacts differently. Some visitors might prefer to have a big crowd at a heritage town or heritage site and would see that as a positive experience. By contrast, others might find the presence of big crowds annoying. The sense of what is ‘unacceptable’ is different for different people. The carrying capacity concept is vital in determining the level of what is ‘acceptable and ‘unacceptable’. Mathieson and Wall (1992:21) defined carrying capacity as ‘the maximum number of people who can use a site or area without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by the visitors’. The concept of carrying capacity will be further discussed in Chapter 3.

## 2.7 Heritage Values versus Value Systems

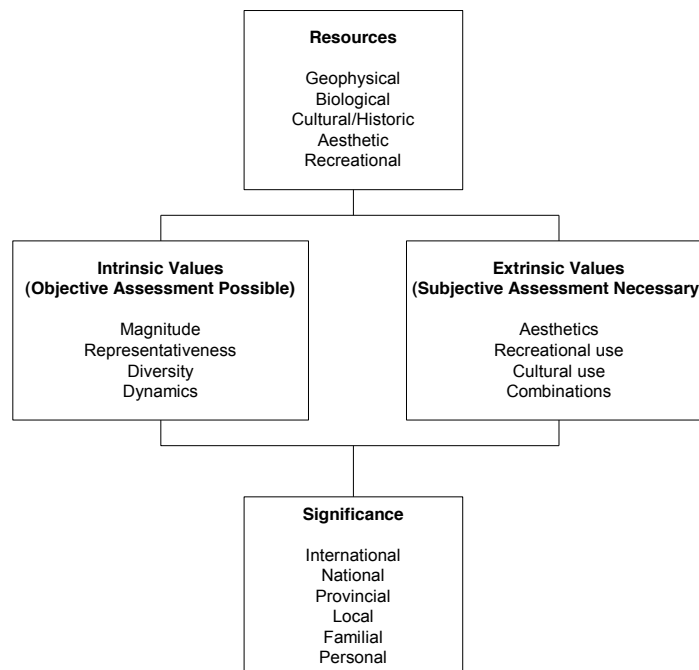


Figure 2.3: Criteria for assessing resource values and significance

Source: Carter and Bramley, (2002)

Referring to the concept of heritage production suggested by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000), the values associated with heritage resources are important in the process of selecting and interpreting them for different segments of the user market. Ultimately, the appropriate level and type of use at a heritage place must be determined along with the degree and type of management necessary (Hall and McArthur, 1996). These are derived from the character and quality of resources and their perceived values and significance. According to Carter and Bramley (2002), heritage resources can be divided into 5 categories, namely geophysical, biological, cultural or historic, aesthetic and recreational. These have both intrinsic and extrinsic values and can be significant at different levels, as shown in Figure 2.3. Intrinsic values can be assessed objectively, are the qualities inherent in a resource, including

magnitude, representativeness, diversity and dynamics. Extrinsic values rely on human perception and thus are subjective in nature. They include aesthetics, recreational and cultural use; and combinations of some or all of them. However, in reality, resource values and their significance may not be as clear-cut as suggested by Carter and Bramley. For example, ‘diversity’ is subject to human perception and will often be determined subjectively rather than objectively. ‘Values’ are qualities regarded by a person, community, or group as important and desirable. The perceptions of heritage values among key stakeholders may help in improving resource management and the heritage management of the ‘heritage town’. However, values can be influenced by people’s socio-demographic background, origins and lifestyle, and thus may include a significant subjective element. The research aims to investigate this through an examination of the relationship between factors contributing to the perceptions in assessing the environmental impact of tourism in a heritage context.

## 2.8 Who Owns the Heritage?

Heritage means ‘*that which has been or may be inherited*’ but an important question is ‘who owns the heritage now’? The concepts of inheritance and ownership are different. Inheritance can refer to something that has been or might be passed down while ownership can refer to being the guardian of the heritage. It is important to understand who owns the heritage in order to manage the heritage resources. Swarbrooke (1995) used a three sector classification for the ownership of different type of heritage attractions: public, private and voluntary. Each sector has its own goals and motivations, as shown in Table 2.1.

Sector	Examples of attractions owned	Primary and secondary motivation for ownership
Public	Ancient monuments Archaeological ruins Historic buildings Parks Forests Museums	Primary - conservation  Secondary - public access, education, revenue, catalyst for tourism development
Private	Historic theme parks Museums Wineries and distilleries Culture centres Art galleries Industrial plants and mines	Primary - profit  Secondary - boost visitation, entertainment, public image enhancement
Voluntary	Historic buildings Museums Heritage centres Trails	Primary - conservation by self-sufficiency  Secondary - entertainment, education

Table 2.1: Ownership of heritage attractions

Source: Adapted from Swarbrooke (1995)

According to Swarbrooke, the public and voluntary sectors are mainly concerned with conservation and education while for the private sector, the primary motivations are said to be mainly profit and recreation. Yet the types of attraction owned by each sector are often similar between sectors, for example, museums, which can be in public, private and voluntary sector ownership. This variety of ownership is found in many tourist destinations.

According to Timothy and Boyd (2003), public ownership means a site is owned and possibly operated by a government department or agency such as a National Park Service, Department of Environment or Ministry of Culture and Education. In the UK, English Heritage is the official government agency responsible for promoting and preserving

England's historic buildings and monuments; and there are similar arrangements under the devolved administrations in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Privately owned sites originate commonly in two ways. Firstly, they may be historic properties that were purchased by an individual or company prior to the enactment of legislation and regulations. Secondly, there are properties that have been passed down from one generation to another. The Tussauds Group is one of the largest private sector heritage companies in Britain and the Netherlands. Some of the heritage attractions operated by Tussauds Group are Warwick Castle and Madame Tussauds Museum. In the voluntary sector, the goals appear to be to earn enough revenue for the conservation and maintenance of the property. The National Trust<sup>1</sup> is the non-profit organisation in England, Wales and Northern Ireland that has fully undertaken its responsibilities for the conservation and preservation of heritage attractions by gaining funds from membership fees and donations, as well as entrance fees and other sales revenues. Finally, some heritage sites, for example, in the museums and historic sectors, may be run in partnership between public sector and voluntary organisations. The motivations of different owners are varied and this will affect their approach to heritage management.

## 2.9 The Key Actors in Heritage Management

A number of key actors play an important role in managing heritage resources. The actors may vary depending on the type of heritage product, its setting and the activities involved. This can be exemplified, as shown by the English Tourist Board (ETB, 1991), in the

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<sup>1</sup> There is a separate National Trust for Scotland

triangular interaction of visitors, places and host communities, which are the major elements in all approaches to tourism management.

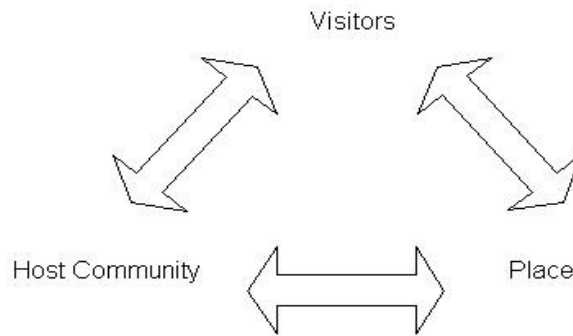


Figure 2.4: The interaction of visitors, places and host communities

Source: ETB (1991) adapted in Middleton (1994)

Figure 2.4 shows the three main focal points of interaction, all of which are affected by management decisions. This can be seen more fully in Middleton's (1998) 'wheel of influences' (Figure 2.5) which shows the players in heritage management and the activities of heritage tourism: in effect, providing an illustration of the components of heritage management.

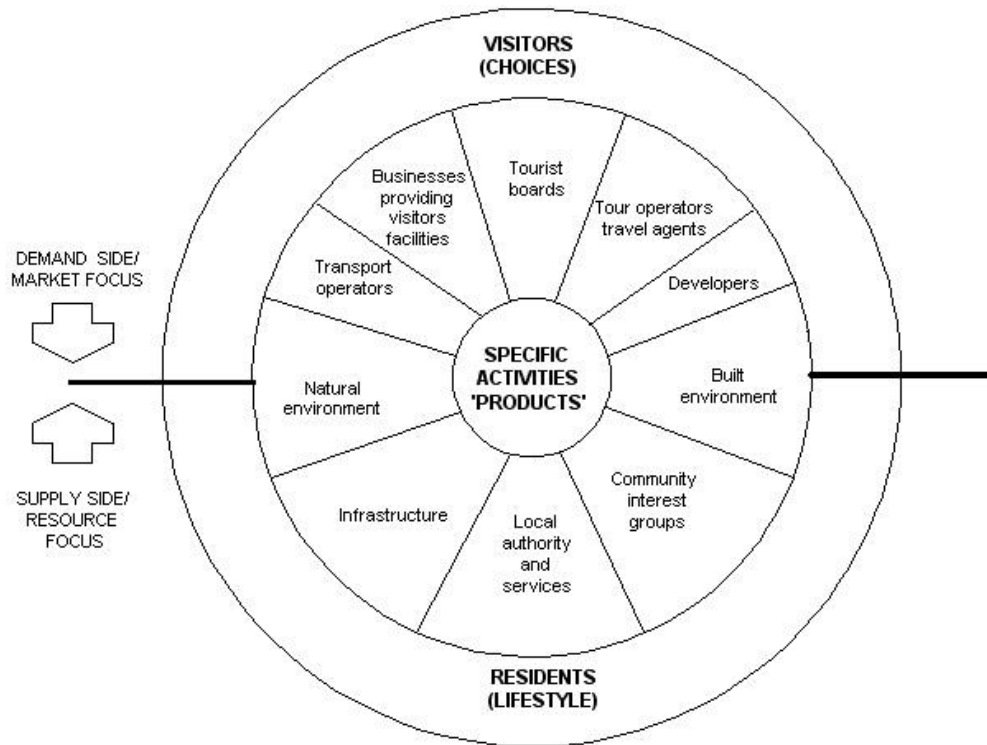


Figure 2.5: Tourism management at destination - the wheel of influences

Source: Middleton (1998)

The wheel in Figure 2.5 is divided horizontally with the upper half designated as the visitors' demand or market side, while the lower half represents the supply or resource side, including the residents' interests. The wheel is sub-divided into ten segments, which, according to Middleton (1998), can be grouped into categories representing the four key actors involved in or affecting decisions at visitor destinations in Britain:

- i. Residents who are both the community interest group and a local resource living in the host destination.
- ii. Elected representatives and appointed officials of local government, including local authority and related services, agencies or organisations responsible for natural features, the built environment and infrastructure.



- iii. Businesses providing directly and indirectly for visitors to the destination. This group can include both private sector businesses providing visitor services, and private sector developers.
- iv. Visitors who are the market for heritage tourism.

Collaboration, co-operation and partnership among these four key actors in heritage management have received growing attention in the literature (for example, Chow, 1980; Hunter and Green, 1997; Garrod et al., 2000; Russo et al., 2001; Aas et al., 2005 and Vernon et al., 2005, Porter and Salazar, 2005; Currie, Seaton and Wesley, 2009; Byrd et al., 2009). Furthermore, cooperation and collaboration have also been linked to the idea of sustainable tourism development (Hall, 2000 and Timothy, 1999). According to Gary (1989), a stakeholder has been defined as a person who has the right and capacity to participate in the process [of heritage management]; thus, anyone who is affected by the action of others has a right to be involved. However, there are difficulties in identifying the potential stakeholders, especially in destinations experiencing emerging tourism development where interests are not - or not yet - collectively organised (Reed, 1997).

## 2.10 Heritage Management Issues and Challenges

Hall and McArthur (1998) have shown that the nature of heritage management has changed over the years, reflecting society's changing relationship with heritage. In the 1970s, heritage management was concerned with the conservation of heritage resources but as government funding declined in the 1980s, attention became mainly focused on visitors.

Then, in the 1990s and 2000s, the allocation of resources became the main concern, while the concern has shifted to stakeholders partnership and collaboration in heritage management in the 2000s and subsequently. The context of heritage management reveals tension and issues. The possible ‘problem’ of heritage arises from the fact that heritage can be a sensitive topic. Generally, heritage is defined as ‘that is which inherited from the past’, yet ‘inherited from the past’ is a fragile concept. Indeed, valued historical buildings will be exposed to danger if visited by too high a volume of tourists: the result of a destination exceeding its *carrying capacity*.

The realisation of this has been a major factor in the development of the heritage management approach, which aims to secure and sustain the valued assets being managed and also to maximize the quality of the visitors’ experience.

‘Heritage is clearly a problem, and becomes so as soon as different people attach different values to it. The values which we hold can be envisaged as a series of lenses placed in front of our eyes, which correspond to our various attributes, each of which alters our perception of what is heritage. These value differences are largely responsible for the major issues in the heritage field, [which centre on] questions of access; of authenticity; of appropriation and the related question of gentrification’ (Howard, 2003: 211).

According to Howard (2003), heritage is subjective and vague depending on one’s perception. The definition of the term can encompass many characteristics, ranging from the physical attributes of an historic site to the quality of the experience of visiting it. This has

implications for issues such as access and authenticity; and the risks or opportunities (depending on one's point of view) arising from appropriation. For example, a site that has been commodified as indicative of national identity may feel uncomfortable to those who might question a particular account of history or even the existence of the state in question.

The main constraint on heritage management arises from product development. 'Heritage' is finite: the 'raw material' depends on what exists to represent the history of the past and to give it unique value. Yet, the heritage product that has been conserved might not be authentic, for example, due to the transformation of architectural style and the evolution of a building or buildings over time. A castle dating from the Norman period is likely to have been modified, restored and modernised over time, and may subsequently have been ruined and abandoned. Should the building be restored and preserved or left in its present condition? In urban regeneration, is it appropriate to preserve the layout and facades of older buildings while gutting and transforming them internally for twenty-first century activities? These and similar dilemmas have implications for the management of historic buildings and cities in the longer term (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000). The movement for heritage conservation and changing aesthetic taste, which are evident in many countries of the world, has influenced the selection of what is to be conserved. Moreover, the challenge to those responsible is to make the best selection of the existing heritage resources to be interpreted to the nation, visitors and other users.

Although the concept of the tourist-historic city might seem rather hypothetical, the interaction between the three elements of 'cities', 'tourism' and 'heritage' leads to conflicts in heritage management. For example, the increasing promotion of heritage tourism to generate

and fulfil tourism demand may have been successful for local or even national economies. Yet conservationists might want to preserve and protect authentic heritage monuments or buildings, while business interests might want to promote new adaptive uses and to introduce sophisticated technology and facilities to appeal to visitors. Thus, different stakeholders in the use multi-use of heritage products can have different needs and objectives, leading to complexity in managing the heritage. These differences need to be recognised and understood.

## 2.11 In Conclusion

This chapter has shown the difficulty of defining ‘heritage’; the wide range of heritage consumption; and the different values, motivations, goals and objectives of the key actors involved. All these contribute to the complexity, conflicts and challenges of heritage management; and all need to be taken into account in this research.

Examination of the concept of the tourist-historic city has shown the simple, intimate relationship between the three elements of heritage resources, their setting (the city) and tourism activity. Even though Ashworth (2000) says that the three elements may not occur specifically in practice, due to the multi-functional nature of the tourist-historic city, the framework he has put forward is expected to help the present research in understanding how heritage resources are being consumed at a specific site; and the role of heritage management in that process. Ashworth has stressed, however, that the three interrelated elements might not occur specifically in reality due to the multifunction of the historic city and the fact that heritage resources are not simply consumed as tourism. Yet, the relationship among the three

elements may be a means to visualize the process of heritage management. Is the ultimate concern of heritage management in the historic city to minimise the impacts of tourism in order to sustain the quality of the site and the quality of the visitors' experience?

The promotion of the 'heritage product' has been influenced by a wide range of studies that have examined the consumption of 'heritage' as places for leisure (Herbert, 2001), historical reality (Schouten, 1995), conservation (Larkham, 1995), formal education (Prentice, 1993), informal education (Light, 1995), national identity (Gruffudd, 1995) and business (Johnson and Thomas, 1995). An important issue for the stakeholders of a heritage destination is to identify and to agree (where possible) on the core character of the heritage resources that are being promoted. What is their identity; what kind of places are they; what is unique about them; and what demands are there - or might be developed - for this type of resource? These decisions are central to understanding the market(s) to which the heritage product is to be targeted.

Establishing effective channels of communication among stakeholders and encouraging local community involvement in decision-making may contribute to collaboration and the integration of ideas amongst users and providers of tourism opportunities in heritage towns. At a national level, the establishment of the English Historic Towns Forum (EHTF)<sup>2</sup> in 1987 is an example of how various interests including professionals, academics, local governments and local residents can exchange ideas in formulating effective ways to manage historic towns and small cities. This type of interaction between stakeholders and other interested parties was commended by Hall and McArthur (1998) and is in tune with democratic concepts and

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<sup>2</sup> Now the Historic Towns Forum (HTF)

international agreements such as Agenda 21 and its local and national components has strengthen reference to collaborative governance (WTTC, 1996). The impacts of tourism on the built environment, issues of sustainability, and the connections between tourism and the environment are considered further in the following chapter.

## 3.0 SUSTAINABILITY AND THE IMPACT OF TOURISM ON THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter, firstly, will introduce the impacts of tourism on the natural and the built environment and will examine previous research on the environmental impacts of tourism. This will be followed by a discussion of the concept of sustainable development, which has an important bearing on how tourism should be developed and managed to achieve sustainability. The links between environment and tourism and the scope of the environment in tourism will be considered. This will be followed by an examination of the typology of the impact of tourism on the built environment, which is a key theme of this research. Finally methods of assessing environmental impacts will be discussed, with a view to understanding the most appropriate methods related to tourism.

### 3.2 Tourism Impacts and the Environment

Tourism, both international and domestic, brings about an intermingling of people from diverse social and cultural backgrounds and a considerable spatial redistribution of spending power, which has a significant impact on the physical environment of the tourism host area. According to Getz (1983), accelerated levels of visitation or development would lead to an unacceptable deterioration in the physical environment and of the visitor's experience, both of which depend on the volume and profile characteristics of the tourists. As stated by Melinda et al. (2001), the more popular a site may become, the more likely it is that it will be

degraded due to heavy visitation, which in turn may diminish the quality of the experience. Generally, the issues of heavy visitation or quality of experience have a strong relationship with the concept of carrying capacity. The perception or definition of 'unacceptability' might vary according to different people but the concept of carrying capacity is a means of determining the level of unacceptability. Mathieson and Wall (1992) defined carrying capacity as the maximum number of people who can use a site or area without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by the visitors. Carrying capacity has three dimensions: social, physical and economic.

In contrast, Haughton (1999) said that environmental impacts are not caused primarily by tourism activities but rather by the lack of plans, policies and action as a framework for economic growth, meaning that the poor quality of human decision-making can damage the urban, regional and global environment. A considerable number of tourism strategies have been implemented recently in historic cities and towns (Maitland, 2006); some attempts have been made to review the experience of managing tourism in historic cities and to draw lessons for good practice. For example, Maitland's (2006) research on 25 years of tourism strategy in Cambridge has shown the importance of effective collaboration between key tourism stakeholders in the city including the City Council and other public authorities, tourism operators, non-tourism organizations, the Colleges and University, as well as local residents. The recognition of tourism development and policy as an important element in heritage cities in Britain has been accompanied by the growth of a policy community linking tourism managers in similar towns and cities, who can share common experiences and exchange ideas



about them. A prime example is the Historic Towns Forum (HTF), created in 1987 as the English Historic Towns Forum (EHTF), where professionals, academics, local council members and local residents may exchange ideas for the effective management of historic towns and cities. Agreed 'solutions', however, are harder to come by since different places and their representatives may face different issues, and have different agendas and views.

The environment and tourism can be seen as interrelated elements or even as having an inter-dependent or symbiotic relationship. Tourists want to experience good-quality surroundings, beautiful scenery and an historic environment. According to Briassoulis and Straaten (1992), the natural and man-made environment of an area constitutes one of the basic 'ingredients' of the tourist product offered and naturally, the quality of this product depends critically on the quality of its basic constituents. Given the strong relationship between environment and tourism, it is important to take comprehensive steps to preserve the environment in a sustainable manner. The issue of maintaining a balanced relationship between tourism and the environment has received considerable attention from the 1970s onwards. However, it was not until the 1980s and 1990s that it became a topic of systematic academic inquiry and research, distinguished from the broader area of the environmental impacts of recreation and leisure activities. International bodies such as the World Tourism Organisation, the United Nations, the OECD and several others have organized workshops, conducted studies and suggested policies for preserving a healthy and attractive environment and thus securing the successful tourism development of an area (Briassoulis and Straaten, 1992).

The environmental dimension has become increasingly significant as a research area in tourism studies particularly with the debate on sustainability (Hall and Lew, 1998). Much of the discussion on the impacts of tourism on the physical environment traditionally focused on the natural environment (Cohen, 1978; Romeril, 1989; Farrell and Runyan 1991; Sun and Walsh, 1998; Madan and Rawat, 2000; Deng, 2003; Burak et al., 2004). Whilst this is significant for historic towns and cities, the impacts on the built environment can be equally important (Briassoulis and Straaten, 1992). The English Tourist Board ‘Tourism and Environment’ Working Group on Heritage Sites (ETB, 1991) highlighted the problems that arise from overcrowding, wear and tear, traffic congestion and parking, the provision of visitor facilities and changes in local character. However, the difficulties of quantifying the tourism impacts in urban settlements arise from the factors induced by tourism, local population and other activities at the sites. This is because the urban areas have multifunctional activities. Thus, the difficulty of quantifying the environmental impact of tourism has delayed the development of an impact methodology. As less research has been undertaken so far on the built environmental impacts of tourism, an attempt to formulate a methodology or a reliable way for assessing the physical environmental impact of tourism, primarily in urban settlements, will be beneficial for future research.

### 3.3 The Concept of Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainable development is important in various fields, including heritage tourism, so as to maintain both the natural and the built environments for future generations. The fact that the term ‘sustainable development’ has been adopted by governments, non-governmental organizations, the international lending agencies, the private

sector, academia and others who could be viewed as having a great variety of sometimes opposing professional and political objectives, is a reflection of the ambiguity of the concept (Holden, 2000). Thus ‘sustainability’ can be said to mean ‘all things to all people’. The often-quoted Brundtland Report confirms this ambiguity.

‘.... in the end, sustainable development is not a fixed state of harmony, but rather a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of the investments, the orientation of technological development and institutional change are made consistent in future as well as present needs’ (WCED, 1987: 9).

Collin and Howard (1995) suggested the concept of sustainable development is like plastic that can be moulded to fit widely differing approaches to environmental management, even though the aim is to protect and maintain environmental resources for future needs.

### 3.3.1 The Origin of the Concept

The term sustainable development was first introduced in the World Conservation Strategy by the World Conservation Union in 1980. However, the term gained greater attention and popularity after the publication in 1987 of the Brundtland Report by the World Commission on Environment and Development, which defined sustainability as ‘development that meets the needs of the present without comprising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (WCED, 1987: 43). The report was commissioned by the General Assembly of the United Nations, following the UN Conference on the Human Environment,

held in Stockholm in 1982. The main environmental concerns of the United Nations were the high level of unsustainable resource usage associated with development and the pollution of the ozone layer which threatened human well-being (Holden, 2000). The term sustainable as defined by the World Commission contains two important ingredients, namely human needs and environmental limitations, as discussed by Collin and Howard (1995: 53). Firstly, basic human needs such as food, clothing and shelter have to be met alongside aspirations to higher living standards, greater consumer choice and more security. Secondly, there is a limit to the natural environment's ability to meet present and future needs. Some resources are renewable but many are not; while the 'free services' which the natural environment supplies in terms of waste disposal, climate regulation, clean air, and water and food resources, have all too often been taken for granted.

### 3.3.2 Different Perspectives on Sustainable Development

Holden (2000) has suggested that the meaning of sustainable development should be categorized into different perspectives based on a range of priorities, interests, beliefs and philosophies underpinning human interaction with the environment. There are two broad ideological approaches to the environment that have been claimed by Holden, namely 'techno-centrism' and 'eco-centrism'. Techno-centrism is characterized by a belief that technical solutions can be found to deal with environmental problems through the application of science. This approach relies upon quantifiable solutions to problems which mean that the viewpoint will not be accepted in decision making. O'Riordan (1981) argues that eco-centrism is associated with the philosophies of the romantic transcendentalists and characterized by a belief in the wonder of nature. Eco-centrism lacks faith in modern

technology, technical and bureaucratic elites, and is in contrast to the ‘dominant world-view’ on development, with its frontier mentality that assumes an unlimited supply of natural resources and an unlimited waste absorption capability in nature. In the dominant world view, planning is (or should be) a techno-centric process of top-down management. For example the framework suggested by Human (1994) represents the policy that should be adopted from macro to micro level (Figure 3.1). These guidelines will help the destination level to harmonize with the important elements and policies that have been suggested at macro level.

Figure 3.1 shows destination management and planning in the public policy context. The vertical layers indicate the hierarchy from the global level towards the destination level or in other words from macro to micro level. The horizontal divisions show sectoral but inter-related policy areas such as tourism, land use, transport, economy and environment. All these sectors and policies will be taken into account from the wider context to the destination context. According to Maitland (1997), the destinations may have the opportunity to change the policies emanating from the international, national and regional levels if their own policies differ too much from the external policy framework, or they might reinforce their own approach if their local policies are broadly compatible with international, national and regional policies.

‘This results in an integrated policy framework that ensures consistency, encourages cooperation and long term planning, makes the best use of resources, opens up additional sources of finance and provides a firm justification for refusing undesirable development’ (Human, 1994).

These principles will help us to understand whether any towns and cities adopted techno-centrism or eco-centrism in order to achieve sustainability. Will the problems and issues that arise at the local level be taken into consideration, first in implementing strategic planning, tourism and heritage management; or will they be addressed by adopting the policies that have been suggested at macro level? The situation in Cambridge as discussed by Maitland (2006), showed that 25 years of tourism planning and management have been strongly influenced by the locality characteristics of Cambridge. He argued that locality factors and the role of local regimes as well as policy communities are more important than national government policy in accounting for aims and policies. Maitland shows that there was clearly no top-down policy process which can be referred to as eco-centrism. Although the key strategic aims of tourism policy in Cambridge have been driven by global economic change and social change that effects all destinations, Maitland concluded that tourism policy in Cambridge was strongly mediated by the characteristics of the locality and that there was no significant policy direction from national government on tourism management in historic cities.

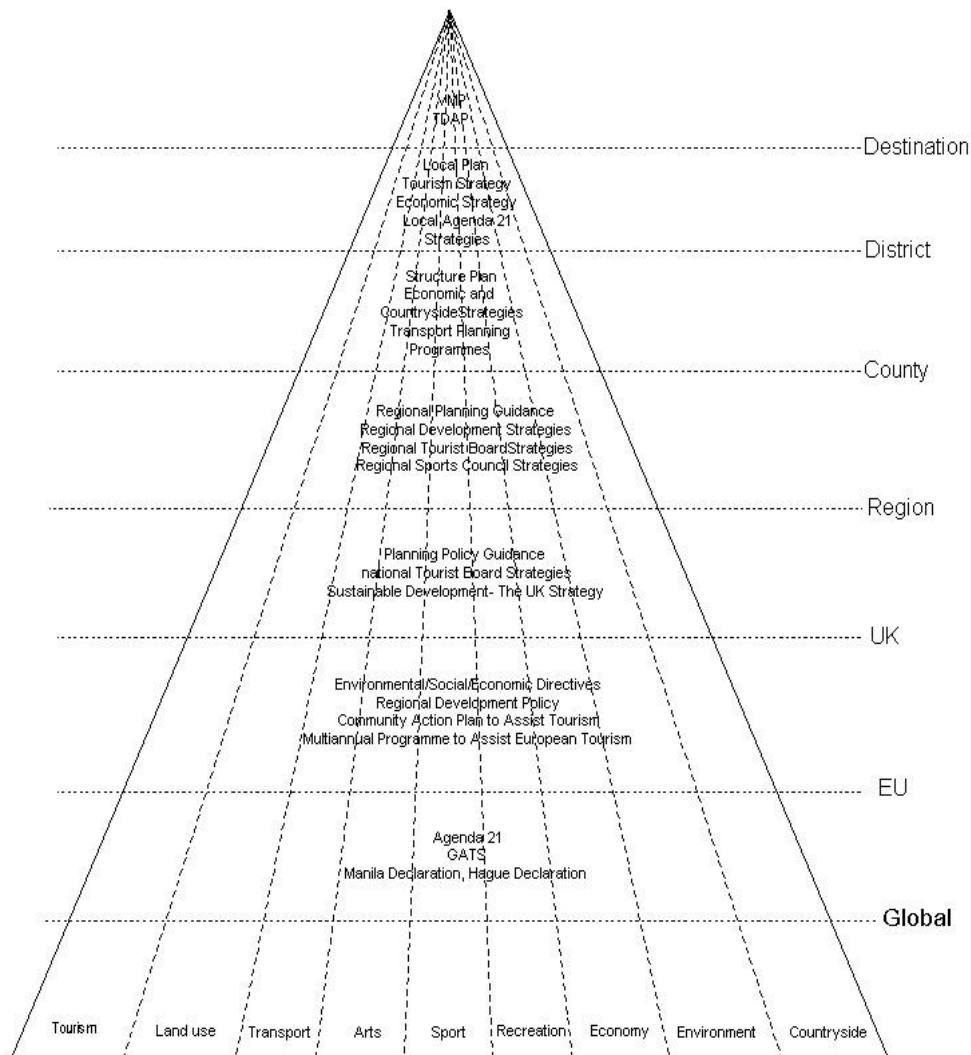


Figure 3.1: Framework of planning and management in public policy  
Source: Human (2004)

### 3.4 Sustainability and Tourism

Holden (2000) has argued that ‘sustainable tourism’ is a broad term which can embrace the role of customer and marketing considerations in sustaining the tourism sector. On the other hand, tourism can be used also as a vehicle to achieve ‘sustainable development’, in the sense of developing tourism as a means to achieve wider social, economic and

environmental goals. However, 'sustainable tourism' will not necessarily equate with the aims and objectives of 'sustainable development'. According to Westlake (1995: 85) tourism as an activity is based on interactions of particular destinations and so requires coordination and the cooperation of the various providers, both public and private, small and large, since the tourist industry is diverse, fragmented and not one single identifiable sphere of activity. Hence, it is important to give attention to its organization and future condition, and to understand the potential for conflict between users and providers at each destination.

Sustainability and tourism have been debated in the academic literature (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; McKercher, 1993; Butler, 1991; Moscardo, 1996; Hall and Lew, 1998 and Garrod and Fyall, 1998). What has emerged are broad criteria that appear useful in understanding how tourism can be developed in line with sustainability (Butler, 1999; Hall and Lew, 1998; Nelson et al, 1993). For example, Timothy and Boyd (2003) have highlighted the key principles, planning and management considerations that are relevant to heritage tourism as well as the sustainable heritage tourism development framework. The discussion of the framework is based on the previous work of Boyd (2000) which was on national park environments. The framework is adapted to relate specifically to heritage tourism, accommodating heritage within natural, cultural and built contexts. The framework consists of principles, planning and management considerations. According to Timothy and Boyd (2003), the key principles include ensuring authenticity, interpretation, access and inter- and intra-generational equity. Authenticity is portrayed as central to heritage tourism: the product(s) on display are often related to re-creations of a region's past both in terms of built and cultural landscapes. This relates to the concept of the heritage model, explained in Chapter 2, and the role of the heritage managers in selecting the heritage product to be



commodified. Yet authenticity can be seen in various ways, depending on one's perspective. An emphasis on interpretation can maximize the opportunities for visitors to learn about the past. On the other hand, an emphasis on the safety of visitors, the preservation of the site, or the enhancement of access for economic regeneration can lead to different experiences for visitors which might compromise the aim of learning about the past. Finally, the principle of equity implies that heritage attractions are open to all, both now and in the future. However, this does not apply to all heritage attractions as some are not accessible to the public.

The potential impact of tourism on the economy, the environment and the people of the host countries is of such magnitude that it was referred to in the Hague Declaration on Tourism as a 'tourism revolution' (IPU and WTO, 1989: 182.) In the past two decades, international and national organizations, academics and others have been producing suggestions, guidelines, criteria and principles aiming to ensure the sustainable future of the tourism industry (the Hague Declaration on Tourism, IPU and WTO, 1989; The Brundtland Report, WCED 1987; various World Tourism Organisation publications; Inskeep, et al., 1992). These suggest or even prescribe the roles that government, the tourism industry, non-governmental organisations and tourists could play in promoting the sustainable development of tourism and transforming tourism into a sustainable industry. But little progress has been made in putting these ideas into practice.

In their paper 'Beyond the rhetoric of sustainable tourism' Garrod and Fyall (1998) argued that the various guidelines and codes of practice advocated by Tourism Concern and the World-Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) for achieving sustainable tourism were vague. Garrod and Fyall suggested that a possible way forward in implementing the concept of

sustainable tourism in practice is the ‘methodology of environmental economics’. This methodology relies on applying the so-called ‘constant capital rule’ as developed within the field of environmental economics, which serves to objectivise the concept. While some tourism researchers evidently felt unsettled by this approach (Garrod and Fyall, 1998), it can be argued that the real threat to tourism is not the objectivisation of the concept of sustainable tourism but its present vagueness. Indeed, the importance of applying an objective rule for achieving sustainability is made clear by McKercher (1993), who argues that so long as the term remains subjective, it remains capable of being interpreted differently by different groups and factions associated with the tourism industry, each with their own particular interests and viewpoints, thereby exacerbating rather than resolving resource-use conflicts within the industry. The concept of ‘sustainable’ may be vague but the definition of sustainable principles would help as a guideline in sustaining the environment. However, McKercher argues, the most important point is that we can mould objectives and implement any development or management in a sustainable manner.

### **3.5 Defining ‘Environment’**

Before looking at tourism impacts, it is worth noting how the term ‘environment’ is defined and understood. Environment includes not only land, air, water, flora and fauna but may also encompass people, their creations and the social, economic and cultural conditions that affect their lives (Lerner, 1977). Similarly Allaby (1994) defines environment as the complete range of external conditions, physical and biological, in which an organism lives. Frequently, the environment is considered under three main headings; physical, biological (living) and socio-cultural (including cultural) (Romeril, 1989). Environment includes social,

cultural and (for humans) economic and political considerations, as well as the more usually understood features such as soil, climate, topography and food supply.

In contrast, Collin (1995) suggested environment as anything outside an organism in which the organism lives. It can be a geographical region, a certain climatic condition, the pollutants or the noise which surrounds an organism. Man's environment will include a country or region, or town or house, or room in which he lives; a parasite's environment will include the body of the host; and a plant's environment will include a type of soil at a certain altitude.

Based on the definition of environment, 'the environment' in tourism can be viewed as possessing social, cultural, economic and political dimensions, besides a physical one. Hunter and Green (1995) classified environment into natural, built (or human-made) and cultural. Swarbrooke (1999) classified the environment into five categories, namely: natural environment, farmed environment, wildlife, natural resources and built environment (Figure 3.2).

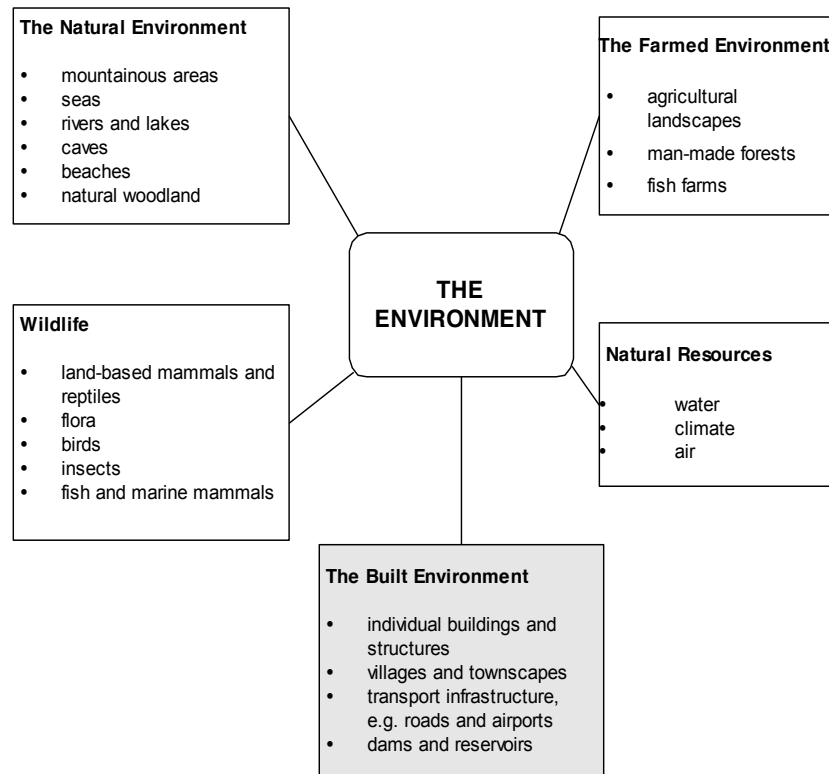


Figure 3.2 : The scope of environment

Source: Swarbrooke (1999)

### 3.6 Defining ‘Impact’

Generally, impact means the effects that might be positive or negative as well as direct or indirect. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, impact means an act of one object hitting another, or a noticeable effect or influence. Most of the literature gives little attention to the meaning of ‘impact’. However, it is understandable that any form of development will have an impact upon the economic, social and physical environment in its host area and community.

Much of the research on the environmental impact of tourism has focused on the natural environment and natural resources; including coastal environments (Burak et al., 2004), vegetation and soils (Sun and Walsh, 1998), forest park (Deng, 2003) and mountains and hills (Madan and Rawat, 2000). Although many researchers and environmentalists have looked at the natural environment and natural resources, the built environment can be an equally important area of study, especially in historic towns and cities. Heritage buildings and historic environment promote a sense of pride for the nation because they contribute towards a sense of place and remind us of the lessons learnt from the past as we move towards the future. Thus, it is important to conserve and maintain the sustainability of historic cities and towns for future generations.

As less attention has been given to assessing the physical environmental impact of tourism in urban settlements, an attempt to explore a reliable way of doing this should be of benefit for future research. In developing a methodology, an understanding is needed of the typology of environmental impacts. According to Hunter and Green (1995), there are five main typologies of impacts, namely biodiversity, erosion and physical damage, pollution, resource base and visual/structural change. Each may be positive or negative impacts (Table 3.1). Some of the types of impacts suggested by Hunter and Green might not be applicable to all host areas and will depend on the type of economic activities and type of tourism involved. But the typology is a useful guideline for researchers when conducting research or assessing the various dimensions of environmental impact.

Generally, urban settlements with significant economic functions, cultural, heritage and other attractions may attract visitors and help to regenerate the destination by promoting

urban tourism. The historic towns and cities that offer a unique historical background and a variety of styles and period urban forms may deteriorate if they receive too high a volume of tourists, because of the fragility of the old buildings and their historic setting.

Area of Impact	Negative Impacts	Positive Impacts
Biodiversity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Disruption of breeding habitat/feeding patterns</li> <li>• Killing of animals for leisure (hunting) or to supply souvenir trade</li> <li>• Loss of habitats and change in species composition</li> <li>• Destruction of vegetation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouragement to conserve animals as attractions</li> <li>• Establishments of protected or conserved areas to meet tourist demands</li> </ul>
Erosion and physical damage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Soil erosion</li> <li>• Damage to sites through trampling</li> <li>• Overloading of key infrastructure (e.g. water supply networks)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tourism revenue to finance ground repair and site restoration</li> <li>• Improvement to infrastructure prompted by tourist demand</li> </ul>
Pollution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Water pollution through sewerage or fuel spillage and rubbish from pleasure boats</li> <li>• Air pollution (e.g. vehicle emissions)</li> <li>• Noise pollution (e.g. from vehicles or tourist attractions: bars, discos etc)</li> <li>• littering</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cleaning programmes to protect the attractiveness of the location to tourists</li> </ul>
Resource base	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Depletion of ground and surface water</li> <li>• Diversion of water supply to meet tourist needs (e.g. golf courses or pools)</li> <li>• Depletion of local building material sources</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Development of new/ improved sources of supply</li> </ul>
Visual/ structural change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Land transfers to tourism (e.g. from farming)</li> <li>• Detrimental visual impact on natural and non-natural landscapes through tourism development</li> <li>• Introduction of new architectural styles</li> <li>• Changes in (urban) functions</li> <li>• Physical expansion of built-up areas</li> <li>• Facilities (parking)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New uses for marginal or unproductive lands</li> <li>• Landscape improvement (e.g. to clear urban dereliction)</li> <li>• Regeneration and /or modernisation of built environment</li> <li>• Reuse of disused buildings</li> </ul>

Table 3.1: Typologies of environmental impacts

Source: Hunter and Green (1995)

### 3.7 The Impacts of Tourism on the Built Environment

The impacts of tourism can be classified into 3 categories, namely economic, social and environmental impacts. There are different forms of environment but the one being focused on in this research is the built environment, primarily in historic towns, since less attention has been given to this in previous work. An added focus is the extent to which the impacts of tourism on the built environment are perceived by users and providers.

Tourism in historic towns has been extensively studied, of course, but with an emphasis mainly on the management of tourism resources, including the roles of heritage managers and tourism officers in that process. Regarding the environment, most scholars have measured the impacts of tourism primarily on the natural environment such as mountains, beaches and forests rather than on the built environment.

The categories of environmental impacts of tourism on the built environment that have been identified by Hunter and Green (1995) are most applicable in the urban historic context (Table 3.2). The potential environmental impacts of tourism can be divided into direct and indirect impacts and the effect of impacts can be negative as well as positive. Hunter and Green suggest six typologies of built environmental impacts of tourism: urban forms, infrastructure, visual impacts, restoration, erosion and pollution. This classification was developed using the Delphi technique with a panel of experts. Although an advantage of the Delphi technique is that it can draw on expert and informed opinions, a disadvantage can be the difficulty of agreeing on the form of the impacts under consideration, as different experts will have different and perhaps strongly held views. In a heritage town, it might be expected that key stakeholders will have significant views on their perception of the impact of tourism

on the historic built environment. These views are expected to be beneficial to the present research.

Impact aspects	Potential Consequences
Urban forms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Change in character of built area through urban expansion or redevelopment</li> <li>• Change in residential, retail or industrial land uses (e.g. move from private homes to hotels/boarding houses)</li> <li>• Changes to the urban fabric (e.g. roads, pavements, street furniture)</li> <li>• Emergence of contrasts between urban areas developed for the tourist population and those for the host population</li> </ul>
Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Overload of infrastructure (e.g. roads, railways, car parking, electricity grid, communications systems, waste disposal, buildings, water supply)</li> <li>• Provision of new infrastructure or upgrading of existing infrastructure</li> <li>• Environmental management to adapt areas for tourist use (e.g. sea walls, land reclamation)</li> </ul>
Visual impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growth of the built-up area</li> <li>• New architectural styles</li> <li>• People and belongings, litter</li> <li>• Beautification</li> </ul>
Restoration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Re-use of disused buildings</li> <li>• Restoration and preservation of historic buildings and sites</li> <li>• Restoration of derelict buildings as second homes</li> </ul>
Erosion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Damage to built assets from feet and vehicular traffic (including vibration effects)</li> </ul>
Pollution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Air pollution from tourists and tourist traffic</li> <li>• Air pollution from non-tourist sources causing damage to built assets</li> </ul>

Table 3.2: Major potential impacts of tourism on the built environment

Source: Hunter and Green (1995)



### 3.7.1 Urban Forms and Morphology

Many of the changes resulting from tourism development or tourism demand affect the character of the built-up area. For example, changes of building use from residential to retail or to a hotel; the introduction of street furniture, pavements and roads; and other changes that may be made with tourists rather than local residents in mind. These impacts can be viewed as objective (actual) or subjective, where places simply ‘feel’ different to how they were before. There can be both positive and negative dimensions to this. The perceived impact of changes to urban forms relates to the expectations, values and motivations of the beholder. According to Suraiyati (2005) the perceived physical environmental impact of tourism is based on their values, which relate to their socio-demographic background. Those who value history and heritage will tend to perceive transformation to ‘modernity’ and ‘sophistication’ as a negative impact of tourism development. By contrast, others might perceive ‘modernity’ as a positive impact. It appears to be the same situation for land use change from residential to retail or hotels, or changes to the urban fabric such as modern architecture, as well as the emergence of a contrast between urban areas developed for the tourist population and the host population. The urban forms and morphology element can be clearly recognized by local residents and business providers since they are there all the time and see the changes taking place. To determine the extent of these impacts of tourism, the factors that contribute to the perceptions of them should be examined, such as socio-demographic background, and the value system and motivation of respondents.

### 3.7.2 Infrastructure

Tourism development in towns and cities will affect the existing infrastructure including roads, car parking, electricity, communication systems, waste disposal, buildings and water supply. This is due to the demand from tourism for secondary elements which support the tourism industry. The provision of new infrastructure, the upgrading of existing infrastructure and the adaptation of areas for use by tourists are among the impacts that may occur. If the management of a heritage town fails to cope with users' demands, there will be negative impacts such as a shortage of water supply or a lack of parking space during the peak season. Infrastructure is an important element in the quality of a tourist destination used not only by visitors but also by local residents and business providers.

### 3.7.3 Visual Impacts

The visual context plays an important role in representing the urban historic environment. The distinctiveness of a heritage town is easily portrayed by its appearance. According to Hunter and Green (1995), the consequences of 'visual impact' include the growth of the built up area, new architectural styles, wear and tear, beautification, people and cultural features. The visual aspect is also subjective, being seen and judged through the eyes of the beholder. Among the factors that may influence the visual impact as perceived by the beholders is their socio-demographic background (Suraiyati, 2005). Nowadays, the demands of tourists, service providers and local communities have contributed to changes in the visual aspects of tourism destinations, in response to user expectations.

### 3.7.4 Restoration, Conservation and Rebuilding

Heritage tourism has done much to encourage the preservation of valuable historic buildings. However, the restoration and preservation of old buildings or sites is the responsibility of the owners or managers of heritage sites or monuments. The preservation and commodification of the heritage product is determined by the owners' motivations, whether educational, leisure, entertainment or preservation for the nation. Thus a site or a heritage product will be restored or conserved based on their motivation and goals. As suggested by Hunter and Green (1995), one of the built environmental impacts of tourism is restoration. However, restoration is only one form of preservation.

Figure 3.3 shows a range of actions that can be taken in response to decay (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000). The action chosen can be to accept decay, either passively or actively, or to prevent it. The future of most buildings will be determined in these ways, though there are other circumstances for demolition, for example arising from war or economic pressures for urban change, social conservatism or natural disasters such as earthquakes or fires.

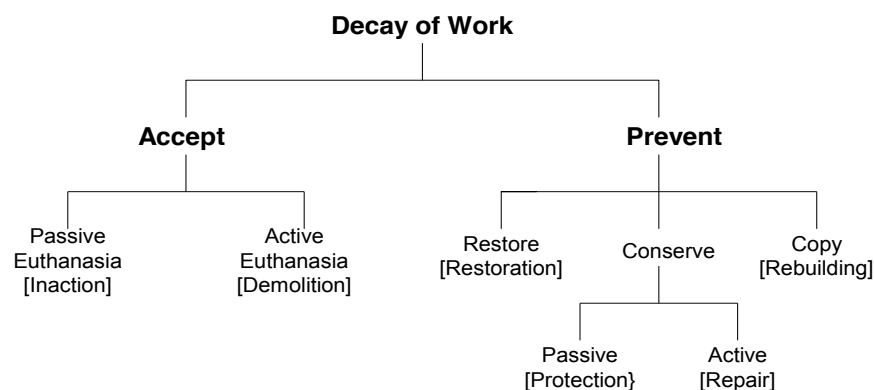


Figure 3.3: Actions in response to decay

Source: Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000)

The three main actions to prevent decay are restoration, conservation and rebuilding, or copying (see Figure 3.3). Conservation can be passive (protection) or active (repair) and the lowest level of intervention is protection from damage. According to Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000), all preservation is intervention which to a degree affects the authenticity of the object.

The repair of heritage monuments, buildings or sites may require damaged or missing parts to be replaced. Sometimes, original, authentic materials must be used but in other circumstances modern materials are not only acceptable but desirable, for example, as was the case in replacing part of the foundations of York Minster from 1966-75, when new materials were used. On the other hand, drastic change occurs when individual buildings are physically moved or re-assembled in a new location due to threatened clearance or demolition in the original setting. There are also examples where replica buildings are created, perhaps as a result of war damage, as seen in parts of Europe and Japan.

There will always be an argument in favour of leaving historic buildings as near as possible in their present condition and doing the minimum necessary to protect and repair them. On the other hand, there may be a demand for the adaptive re-use of old buildings, due to tourism development. To give just one example, the use of old city centre or waterfront warehouses as hotels, apartments and cultural centres is a common feature in many towns and cities. Often, tourism is a driver of such change and development.

The current guidance for local planning authorities in England on the protection of listed buildings and conservation areas is contained in Planning Policy Statement 5, Planning

for the Historic Environment (PPS 5, DCLG 2010), which replaced Planning Policy Guidance 15 and 16 published respectively in 1994 and 1990. This guidance, backed by legislation, has helped the cause of sustainable tourism by setting out the Government's policies for the identification and protection of historic buildings, conservation areas, and other elements of the historic environment.

### 3.8 Methods of Assessing Environmental Impacts

There are various methods for assessing environmental impacts but few specific methods for measuring the impacts of tourism on the built environment. The most important of these that is relevant to the present study is carrying capacity. The section reviews this and a number of other methods.

#### 3.8.1 The Concept of Carrying Capacity

According to Williams (1998), the concept of carrying capacity is a well established approach to understanding the ability of tourist places to withstand use and is inherent in the notion of sustainability. It is undeniable that for any environment, whether natural or built environment, there is a capacity (level of use) which, when exceeded, is likely to result in varying levels of damage and reduced levels of visitor satisfaction.

Sustainable development is essentially about the management of change over time (Butler, 1980). Butler's tourist-area cycle of evolution is a useful model that relates to carrying capacity, as shown in Figure 3.4. The model incorporates the idea of sustainable

development by suggesting there is a limit to tourist numbers - a maximum *carrying capacity* - beyond which development at a tourism destination becomes unsustainable and declines (Pearce, 1989). Butler (1980,1991) claimed that if specific steps are not taken, tourist destination areas and resources will inevitably become over-used, unattractive and eventually experience decline. Butler's model explained several stages of evolutionary development namely, exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, decline and perhaps rejuvenation. Referring to Figure 3.4, at stagnation phase, tourist numbers may follow different pathways, depending on actions taken or not taken. Successful interventions will trigger reduced growth in visitor numbers or rejuvenation of the destination, or perhaps both; inaction will lead to immediate or eventual decline. However, Butler did not indicate *how much* action or inaction will lead respectively to rejuvenation, stabilization or decline. His model was based on two principles: the product life cycle concept, widely used in business and advertising; and the growth curves of animal populations. Butler's ideas have received much attention in the literature as being inherently an attractive model concerning the environmental impacts of tourism.

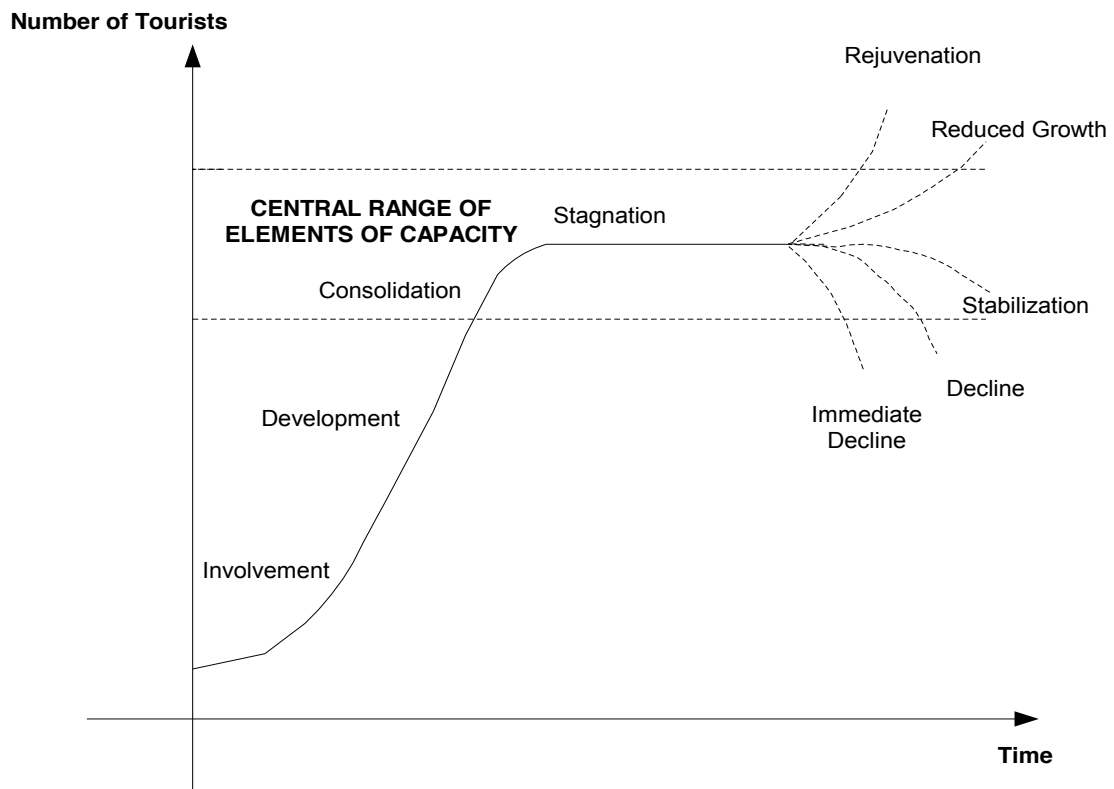


Figure 3.4: Butler's model of the evolution of tourism development at a destination

Source: Pearce (1989) adapted from Butler (1980)

According to O'Reilly (1986), tourism carrying capacity has two facets. First is the ability of the destination areas to absorb the impacts of tourism development, before the negative impacts become evident. Second is *the tourists' perceptions of environmental quality* and the risk that tourist numbers will decline because perceived capacities, including psychological carrying capacity, have been exceeded, and in turn the destination area ceases to attract. Both facets relate to the definition of Mathieson and Wall (1992) that tourism carrying capacity is 'the maximum number of people who can use a site or area without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by the visitors'. It shows that the measure of tourism carrying capacity must incorporate physical, psychological, social and economic elements.

O' Reilly (1986) has divided carrying capacity into four main aspects namely:

Physical Carrying Capacity	Limit of a site beyond which wear and tear will start taking place or environment problems will arise.
Psychological (or perceptual) Carrying Capacity	The lowest degree of enjoyment tourists are prepared to accept before they start seeking alternative destinations.
Social Carrying Capacity	The level of tolerance of the host population for the presence and behaviour of tourists in the destination area and/or the degree of crowding users (tourists) are prepared to accept by others (other tourists).
Economic Carrying Capacity	The ability to absorb tourism activities without displacing or disrupting desirable local activities.

According to Cooper et al (1998), carrying capacity is an extremely fluid and dynamic concept. This is due to the fact that the threshold levels determining carrying capacity are likely to grow over time, providing that the development of tourism continues. Although some scholars (O'Reilly, 1986; Coccossis and Parpairis, 1992, 1996; Cooper and John, 1993; Cooper and Wanhill, 1997; Shepherd, 1998, Abernethy, 2001; Simon et al., 2004) have debated the difficulties of quantifying the capacity ceiling and the problems of managing capacity, little attention has been given to exploring, among different groups of people, the perceptual or psychological aspects of carrying capacity in relation to the physical environmental impacts of tourism. . As Holden, (2000) has claimed, the main deficiency of carrying capacity analysis is that many of the problems associated with tourism are not necessarily a function of numbers but of people's behaviour.



To determine the level of carrying capacity, a number of factors should be taken into account (Cooper and John, 1993; Shepherd, 1998):

- The length of stay
- The characteristics of the tourists/hosts including numbers
- The geographical concentration of visitors
- The degree of seasonality
- The types of tourism activity
- The accessibility of specific sites
- The level of infrastructure use and its spare capacity
- The extent of spare capacity amongst the various productive sectors of the economy

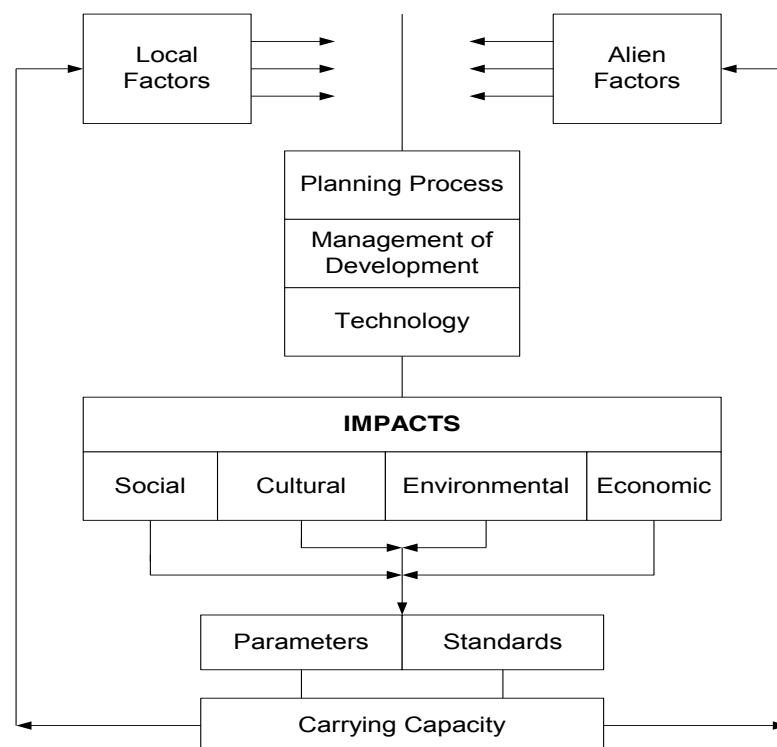


Figure 3.5: Schematic framework for determination of carrying capacity

Source: Cooper and John (1993), adapted from Atherton (1991) and Shelby (1984)

As shown in Figure 3.5, the process for determining carrying capacity can be influenced by many factors. The framework shows the broad group of factors involved along with the different stages that can influence the magnitude and direction of the impacts and hence the carrying capacity. 'Local factors' refer to the relative difference between local factors, their tourist counterparts and the speed of change. 'Alien factors' represent the tourist characteristics and are important in determining the impacts of tourism on the host community, especially social and cultural impacts.

'Impacts' are in four categories: social, cultural, environmental, and economic. The social structure of any destination is vital in determining the scale and nature of tourism impacts. For instance, the social structure of big cities such as London, New York and Sydney is more able to absorb and tolerate the presence of tourists than small and isolated destinations such as Port Louis in Mauritius. The cultural heritage of a destination is often what makes it attractive to tourists. Similarly, 'the environment' can be attractive to tourists, whether it be the natural or the man-made environment. The presence of tourists may change the environment either negatively or positively. However, it has to be acknowledged that environmental changes can be due to many factors and not just tourism.

Tourist characteristics also include visitor expenditure patterns, modes of transport, structure and size of party, age, educational background, income and purpose of visit. All these factors will influence the nature and magnitude of the impacts on the host community. The interaction between local and external factors within the host environment, and the planning and management process, should aim to secure the maximum positive benefits and incur the minimum costs. As indicated by Cooper, et al. (1998), planning, management and

technology factors act as a funnel between the interaction of local and external factors and the impact this interaction has on the tourism destination. The impacts that occur reflect the nature and magnitude of change brought about by the interaction between tourists and hosts, and by the tourism management and planning that has been implemented.

### 3.8.2 Other Methods

Others tools have been developed for assessing environmental impacts such as Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) and the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC). Methods that examine the framework for achieving sustainability are Visitor Impact Management (VIM) and Visitor Experience and Resource Protection (VERP). However both VIM and VERP, as their names imply, are primarily to assess *visitor* impact management and do not consider other important stakeholders of tourism sites. According to McCool (1996), the Limits of Acceptable Change system was developed in response to a growing recognition in the USA that attempts to define and implement recreational carrying capacities for national park and wilderness protected areas were both excessively failing. The advantage of the LAC system is that it does not attempt to quantify the numbers of tourists that can be accommodated in the area but rather to assess the acceptable environmental condition of the area, incorporating social, economic and environmental dimensions (Wight, 1998). However as stated by Frisell and Stankey (1972), the LAC has been proposed as an overall framework for addressing the issues of managing and ensuring quality recreation experiences.

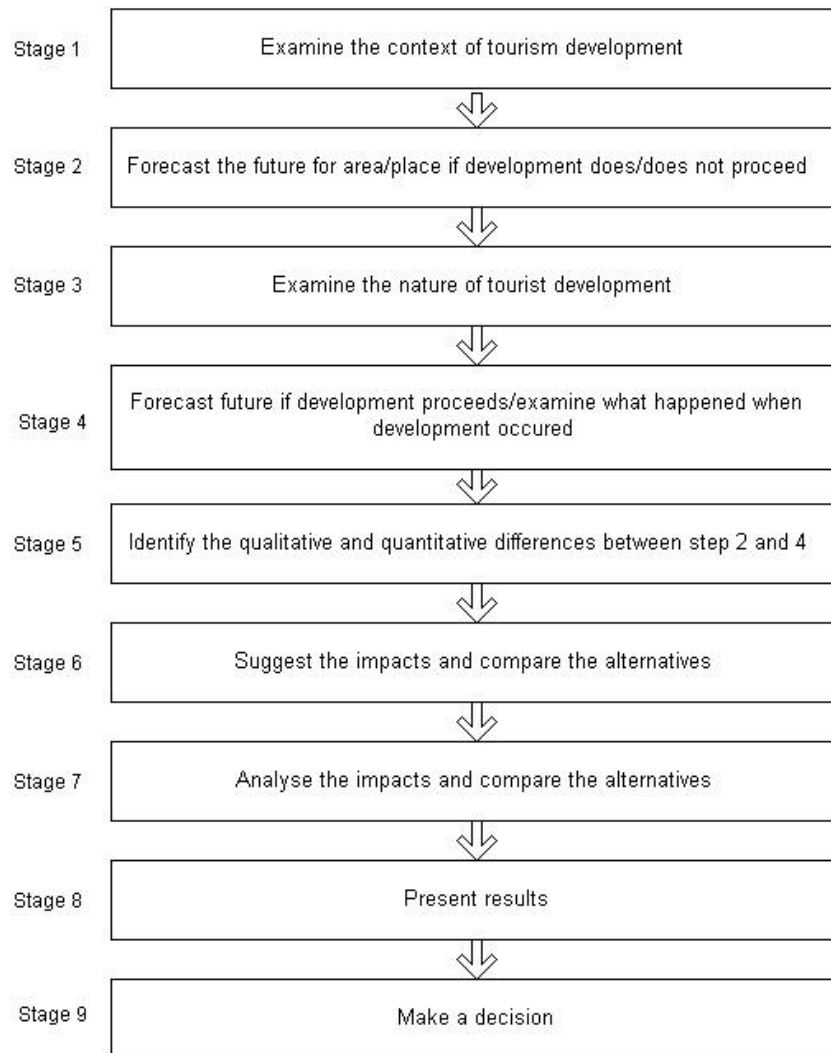


Figure 3.6 : Framework of the Limits of Acceptable Change system  
Source : Hall and Lew (1998)

As the LAC technique is primarily designed to identify the resource condition of an area, various elements need to be identified namely social, economic and environmental values, tourism potential and other management considerations. Hall and Lew (1998) explain that the main process of the LAC includes (1) examine the context of tourism development; (2) forecast the possible impact to the area if any development were taken or not ; (3) identifying a series of possible management actions that will achieve the desired conditions; and (4) developing an environmental monitoring and evaluation procedure to measure the

effectiveness of the management actions undertaken (see Figure 3.6). They note that the LAC system has the limitation that it needs detailed ecological information on the site and that the standards adopted will be arbitrary.

Environmental Impact Assessment has been a recognised planning tool for several decades. It has evolved to become ‘environmental assessment *and management*’ in recognition that is not only a tool but a process (Hall and Lew, 1998). EIA is often used to assess the likely effects of development on the environment, thereby providing decision makers with information on the expected consequences, if they decide to proceed with a development. In Malaysia, EIA is a requirement in the planning system for any development exceeding 20 hectares. Generally, EIAs assess future levels of noise pollution, visual impact, air quality, hydrological impact, land use and landscape changes associated with a development. This has resulted in a major problem which is the cost of preparation of an EIA which requires a variety of specialists including geologists, hydrologists, geographers, environmental scientists, sociologists and anthropologists, if the analysis is to include a social impact analysis (SIA) (Holden, 2000). Holden added that a further limitation of EIA is predicting the timing of impacts. Therefore, it is necessary to distinguish between those which will occur during construction, operation, and possible closure of the project development. The CEA (cumulative effects assessment) has been introduced as a means of dealing with the problem of cumulative impacts, including either the on-going effects of one particular project or the combined effects of a range of different projects.

### 3.9 In Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature on sustainability and the built environment and has considered a number a number of concepts of particular relevance to the present research, especially that of Hunter and Green (1995) on the major potential impacts of tourism on the built environment; and the work of Butler (1980, 1991), Williams (1998), O'Reilly (1986), Pearce (1989) and others on the carrying capacity of tourist destinations. Other methods of assessing environmental impacts have also been reviewed.

The next chapter continues the discussion by looking at the connection between heritage tourism and the built environment, leading to the establishment of a framework for the research.

## 4.0 HERITAGE TOURISM AND THE BUILT ENVIRONMENT: ISSUES AND QUESTIONS

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at the connection between heritage tourism and the built environment, with an emphasis on the physical impact of tourism on the historic urban environment, and how this impact is perceived by certain key stakeholders. This is followed by discussion of the literature reviewed in this and previous chapters, with a view to establishing a framework for the research. Finally, the research aims and research objectives are presented.

### 4.2 Heritage Tourism and the Built Environment

As discussed earlier, tourism activity can have a significant impact on the host area, especially where there is a high volume of visitors, perhaps with diverse social and cultural backgrounds. Tourism impact may be felt particularly in sensitive areas, such as those with an historic environment. As heritage resources are an important tourism asset, it is often stressed that tourism policy must include a sustainable approach to any development. The cost of maintaining the heritage environment may not be the paramount issue but it can never be ignored as an important factor in heritage management. The tourism industry in England can be a major contributor to sustaining valuable historic assets, but ‘excessive’ numbers of visitors (if ‘excessive’ can be defined) can be self-defeating, if they impact adversely on the heritage that attracts them. It might be expected that different stakeholders will have different views about this.

Heritage resources attract tourism and tourism may revitalize the towns in which it takes place, as explained by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) in their concept of the 'tourist-historic city'. In an historic environment, the physical environmental impact of tourism normally is seen as a matter for heritage management. Much heritage management research has focused on the definition of heritage, dissonance heritage and the commodification of heritage (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000; Tunbridge and Ashworth, 1996; Uzzell and Ballantyne, 1998); or on heritage motivation, visitor management, resource management and staff management (Shackley, 1998, 2000; Orbasli, 2000), as well as on heritage management and integrated heritage management (Garrod and Fyall, 2000; Hall and McArthur, 1998).

Hall and McArthur (1998) and Aas and Fletcher (2005) highlighted that many heritage management problems are caused by a lack of interaction among stakeholders. Furthermore, they indicated that heritage management is a process which needs to be integrated with the values and journeys of people's lives. The historic environment is vulnerable and needs special care if it is to be preserved for future generations, yet there has been only limited exploration of what shapes the perceptions of the physical environmental impact of tourism among different stakeholders. This is due to difficulties in assessing the impacts of tourism and has raised many issues, as discussed in the tourist-historic city concept. It is undeniable that the complex interactions of tourism, as well as the setting of tourism activities in historic urban environments which are shared by other activities and people, make it impossible to measure precisely how and in what ways all factors contribute to tourism impacts. Thus, there is insufficient baseline data to assess the extent of the physical environmental impacts of tourism (Page, 1995). To attempt to remedy this, a categorization of built environmental impacts of tourism is needed.



The built environmental impact categories suggested by Hunter and Green (1995) provide a useful starting point for stakeholders managing heritage resources in a tourist destination. A limitation of the approach, however, as noted in Chapter 3, is that the categories are derived from the application of the Delphi method, which uses a panel of experts and thus might not reflect the range of perceptions among all stakeholders.

An important aim of the present study is to develop from previous work by examining the perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements from the possibly different perspectives of certain key participants or stakeholders, namely: visitors, local business people in the tourist destination, managers of heritage attractions, and local government officers with tourism responsibilities.

## 4.3 The Literature

This section reviews several topics: previous research on the environmental impacts of tourism; carrying capacity and sustainability; perceptual studies on the environmental impacts of tourism; and heritage management.

### 4.3.1 Previous Research on the Environmental Impacts of Tourism

It has been noted previously that research on the environmental impacts of tourism has been extensive but has looked mainly at the natural environment such as coastal areas, forests, mountains and rural areas (Cohen, 1978; Romeril, 1989; Farrell and Runyan, 1991; Sun and

Walsh, 1998; Madan and Rawat, 2000; Deng, et al., 2003; Burak et al., 2004; Pérez and Nadal, 2005; Petrosillo et al., 2006; Allendorf, Smith and Anderson, 2007; Byrd et al., 2009). Until recently, research on the physical environmental impacts of tourism in historic urban environments such as heritage towns has been limited. Research on degradation and the environmental impact of tourism has concentrated on monuments, individual historic buildings and historic sites such as World Heritage Sites (Shackley, 2000; Nicholas, Thapa and Ko, 2009) rather than on the urban historic environment as a whole. As discussed earlier, this is probably due to the complexities of examining the environmental impacts of tourism in urban historic environments. The factors that contribute to environmental impacts in urban settlements are not primarily tourism activity but rather, other economic activity and host activity. The complexity of such interrelated activities in the same setting gives rise to many methodological issues which have resulted in limited guidance in assessing the built environmental impacts of tourism.

An understanding of built environment impacts is vital to an assessment of the current condition and potential impact of tourism activities at tourism destinations; and is an important dimension of strategic heritage management and planning for tourism sustainability. Yet in the substantial literature on heritage management, most attention has been focused on the use of visitor management and resource management to mitigate the impacts of tourism activity (for example, Hall and Lew, 1998 ; Orbasli, 2000; Russo et al., 2001; Shackley, 1997, 2000). Previous studies related to environmental impacts have shown a diverse range, including: tourism and the environment; the environmental impacts of tourism, primarily from visitors' and local residents' perspectives; the tools and techniques for assessing environmental impacts; and tourism management. Among recent studies,

Pearce (2001) outlined an integrative framework for analysis which offers a systematic and coherent perspective on urban tourism. As shown in Figure 4.1, the framework consists of subject cells within a matrix defined in terms of scale (site, district, city-wide, regional/national/international) and themes (including demand, supply, development and impact management). The relationship between scale and themes can be seen both vertically and horizontally, and from micro level to macro level. This integrative framework helps in suggesting themes that can be adopted for study. However, with the limitations of time and funding that affect the present research, a choice from the themes suggested by Pearce is considered appropriate for this study, namely those of demand, supply and impact management at the site (or tourist destination).

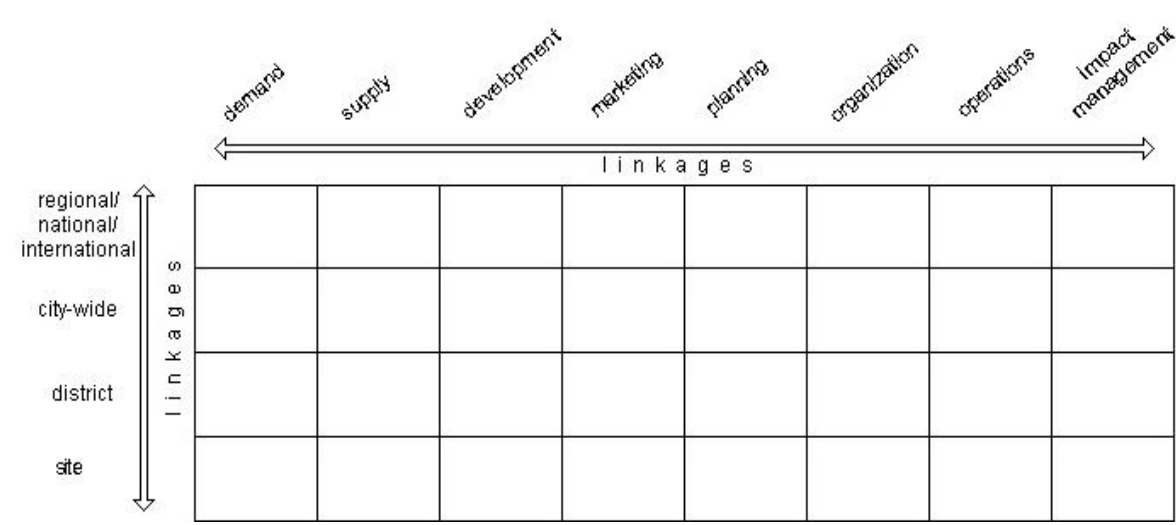


Figure 4.1: An integrative framework for Urban Tourism Research

Source : Pearce (2001)

In contrast, as noted in Chapter 3, Haughton (1999) claimed that environmental impacts are not caused primarily by tourism activities but rather by the lack of plans, policies and action as a framework for economic growth. Haughton’s research on information and

participation within environmental management reviews the key components of the process for informed and participatory environmental management and planning in urban areas. Haughton emphasizes the role of the community in understanding the environment and helping to develop appropriate responses, including those associated with external technical expertise such as environmental impact assessment, capacity studies and environmental initiatives. According to Haughton, urban environmental problems are predominantly the result of a large number of decisions which in some ways damage the urban, regional and global environment. In Haughton's view, this damage can be attributed to a poor information base, political and economic systems, and poverty driven decisions which favour short-term survival; moreover, it is often the case that people have not thought of the full direct and indirect impacts of their decisions. The objective of Haughton's research was to shape the urban environment of the twenty-first century, by developing an understanding of actions taken with support from UK governments. He argued that a better and more informed process of decision making, including community participation, is needed if further damage to the urban, regional and global environment is to be avoided.

The literature previously reviewed (see Chapter 3) shows various approaches that have been used to examine or assess environmental impacts, including carrying capacity, limits of acceptable change (LAC) and environmental impact assessment (EIA). In general, the framework for assessing the impact of tourism development, as suggested by Page (1995), is similar in principle to those of EIA and LAC. It is designed to suggest the impact of potential or planned development. The resulting analysis can then be taken into account in deciding whether to go ahead with the development. The method is less suitable, however, for assessing the impact of tourism attractions that already exist, though some stages in the

framework could be left out and others modified, according to local circumstances. In established destinations, the impact of tourism is already evident and the task for, say, the local authority in managing a heritage town is to follow an approach that enables the destination to benefit from tourism activity while limiting or reducing the impacts of tourism on the built environment.

#### 4.3.2 Carrying Capacity and Sustainability

The carrying capacity concept predates the concept of sustainable development. Both have a strong relationship in helping to maintain the natural and the built environment for future needs. Concern for sustainability has grown in the past thirty years due to increasing problems of environmental degradation arising from economic development.

The concept of carrying capacity has been debated extensively, as discussed in the previous chapter. There are issues of measurement and of implementation. What is the 'capacity' of a destination? How can 'capacity' be assessed? Are the principles of assessment the same for different types of location, for example, urban and rural, man-made or natural? And can a carrying capacity policy be implemented in practice?

Canestrelli and Costa (1991) showed how a policy could be devised. They assessed the carrying capacity of the historic centre of Venice, having first established the following:

- i) The historic centre of Venice comprises 700 hectares, with buildings protected from alteration by government legislation;

- ii) The resident population of this area in the 1980s was 83,000 with a further 47,000 daily commuters. The resident population had fallen from 175,000 in 1951;
- iii) The availability of facilities such as hotels, guest houses and restaurants and the categories of tourists (eg residents, day visitors) they could support;
- iv) The local tourist-dependent and non-tourist-dependent population in the locality and the theoretical relationship that exists between tourists and these two groups.

Canestrelli and Costa used a linear programming technique to explore the optimal growth of Venice as a tourist destination. Their findings revealed that the optimal carrying capacity for Venice would be to admit 9,780 tourists who use the hotel accommodation at an assumed occupancy rate of 89 per cent, 1,460 tourists staying in non-hotel accommodation and 10,857 day-trippers on a daily basis. In fact other research estimated that, in 1984, a daily average of 37,500 day trippers visited Venice in August alone and that the daily maximum could be as high as 80,000. Thus, while the supply of accommodation placed a limit on the number of resident visitors, no such restrictions were in place to limit the number of day visitors. It was argued that a ceiling of 25,000 visitors a day should be adopted as a maximum carrying capacity for Venice. Yet until recently the number of tourist arrivals to the historic city of Venice exceeded the desirable limit each year (Page and Hall, 2003).

This excess in the number of tourists to Venice has resulted in a range of social, economic and environmental problems. As van der Borg (1992: 52) observed:

‘the negative external effects connected with the overloading of the capacity are rapidly increasing, frustrating the centre’s economy and society...excursionism

(day tripping) is becoming increasingly important, while residential tourism is losing relevance for the local tourism market and the local benefits are diminishing. Tourism is becoming increasingly ineffective for Venice.'

This shows that the negative impact of tourism on the historic centre of Venice is now resulting in a self-enforcing decline as excursionists contribute less to the local economy than staying visitors (Glasson et al., 1995). The high volume of overcrowding caused by day visitors also means the staying market has become less attractive. Another issue is the increasing incidence of flooding, which has a negative effect for both the local and the tourist population. As shown by Page and Hall (2003), St. Mark's Square, which is an iconic site for visitors, now experiences floods 40-60 times a year compared to 4-6 times a year at the beginning of the twentieth century. Venice is gradually sinking. At the same time, it is experiencing pollution of the lagoon in which it is located and atmospheric pollution, partly from nearby industries (Grandi and Szpyrkowicz, 2000). Page and Hall (2003) added that the example of Venice has shown that though tangible economic benefits accrue to the city through tourism, the social and environmental costs are very substantial.

So far, Venice has not implemented any restriction or quota on visitor numbers, yet tourist arrivals, especially day trippers, consistently exceed what are thought to be desirable levels. A destination that has implemented a restriction on visitor numbers is the Himalayan country of Bhutan, where almost all international visits have to be arranged through an authorised travel agency. Among the reasons for this policy are said to be a desire to maintain the environment of the destination and for the economy of a small country not to be overwhelmed by tourism. Such measures could not be adopted, however, in most situations,

such as towns and cities, or rural areas, which are in themselves tourist destinations, although it is now commonplace for certain individual sites such as the Alhambra in Granada, Spain, to control the number of visitors each day and the times at which they may be admitted.

Because of the complexities of determining ‘appropriate’ levels of visitor numbers, there can be a temptation to rely on quantitative approaches. On the other hand, implementation of a quota of visitor numbers would be a very difficult decision for local or even national politicians. Moreover, restrictions might not even be successful in achieving the desired results since, as Holden (2000) has pointed out, the main deficiency of carrying capacity analysis is that many of the problems associated with tourism are not necessarily a function of numbers but of people’s behaviour.

Simón et al. (2004) explored the concept of carrying capacity alternatives and put forward proposals for determining, managing, controlling and increasing the environmental carrying capacity of a tourist destination. Hengistbury Head, to the east of Bournemouth in Dorset, UK was selected as a case study. It is a Local Nature Reserve and a Site of Special Scientific Interest. Environmental problems affect the area, including erosion along the southern shore which is constantly scoured by the wind and waves. Nesting birds are easily disturbed by both people and dogs and trampling on the dunes disrupts the pioneer phase of plant colonization. The area is well used by visitors and problems were expected to get worse because of pressure from the further development of Bournemouth.

On the basis of the study, it was argued that there is no fixed level of carrying capacity and that many factors can influence the number of visitors a site can sustain. Some of these



factors can be affected beneficially by further practical improvements to the management of a site. More generally, the authors concluded that the main problems faced in measuring carrying capacity are:

- 1) Carrying capacity means different things to different people; there is no universal definition and it is 'centred around tolerance levels' (Cooper et al., 1998: 192).
- 2) There is a variety of standards to measure.
- 3) Carrying capacity is a dynamic and fluid concept which can depend on the speed of change.
- 4) The concept is virtually unquantifiable (Abernethy, 2001).
- 5) There are difficulties in predicting impacts.
- 6) Management can alter effects or processes and therefore, impact assessment must be made before, during and after any development.
- 7) Solutions proposed by different experts do not often achieve general agreement.
- 8) The concept has been criticised as being 'deficient in theory, unrealistic in implementation and impossible to measure' (Papageorgiou and Brotherton, 1999: 271)

The conclusion to be drawn from these studies casts doubt on the validity of the concept of carrying capacity in assessments of the environmental impact of tourism. Clearly, the concept has a place in helping us to recognise there is a limit to the number of visitors that can be accommodated at tourism destinations. However, policies that depend on the notion of carrying capacity are likely to be unacceptable to most users and providers.

### 4.3.3 Perception Studies on the Environmental Impact of Tourism

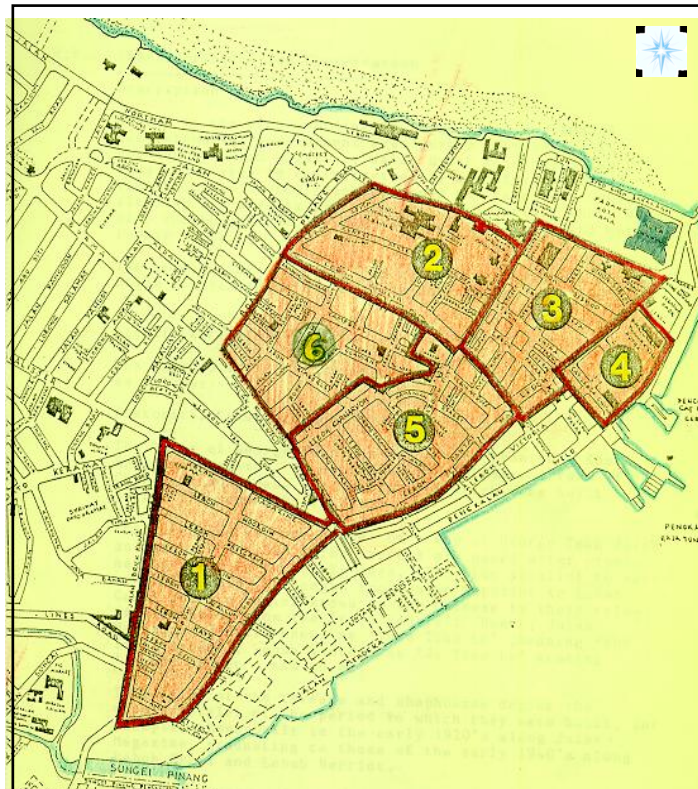
According to Getz (1983), accelerated levels of visitation or development would lead to an unacceptable deterioration in the physical environment and of the visitor's experience. However, Hillery et al., (2001) have shown a contradictory finding which revealed that the level of visitation did not affect the extent of physical environmental impacts. They investigated the relationship between measured environmental impacts and tourists' perception at ten sites in Central Australia. The hypothesis was that the extent of environmental impact was likely to be greater at sites with higher annual tourist arrivals. The extent of environmental impact was measured by the indicator of relative impact among sites measured (shrub/tree damage, ground cover damage, soil compaction, garbage, and tourist formal and informal tracks). Tourists' perceptions were measured through questionnaires, using a Likert scale, to indicate the condition of plants, ground soil, and formal and informal tracks. The results revealed that a relatively high proportion of plots across all ten sites were completely unaffected by any of the measured signs of environmental impact which is noteworthy since the sampling occurred in areas predetermined to have the likely highest tourism impact. The most widespread impacts for all sites combined were the spread of tourist made (informal) tracks and associated plant damage and soil compaction. The extent of the areas within a site affected by all measured tourism impacts was not related to the annual number of users but the intensity was. The findings from this study of the western MacDonnell Ranges also showed a consistent result as many tourists did not distinguish, either in a general sense or for specific environmental impacts, between the site they were at and other sites they had visited. Local residents were more likely to rate the state of the environment at a particular site lower than did non-local tourists but rated the state of the

environment in the overall region highly. Local users have shown greater sensitivity to environmental impacts compared with non-locals in some studies (Holdnak et al., 1993), although others have shown few differences between tourists and the broader resident population living around a destination (Dowling, 1993).

Besides that, the main significant factors of tourism impacts depend on the profile characteristics of the tourists as well as the nature of the environment being impacted. This has been shown in many studies, where socio-demographic background, cultural ties and past experiences have influenced how people perceived environmental impacts (Liu et al., 1987; Hillery et al., 2001; Williams and Lawson, 2001; Suraiyati, 2005; Petrosilli et al., 2007; and Zhong et al., 2011 ). Williams and Lawson (2001) examined how the residents of ten New Zealand towns perceived the effect of tourism on their communities. Local opinions and perceptions of tourism were used to segment the sample into four distinct opinion groups using cluster analysis: ‘lover’, ‘cynic’, ‘taxpayer’ and ‘innocent’. The research showed that higher order principles (values) are a more important determinant of attitudes than socio-demographic variables. This does not mean that socio-demographic variables do not affect the perception of environmental impact but that values were found to be more significant. Petrosilli et al. (2007) have shown that education level and place of residence significantly influence the tourist perception on awareness. Similarly Liu et al. (1987) and Suraiyati (2005) have shown that the socio-demographic characteristics of a local community influenced its perception of physical environmental impacts.

Research by Suraiyati (2005) on the perception by the local community of the physical environmental impact of tourist arrivals in six Conservation Zones in Georgetown, Penang,

Malaysia, revealed five main dimensions of the built environmental impact of tourism: physical environment, natural environment, utilities and maintenance, architectural and visual appearance, and conservation. Figure 4.2 shows the six conservation zones in Georgetown, Penang, Malaysia.



Scale: 1cm = 6.5km (approximately)

Figure 4.2: The six conservation zones, Georgetown, Penang, Malaysia

Source: Maimunah & Lee Lik Meng, (2001) The Experience of Penang State Council in Conservation of Heritage Premises, Taiping Heritage Town Seminar, 10-11 September 2001.

The purpose of the study was to examine the relative significant of elements characterizing the physical environmental impacts of tourism in conservation zones of Penang. Seventeen physical environmental impacts (see Table 4.2) were derived from the built environment typology developed by Hunter and Green (1995). Questionnaire interviews were

conducted with people living and/or working in the each of the six conservation zones, using an interval sampling approach, based on the number of occupied buildings in each zone. The sample achieved was 87% of the sample frame of 233. The distribution of the sample between the six zones is shown in Table 4.1

Zone	Total of Premises	Sample Size (5% x Total of Premises)
Zone 1 (Seven streets)	1126	57
Zone 2 (Cultural precinct)	578	29
Zone 3 (Historic commercial centre : Little India and traditional business communities)	702	35
Zone 4 (Waterfront business-financial district: banking, shipping and corporate business )	113	6
Zone 5 (Mosque and clan house enclave)	1219	61
Zone 6 (Market and shopping precinct)	894	45
TOTAL	4645	233

Table 4.1: The distribution of premises and the sample frame in six conservation zones, Penang, Malaysia

The main focus of the survey was to explore the perception of those interviewed on the relative significance of the seventeen physical environmental impacts attributed to tourism in Penang. Responses were analysed by zone and by respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. Taking the six zones together, the survey found that the respondents' perception on tourist arrivals gave mixed impacts. As shown in Table 4.2, some potential impacts were seen as neutral: traffic congestion (51 per cent), rubbish pollution (65 per cent), noise pollution (65 per cent), and quality of life (61 per cent). On the other hand, parking utilities were seen to be negatively influenced by tourism (61 per cent). The positive impacts

from tourism were seen as water and electricity supply systems (57 and 64 per cent respectively), urban landscape (38 per cent), the reuse of old buildings (43 per cent), the restoration and preservation of historic sites and buildings (59 per cent) and land use changes associated with tourist accommodation (44 per cent). A majority of respondents disagreed that tourism resulted in vandalism of premises, population growth and new architecture style.

Physical Impacts	Not Sure (%)	Negative (%)	Neutral (%)	Positive (%)	Total (%)
Traffic congestion	3.0	41.6	51.0	4.5	100
Rubbish pollution	1.5	28.7	65.3	4.5	100
Noise pollution	0.5	30.2	64.9	4.5	100
Quality of life	1.0	3.0	60.9	31.2	96
Waste disposal system	0	48.5	44.6	6.9	100
Water supply system	2.0	7.9	33.7	56.5	100
Electricity supply system	2.0	2.0	32.2	63.9	100
Parking utilities	2.0	60.8	10.4	26.7	100
Tourist facilities	3.5	5.0	31.7	59.9	100
Urban landscape	5.0	23.3	33.7	38.2	100
Reuse old building	6.9	30.2	20.3	42.5	100
Restoration and preservation of historic sites and buildings	11.4	5.5	24.3	58.9	100
Land use changes to tourist accommodation	18.3	3.0	35.1	43.6	100

Physical Impacts	Disagree (%)	Not Sure (%)	Agree (%)	Total (%)
Vandalism of premises	60.4	16.8	22.8	100
New architecture style	52.6	14.8	32.6	100
Expansion of built area	44.1	8.4	47.6	100
Population growth	55.5	7.4	37.1	100

Table 4.2: The perception of the local community of the physical impacts of tourism in Georgetown, Penang

Using factor analysis, the survey data for all six areas were combined to examine the perceptions of the relative significance of each element of the physical environmental impacts of tourism in the historic conservation area of Penang (see Table 4.3).

Items	Factors					Communalities
	1	2	3	4	5	
1 Traffic congestion	-.221	.869	-6.504E-03	.125	.138	.839
2 Rubbish pollution	-.354	.838	4.691E-02	7.776E-02	.197	.874
3 Noise pollution	-.401	.792	1.082E-02	-.154	.139	.832
4 Quality of Life	.621	.162	-4.162E-02	-.231	.158	.491
5 Waste disposal	.566	.112	.375	-.290	.291	.641
6 Water supply	.409	-.190	.465	.120	.488	.672
7 Electricity supply	.416	-2.107E-02	.601	.328	-.115	.656
8 Parking utilities	.691	.158	5.903E-02	-.247	-.104	.578
9 Tourist facilities	.669	6.129E-02	.355	.137	-5.878E-02	.599
10 Urban lanscape	.625	.192	-.197	-.372	-.333	.715
11 Reuse old building	.503	.288	.255	.322	-.329	.613
12 Restoration and preservation of historic sites and buildings	.467	-.243	-.104	-.177	.559	.633
13 Changes of land use as tourist accommodation	.722	.327	.265	4.711E-02	-.198	.740
14 Vandalism	.440	4.421E-03	-.511	-.290	-1.000E-01	.549
15 New architectural styles	.423	2.174E-02	-.516	.611	.134	.837
16 Expansion of built area	.554	1.830E-02	-.594	.406	.132	.843
17 Population growth	.583	.292	-.448	-7.245E-02	3.837E-02	.632

Note: Significant factors in bold (values greater than  $\pm 0.3$ , Child (1979))

Table 4.3: Factor loadings of physical environmental impact of tourism in Penang

Source: Suraiyati (2005)

The scree test method was used to extract the five factors shown in Table 4.3, which represent the five main dimensions of the built environmental impact of tourism in the six conservation zones of Georgetown, Penang. The first factor (Column 1) is the most important because it accounts for the largest proportion of variance among the seventeen *physical environmental* impacts, all of which, except for traffic congestion, were agreed by respondents to be affected by tourist arrivals. The first factor interprets the other 4 factors more specifically. The second factor (Column 2) contains significant loadings on: (1) traffic congestion, (2) rubbish pollution, (3) noise pollution and (13) changes of land use as tourist accommodation. These can be said to represent the *natural environment*. The third factor (Column 3) represents *utilities and maintenance*. The significant items are waste disposal system (5), water supply system (6), electricity system (7), vandalism of buildings (14), new architectural style (15), expansion of built area (16), and population growth (17). The fourth and fifth factors represent *architectural and visual* elements, with their significant loading of urban landscape, re-use of old premises, new architectural style and expansion of built area. The fifth factor also includes restoration and preservation, thus representing the *conservation* of historic sites and buildings.

A further finding from this study was that the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents had a differential influence on perceptions in each of the six conservation zones of Penang (Suraiyati, op cit). Each of the zones was found to have its own sensitivity towards the management of heritage conservation. Overall, however, most respondents perceived tourism as having positive impacts on conservation and the preservation of historic sites and old buildings, the re-use of old buildings, the appearance of the urban landscape, and tourism



facilities and infrastructure. The negative impact was seen to be the pressure on limited parking facilities due to the high number of visitors.

To conclude this section, Table 4.4 summarises some of the main previous findings on the perceived environmental impact of tourism that have been explained earlier in this chapter. These help to provide a direction for the present research.

Scholars	Findings
Getz (1983)	Accelerated levels of visitation or development will lead to an unacceptable deterioration in the physical environment and of the visitor's experience.
Gray (1985)	The success of the stakeholder involvement process is not dependent on the final outcome of the process but rather the interest, perspectives and values of stakeholders are represented in decisions.
Liu et al. (1987)	Socio-demographics of the local community influenced the perception of physical environmental impacts.
Holdnak et al. (1993)	In some studies, local users have shown greater sensitivity to environmental impacts compared with non-locals.
Dowling (1993)	Shown few differences between tourists and the broader resident population living around a destination.
Jamal and Getz (1995)	A destination community's assets (e.g. World Heritage Sites) can be shared by local residents, visitors, private and public sector interests.
Hillery et al. (2001)	The extent of the area within a site affected by all measured tourism impacts was not related to the annual number of users but the intensity (concentration area) was.
Williams and Lawson (2001)	Local opinions and perceptions of tourism were used to segment the sample into four distinct opinion groups using cluster analysis: lover, cynic, taxpayer and innocent. The importance of higher order principles (values) will be more of a determinant of attitudes than socio-demographic variables
Suraiyati (2005)	Socio-demographic characteristics of local community influenced the perception of physical environmental impacts. Perceived built environment impacts of tourism can be divided into: physical environment, natural environment, utilities and maintenance, architectural and visual, and conservation.
Petrosilli et al. (2007)	Education level and place of residence are significantly related to the tourist perception of environmental awareness

Table 4.4: Summary of Previous Research on the Perceived Environmental Impact of Tourism

#### 4.3.4 Heritage Management

Research on heritage management has tended to look at the values, motivations and expectations of visitors, and at the process of managing heritage facilities or a heritage town. Understanding visitor motivation is an important theme (Davies and Prentice, 1995 and Poria et al., 2006). However very little research, apart from Aas et al. (2005) and Poria et al. (2006), considers the relationship between ‘values and motivation’ and the perceived impacts of tourism.

Garrod and Fyall (2000) investigated the major constraints and imperatives relating to the long-term management of built heritage attractions in the United Kingdom. A survey was conducted of 300 managers and owners of built heritage properties, officers of organisations with a heritage remit, and heritage tourism consultants. Built heritage attractions were broadly defined as any property that attracts the public by virtue of its explicit connection with the past. Three related issues were assessed: (a) how the decision whether or not to charge admission prices is determined, and how prices are set in places where they are used; (b) the type of visitor impact experienced at these attractions and the degree of severity of such impacts; and (c) respondents’ perceptions of what should be the fundamental mission of heritage attractions. These issues were further explored with a small panel of experts, using the Delphi technique. Their responses were synthesized under eight headings, each representing a different conceptual representation of the heritage mission: conservation (safeguard the heritage asset for posterity), accessibility, education, relevance (to the audience), recreation, financial (the need for financial soundness, which may or may not require admission charges), local community (harmony with local community) and quality

(high quality service). There is resonance between the strong emphasis on conservation and the notion of sustainability.

Poria et al. (2006) in their article 'Heritage Site Management: Motivations and Expectations' explore the significance of tourists' perceptions of a heritage site (the Anne Frank House, Amsterdam) as it relates to their own heritage and as an important factor for understanding their behaviour and the management of historic settings. The results identified differences between tourists in terms of their overall motivation. The more participants perceived the site as part of their own heritage, the more they were interested in the visit. Clearly, heritage tourists are a heterogeneous group both from the viewpoint of the site in relation to their personal heritage and in their overall motivation for visiting. Referring to specific motivations for visiting the Anne Frank House, three categories were identified, namely: willingness to feel connected to the history presented, willingness to learn, and motivations not linked with the historic attributes of the destination. According to Poria et al. (op cit) this categorization contributes to the knowledge of the motivations for visiting heritage settings. It exemplifies and supports previous studies arguing that different tourists visit historic spaces for different reasons (Shackley, 2001; Timothy and Boyd, 2003). Another element of motivation is the tourists' willingness to feel emotionally linked to heritage perceived as their own; while previous literature (Falk and Dierking, 2000, 2002) has shown that other motivations for visiting heritage sites are willingness to learn and to be educated. Poria et al. argue that the emotional link between the tourist and the space visited should be explored as relevant to the understanding and management of historic settings. This should not be done on the basis of leisure motivation only, as was previously the case in tourism (Ryan and Glendon, 1998). On the other hand, classification of the motivation

contributes to our knowledge about tourism to historic spaces, where the meanings assigned to an artifact are noted as having impacts on people's behaviour (Garling, 1998).

An additional aim of Poria et al. was to explore whether the perceptions of the Anne Frank House were associated with particular expectations of the interpretation (Falk and Dierking, 2000, 2002; Goodey, 1979). The different expectations of the interpretation provided suggest that participants differ in the experiences they seek. Besides that, the expectations from the guides and the interpretations available have a considerable impact on structuring the tourist experience. Poria et al's study is also helpful in terms of methodology. Their statistical analysis shows a high level of reliability in the tourists' perception of the case study site, in relation to their own heritage.

Drawing on twenty-five years of research into tourism planning and management in Cambridge UK, Maitland (2006) explored how strategic aims are derived, focusing on the balance between local and external influences, and how policies to implement the aims are developed. His conclusion was that locality factors and the role of local regimes and policy communities are more important than national government policy in accounting for aims and policies. This was clearly no top-down policy process. The strategic aims of tourism policy in Cambridge in the period 1978 to 2001 were to increase the benefits to be gained from tourism while at the same time tackling tourism problems and protecting the environment. Concern for the quality of the visitor experience could be seen in policies from 1990 onwards. Surprisingly, sustainable tourism *per se* only emerged in 2001 as a specific strategic direction for tourism policy in Cambridge, although the concept of sustainable tourism was established in public policy at least as far back as 1991.

Maitland suggested that further research is needed to identify the key channels through which policy develops, and the interactions between, for example, statutory bodies concerned with tourism; professional organisations such as the Tourism Society; practitioner groups such as the HTF (formerly EHTF); and organisations involving local councillors and central government. ‘We need to understand better the process by which localities learn about, and crucially, choose to adopt ‘best practice’ in tourism management’ (ibid:1271). It can be concluded from this that the factors contributing to the physical environmental impacts of tourism include the policies and regulations of public authorities, including matters such as planning policy guidance. This suggests that an understanding is needed in the present research of the decision- making process in heritage tourism management; and of the balance between a top-down (political power) or bottom-up (public participation) approach.

#### 4.4 Summary of the Implications of Previous Research

This section emphasizes the key themes that have been identified and which are relevant to the aims and objectives of the present research. It draws on work discussed in this and previous chapters of the thesis. The aim is to summarize the present state of knowledge about the physical impacts of tourism on the historic environment, and to provide a basis for the questions that will guide the remainder of this research.

The review of literature has shown a relative lack of research on the core issue of the perception of the built environmental impacts of tourism in historic towns and cities, from the point of view of key stakeholders. Yet there is a growing concern about the management of heritage towns and cities, exemplified in the debates and lobbying of the Heritage Towns

Forum, formerly the English Heritage Towns Forum, which now operates across the British Isles. Aas and Fletcher (2005) noted that many heritage management problems occur due to a lack of interaction among stakeholders and, by examining the impacts of tourism as perceived by stakeholders of the historic environment, the present research aims to contribute to an understanding of the impacts in ways that will be helpful in managing heritage towns. Who are the key stakeholders? According to Middleton (1998), the four main actors involved in decision-making at visitor destinations are residents; elected representatives; government/local government officials; and businesses providing directly and indirectly for visitors and other users.

The only typology of the built environmental impacts of tourism is that suggested by Hunter and Green (1995). As explained in Chapter 2, ‘impact aspects’ were grouped into six categories: urban forms, infrastructure, visual impacts, restoration, erosion and pollution. These categories were arrived at using the Delphi technique among a group of tourism experts. This has the advantage of a kind of ‘expert validation’ but it does not take account of the views of other stakeholders, such as those defined by Middleton. Another observation on Hunter and Green’s typology is that some of the categories are not very precise. For example, ‘restoration’ is only one form of action against decay, as was shown in Figure 3.3 in Chapter 3, based on the work of Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000).

In the United Kingdom, buildings listed as being of architectural or historic interest, conservation areas and scheduled monuments are protected by legislation. But in some developing countries, similar regulations and legislative controls are not so strong, or subject to too much political influence, with the result that listed heritage buildings are sometimes

demolished for new development purposes. Negative aspects such as these may not be sufficiently reflected in Hunter and Green's typology.

Several perceptual studies have looked at the environmental impacts of tourism, especially the impacts on the natural environment, and have done so among various stakeholders including residents, tourists and the local community. Suraiyati's (2005) research on the local community's perception of the physical environmental impacts of tourism in Georgetown, Penang, Malaysia showed that different groups of people can have different perceptions, and that these can be influenced by their socio-demographic background and motivations. Such findings may have relevance in the management of built environmental impacts, especially when local people are seen to be important stakeholders in the formulation of local tourism strategy and policy, as Maitland (2006: 1271) has indicated.

An issue for the present research is that of assessing the environmental impacts of tourism through methods such as carrying capacity, EIA, LAC, VIM and VERP. Many writers (for example, Coccossis and Parpairis, 1992, 1996; O'Reilly, 1986; Cooper and John, 1993; Cooper and Wanhill, 1997; Cooper et al., 1998 and Simón et al., 2004) discuss the difficulties of quantifying how many people a certain area or site can 'carry' or 'sustain'; and how any 'ceiling' on numbers might be implemented in practice. However, of relevance to the present research is the notion of *perceived capacity* as it affects the physical environment of a tourism destination, not in terms of numbers but rather in terms of people's behaviour, as suggested by Holden (2000). Other variables in the assessment might include the type and character of visitors and hosts, the nature of tourism activity, geographical concentration criteria and degree of seasonality in visitor patterns.



#### 4.4.1 Issues for Investigation

The review of literature in this and previous chapters has identified the following issues for investigation:

- Stakeholder perceptions of the built environmental impacts of tourism in historic towns and cities
- The typology of built environmental impacts of tourism
- The choice of stakeholders for investigation
- The characteristics of the stakeholders
- Assessing the effect of impacts through the number of visitors or their behaviour
- The relationship between built environment impacts and sustainability
- Techno-centrism (top down) or eco-centrism (bottom up) approaches in policy making and managing heritage tourism/towns

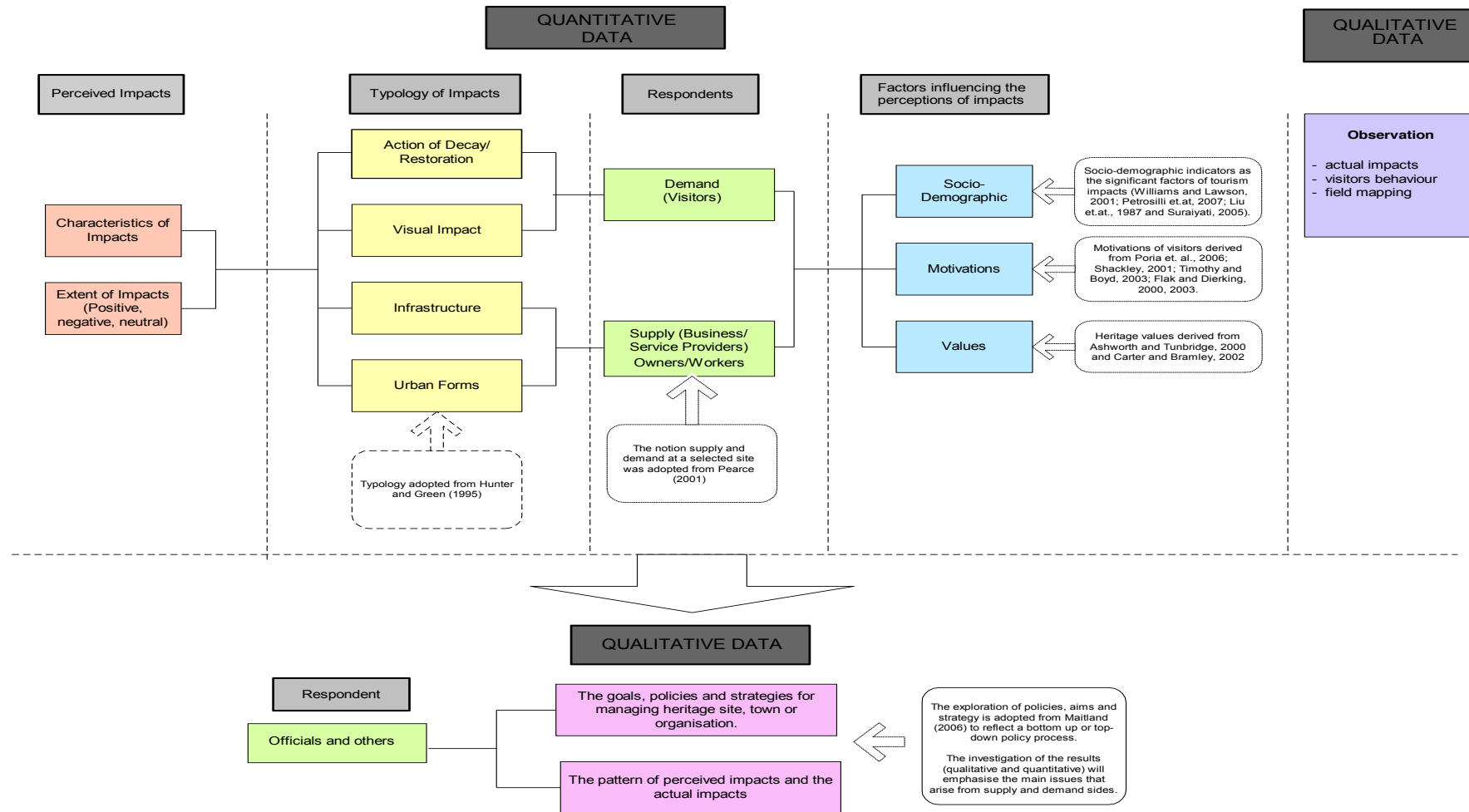


Figure 4.3: Framework for analysis of the perception of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlement

Pearce (2001) outlined an integrative framework which offered a means of providing a more systematic and coherent perspective on urban tourism (see Figure 4.1). As a development from this, Figure 4.3 presents a framework for analyzing the themes and elements identified in this and the previous chapters.

Figure 4.3 shows that quantitative data are required on the type of built environmental impacts; the perceptions of respondents; and the factors influencing those perceptions. The typology of built environmental impacts, adapted from Hunter and Green (1995), has four main elements: action of decay/restoration, visual impact, infrastructure, and urban forms. A question for the research is how each type of impact, in terms of its characteristics and its extent, is perceived by different types of respondents, specifically (a) visitors and (b) business and service providers. It is expected that the views of both sides, reflecting demand and supply, will be influenced by socio-demographic characteristics, motivations and values.

Qualitative data will come from observation (in this case, by the researcher) of the impacts of tourism, the behaviour of visitors, and informal conversations with local residents; and from analysis of the role of appointed officials and other managers with regard to the goals, policies and strategies for managing urban heritage tourism, including their perceptions of tourism impacts.

## 4.5 Research Aims and Objectives

### 4.5.1 Research Aims

The aims of the research are to examine and explore perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements; to explore the practice of heritage tourism management; and to examine the consequences of both for the sustainability of the heritage environment.

### 4.5.2 Objectives

The objectives, or research questions, are:

1. To explore the nature of the built environmental impacts of urban heritage tourism and their typology.
2. To examine the perception of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements from the perspective of key participants, or stakeholders.
3. To examine how and why impacts may be perceived differently by tourists (demand side stakeholders) and business/service providers (supply side stakeholders).
4. To explore the role of appointed officials and others in managing/promoting heritage tourism.
5. To explore the implications of heritage tourism perceptions and management for the sustainability of the heritage environment.

## 4.6 In Conclusion

This chapter has built on the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3 by extending the analysis to review examples of previous research on the environmental impacts of tourism, including perception studies; carrying capacity and sustainability; and heritage management. It has assessed the implications of previous research for the present study, setting out a number of issues for investigation.

Drawing from this analysis, the chapter has concluded with a statement of the aims and objectives of the research, and a framework for analysis of the perception of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements. The following chapter discusses the methodology that will be used to achieve the objectives of the research.

## 5.0 METHODOLOGY

### 5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 identified the main issues for this research and proposed a research framework (Figure 4.3). Five research objectives were presented, aiming to explore and examine the perceptions of the built environmental impacts of tourism among key stakeholders in a heritage town; and to explore the implications of heritage tourism perceptions and management for the sustainability of the heritage environment. This chapter explains the methodology that has been adopted to achieve the objectives of the research. It discusses the research design, explains the reasons for adopting a case study approach, and discusses how and why the case study town was selected, including the availability of existing studies which provided guidance in developing the questionnaires and other aspects of the research. This is followed by a discussion of the three main phases of the field work: surveys, semi-structured interviews and observation. The questionnaires and topic guides are included in the Appendices.

### 5.2 Research Design

A research design is intended to answer the research objectives or research questions, and can take various forms such as experimental design; cross-sectional or survey design; longitudinal design; case study design and comparative design. According to Cresswell and Clark (2007), methodology should be perceived as a philosophical framework, which underpins an entire process, from conceptualization of the research project to reporting the results. Thus to explore perceptions of heritage

values, a case study of a small English heritage town was chosen as a suitable approach both for practical reasons and because, according to Stake (2005), case study research is recognized as being concerned with the complexity and particular nature of the case in question.

A research design can be seen as a plan that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting observations. It has been described as a ‘logical model of proof’ that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigation (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992). In other words, the research design is a blueprint for research, dealing with at least four issues: what questions to study, what data are relevant, what data to collect and how to analyze the results (Philiber, Schwab and Samsloss, 1980). As explained by Yin (2009:27), five components of research design can be important, namely:

1. A study’s objectives, or questions;
2. Its propositions, if any;
3. Its unit(s) of analysis;
4. The logic linking the data to the propositions; and
5. The criteria for interpreting the findings.

The objectives of this research (Yin’s ‘first component’) have been discussed in Chapter 4. But the choice of ‘what, who, why and how’ to investigate were important in selecting the most appropriate research methods. As for the second component, some studies might have hypotheses but others, including this research, do not. The research was developed through a detailed review of relevant literature, leading the researcher to

identify a number of research objectives. These are not ‘propositions’ or ‘hypotheses’ but rather questions or issues for further exploration and examination that have not been addressed fully in previous studies. For example, the multi-functions of towns and cities, as shown in Chapter 2, have limited the intensity of research on the impacts of tourism, especially in heritage towns; while in Chapter 3, it was shown that studies assessing perceptions of the impact of tourism were carried out mainly in villages and natural environment areas. So the selection of a single heritage town as the ‘unit of analysis’, or ‘case study’ for this research was seen, to paraphrase Yin’s words, as an appropriate logic, linking the data to be collected to the research objectives.

In carrying out a case study, several approaches ideally should be used, including quantitative and qualitative research. According to Creswell and Clark (2007), quantitative results alone may be inadequate to provide explanations of outcomes, which can best be understood by using qualitative data to enrich and explain results in the words of participants. This mixed method is the preferred design for the present research.

### 5.3 Case Study Design

Case study normally entails the detailed and intensive analysis of a single case, although multiple case studies are sometimes used, for example, in comparative studies. The term ‘case’ is commonly associated with a location, such as a community or organization. A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary



phenomenon within its real-life context (Yin, 2009:18). It is used when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and when multiple sources of evidence are available. This research opted for a case study in the setting of a small heritage town, to investigate the real phenomenon of tourism impacts as perceived by stakeholders. Empirical inquiry obtained primary data from the respondents, from observations of real-life situations, and from interviews with identified stakeholders; and used supporting reports and documents relating to the case study town. According to Yin (2009), surveys can try to deal with the phenomenon and its context, but their ability fully to investigate the context is extremely limited. The researcher for instance has to limit the number of variables to be analyzed and hence the number of questions that can be asked to fall safely within the number of respondents who can be interviewed. Such considerations show the ability and limitations of any research to gain data, and they set boundaries for the research. Moreover ‘phenomenon’ and ‘context’ are not always distinguishable in real-life situations: thus, other technical issues, including data collection and data analysis strategies have now become part of the technical definition of case studies.

The methods used in case study inquiry are intended to:

- Cope with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points;
- Rely on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulation method or mixed method;
- Benefit from the prior development of research objectives to guide data collection and analysis.

Case study data from multiple sources enables the researcher to construct a comprehensive picture of the particular case. Yin (2009:101) discussed six sources of evidence, which are commonly used in case studies, namely documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation and physical artifacts. Bryman (2004) commented that case studies tend to use qualitative methods for the intensive detailed examination of a case. However, both qualitative and quantitative research are often needed to investigate the desired research questions, especially where qualitative research can add depth to the results of quantitative surveys.

#### 5.4 How the Case Study was selected

Stake (1995) observes that case study research is concerned with the complexity and particular nature of the case in question. Thus, although the focus of the present study is on heritage tourism, it was recognized that even what we refer to as a ‘heritage town’ is much more complex than this. A town has its own history and development; its own population and a range of economic activities, some or even many of which may not be related to its present-day function as a tourism destination. These characteristics must be recognized and respected, and the concept of the tourist-historic city acknowledges that such cities or towns have many functions. The relative lack of previous research on the impacts of tourism in urban settlements (as shown in Chapter 3) led the researcher to consider selecting a small scale heritage town as a manageable case study for this research. It was expected that any town chosen would exhibit diverse or heterogeneous functions, though the extent of diversity might be expected to be less complex in a smaller rather than a larger town. According to Stake (2005: 451), the selection of a case study should not only provide typicality but a leaning towards those

cases that seem to offer an opportunity to learn. For the author, as a student from Malaysia, the rationale for selecting a case study in England was to learn from long-established good practice in the maintenance and conservation of the historic environment. In addition to the policy and technical aspects of historic conservation, the research also required developing an understanding of British history and its impact on the built environment of the country's towns and cities.

Several visits were made to heritage towns and cities in Britain and elsewhere in Europe, for familiarization with their nature, history, historic built environment and their living community. At a very early stage and for a variety of practical reasons, it was decided that the study should focus on the United Kingdom; and three possible case study towns were considered: Bath, Stratford-upon-Avon and Ludlow, all medium to small towns within reasonable distance of Birmingham, where the researcher was located. Each town was visited several times and an informal assessment was made on issues such as what is valued heritage, what is the history, visitor activity and the likely response of local businesses and residents to participating in research or survey activity. The warm welcoming impression of Ludlow town and the friendliness of local businesses and residents, as well as good contacts with the local authorities, were strong motivators in selecting Ludlow as the case study. It is acknowledged, however, that the choice, though attractive for many reasons, was also pragmatic and practical, in terms of accessibility from Birmingham and the compact size and geography of the town.

The authenticity of Ludlow as a small English town is well known and has been recognized in at least two BBC television documentaries over the past thirty years. The first was in 1978 when Ludlow was featured as one of *Six English Towns* (Clifton-

Taylor, 1978) in a programme which drew attention to its unique and special characteristics, with (it was claimed) more than 500 listed buildings, the highest recorded for any town in Britain. Ludlow was also one of the subjects of a 2011 BBC TV series *Town with Nicholas Crane* which emphasized the special character of its surroundings, history, heritage buildings, tourism activity, other distinctive local economic activities and the quality of life enjoyed by many local people. Of course, the present research was undertaken well before Crane's broadcast in 2011 but Taylor's 1978 publication had an influence on the choice of Ludlow for this research.

Each town has its own history and tourist attraction but Ludlow is a small English market town that is not widely promoted as a tourist destination, especially among international tourists. This is due to Ludlow's relatively remote location within England. Although there is a railway station, with connections to Shrewsbury, Cardiff and Manchester, the town is not well linked to the motorway network or international airports. In the view of many people, this has 'protected' Ludlow as an outstanding example of the essential qualities and characteristics of an English market town, and a rare example of a planned medieval settlement. A more detailed overview of Ludlow is given in Chapter 6.

## 5.5 Previous Studies in Ludlow

A factor influencing the choice of Ludlow and the methods to be adopted in studying it was the existence of recent tourism or tourism related studies commissioned by the (former) South Shropshire District Council and Shropshire County Council, both

of which were superseded by the unitary authority Shropshire Council, created in April 2009.

The present research took note of the studies carried out for the former local authorities. In particular, (a) the studies contained useful data which are drawn on in Chapter 7; and (b) the design and coverage of the local authority surveys, including sampling, questionnaire design, and survey administration were also relevant to the design of the present study. For example, an early decision was made not to have a survey of local residents in this study, partly because it was not seen as central to the research design but also because local residents had been included in the study for South Shropshire District Council, which could be referred to if necessary in the current research.

In 2004, South Shropshire District Council commissioned Tourism Enterprise and Management, an international consultancy now based in Edinburgh, to carry out a Visitor and Business Survey in Ludlow. The main aim was to provide baseline data to help assess changes resulting from a scheme of environmental improvement in Ludlow. The visitor survey was conducted in February and March 2004 by personal interview in the town centre with 602 visitors to the area. The business survey was conducted by telephone from a sample frame drawn primarily from business rate records and structured to ensure that the businesses sampled were principally in the central Ludlow area and representative of a cross section of businesses potentially within the visitor economy. One hundred and ninety-nine business addresses were identified and 51 businesses were interviewed, a response rate of 25 per cent.

Further research on Ludlow Market Town for the Destination Benchmarking Survey was conducted in 2007 by The Research Solution of Worcester. This was linked to ‘The Better Welcome Programme’ intended to help small towns fulfil their tourism potential, for which in 2006, the then Regional Development Agency, Advantage West Midlands, had committed more than £1million of support and grant funding for market towns in the region. The survey of visitors to Ludlow was carried out between June and September 2007 covering 15 days during weekdays and weekends. A total of 206 responses was gathered by face to face questionnaire survey.

South Shropshire ‘District Retail and Leisure Study 2006 to 2021’ was carried out by White Young Green Planning (WYG) in 2007. The aim was to advise on a future retail and leisure strategy for the network of retail centres in the District. The study assessed the vitality and viability of Bishop’s Castle, Church Stretton, Cleobury Mortimer, Craven Arms and Ludlow (five centres) and their future retail need over the period 2006 to 2021. The study was to advise on such assessment set out in Planning Policy Statement 6 (DCLG, 2005) ‘Planning for Town Centres’ (now superseded by PPS 4 ‘Planning for Sustainable Economic Growth’: DCLG, 2009). The findings were intended to assist retail policy formulation in the preparation of Development Plan Documents for South Shropshire Local Development Framework and as a material consideration in determining planning applications for retail and leisure development within the South Shropshire administrative area. A telephone survey of 600 households in South Shropshire was undertaken by NEMS Market Research in December 2006. From a sampling frame of 100 in Ludlow, a 20 per cent response rate was achieved. A street survey of visitors was also carried out in Ludlow with 160 responses. Pedestrian

flow counts were made at five points in Ludlow: outside Tesco, Corve Street; elsewhere in Corve Street; King Street; Castle Street; and Market Street.

## 5.6 Research Methodology Strategy

As discussed in Chapter 4, the three main themes in the present research are ‘Built Environment Impacts of Tourism’, ‘Sustainability’ and ‘Heritage Tourism Management’ in the setting of the small heritage town. Several data collection methods are used (see Figure 5.1) to explore and examine the three themes: they are questionnaire surveys; analysis of documentation, reports and journals; direct observation; informal interviews; and semi structured interviews. These methods are appropriate for and connect with a variety of subjects or respondents, as shown in Figure 4.3 (Chapter 4).

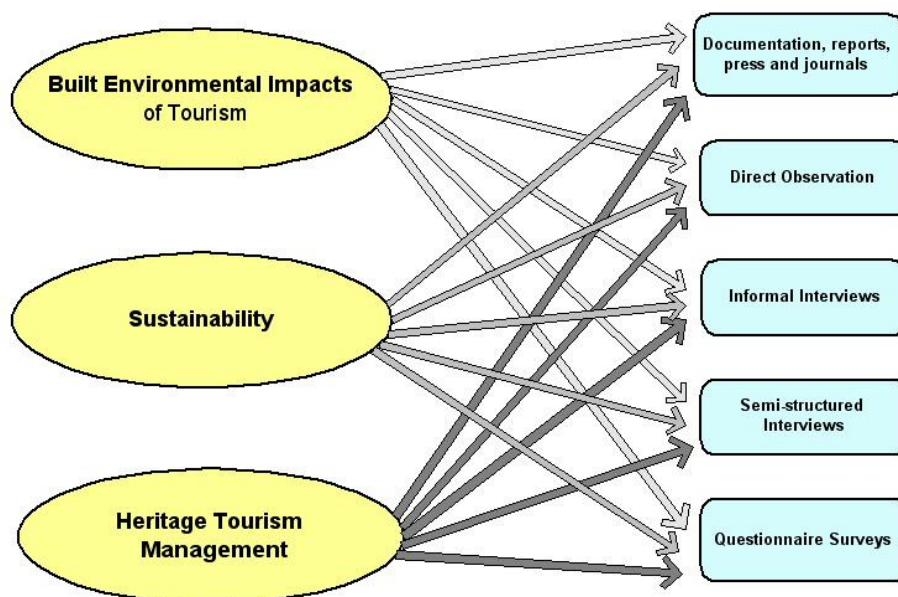


Figure 5.1: Research Themes and Data Collection Methods

As noted in Chapter 4, there has been a relative lack of research on the core issue of the perception of the built environmental impacts of tourism in historic towns and cities, from the point of view of key stakeholders. According to Middleton (1998), and as discussed in Chapter 4, the four main actors (or key stakeholders) involved in decision-making at visitor destinations are residents; elected representatives; government/local government officials; and businesses providing directly and indirectly for visitors and other users.

In developing the strategy for the present research, it was decided not to include local residents as a principal target for investigation. This was partly because many previous studies of the environmental impact of tourism have focused on residents' perceptions; and partly because (as noted earlier in this chapter) information on local residents' views in Ludlow were felt to be adequately covered by and available from recent surveys commissioned by the local authorities. Having said this, however, informal contact with local residents did take place and was helpful in familiarizing the researcher with issues related to heritage tourism impacts in the area, from the perspective of residents.

The three main groups selected as targets for the field research were business and service providers (referred to subsequently as 'business providers'); visitors and appointed officials and heritage managers (referred to subsequently as 'managers of tourism and related services'). The research as a whole was divided into three phases (Figure 5.2), and often there was overlap between them. For example, although the review of documents, reports, press and journals is essential in starting the research, it remains a continuous process throughout the lifetime of the study. It yields secondary



data and does not normally require field work. Another continuous process, at least until the writing up stage, is the need regularly to visit the case study area. This was done often over a period of more than four years, from 2006 to 2010, as summarised in Table 5.1.

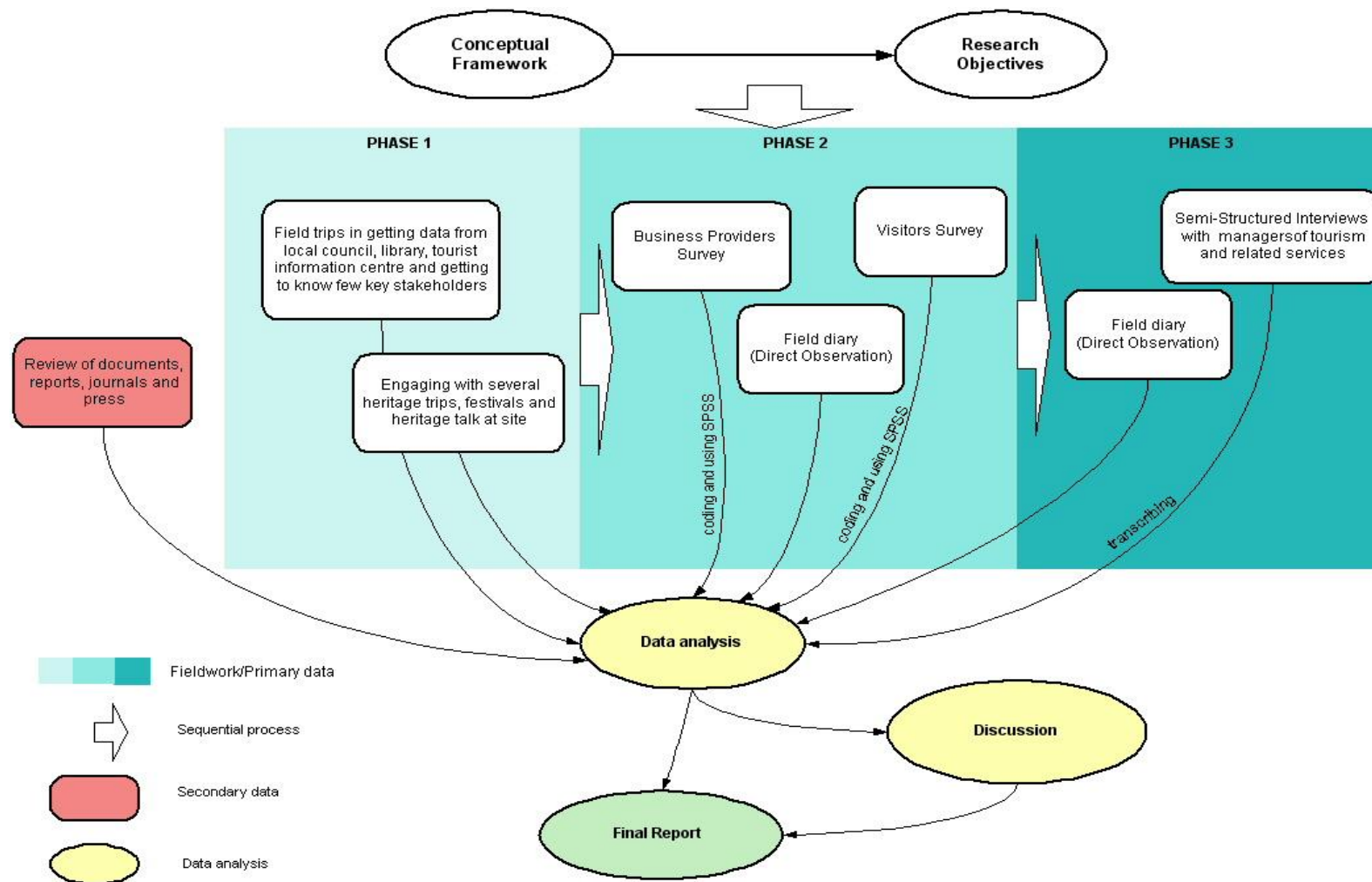


Figure 5.2: Process of data collection and analysis of this study – Adapted from Miles and Huberman (1994:30)

Phases	Date	Activity
Phase 1	June 2006	First site visit for familiarization with the town
	April 2007	Site visit to collect information in Ludlow Library and Tourist Information Centre and to explore the town
	May 2007	- Site visit to meet Tourism Officer at South Shropshire Council and getting to know some organizations in the town - Site visit to experience Ludlow Marches Transport Event
	June 2007	Site visit to gain more information in the library
	July 2007	Site visits to participate in and experience the Ludlow Festival including coach tour of Shropshire, walking tour of historic Ludlow and attending a talk on heritage buildings in Ludlow
	October 2007	Attending Ludlow Marches Food Festival
Phase 2	March 2008	7 day stay in Ludlow for Visitors' Survey
	May 2008	Site visit to observe Ludlow Marches Transport Event and Food Festival and 1 day for further Visitors' Survey
	July 2008	Site visit to observe the Ludlow Festival
	September 2008	Attending Ludlow Marches Food Festival
	May 2009	7 day stay in Ludlow for Business Providers' Survey; Attending Ludlow Marches Transport Event and Food Festival
Phase 3	August 2010	2 interviews at Shropshire Council in Shrewsbury; 3 interview sessions in Ludlow with a Local Government Officer and Tourism Managers
	September 2010	2 telephone interviews with representative of private sector and voluntary organizations using Voip Stunt

Table 5.1 : Summary of data collection schedule in Ludlow and District 2006-2010

### 5.6.1 Phase 1: Beginning Data Collection and Continuous

#### Observation

This study has included both formal and informal observations as an integral part of the research process and particularly throughout the three phases of data collection and analysis. At the initial stage, informal observations were made through site visits around the town centre, enabling the researcher to become familiar with the existing historic buildings and local economic activities, and with the behaviour of the local community and visitors. Visits were made to the local authority, other local services such as the library and tourist information centre; and time was spent getting to know some of the key stakeholders. These activities contributed significantly to developing the researcher's knowledge and understanding of Ludlow and the issues it faces as an historic town and tourism destination. They helped also in the process of developing the survey questionnaires used in Phase 2 of the study. Other informal observations took place on every visit made to Ludlow, including those for the survey interviews with visitors and businesses. Concurrent observation, both formal and more casual, is a continuing process in research of this kind. It serves as another source of evidence in a case study (Yin, 2009). It complements the collection of primary data through surveys and plays an important role in building an understanding of the case study town.

Informal discussions took place often with local residents, for example during the Ludlow Festival 2008, and when participating in organized visits to the historic towns around South Shropshire, led by local historian the late Dr David Lloyd. Many other opportunities

were taken throughout the study to speak informally to local residents and to hear their views on the impact of tourism on the heritage environment in Ludlow.

Though the research was designed initially with three target groups in mind, the research process itself and the approach adopted enabled the study to be informed by views from the local community. This suggests that, although a research design and strategy are developed at the outset, the actual process of researching can result in more options to explore, and thus to more information and data becoming available.

### 5.6.2 Phase 2: Quantitative Surveys

The methods of data collection and analysis for this study were developed from reviewing recent research on environmental impact and were chosen with reliability and validity in mind. Mixed methods research provides more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than quantitative or qualitative research alone (Creswell and Clark, 2007). According to Bryman (2001), quantitative research can be construed as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data and that:

- Entails a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research or in other words testing the theories;
- Has incorporated the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and of positivism;
- Embodies a view of social reality as an external, objective reality.

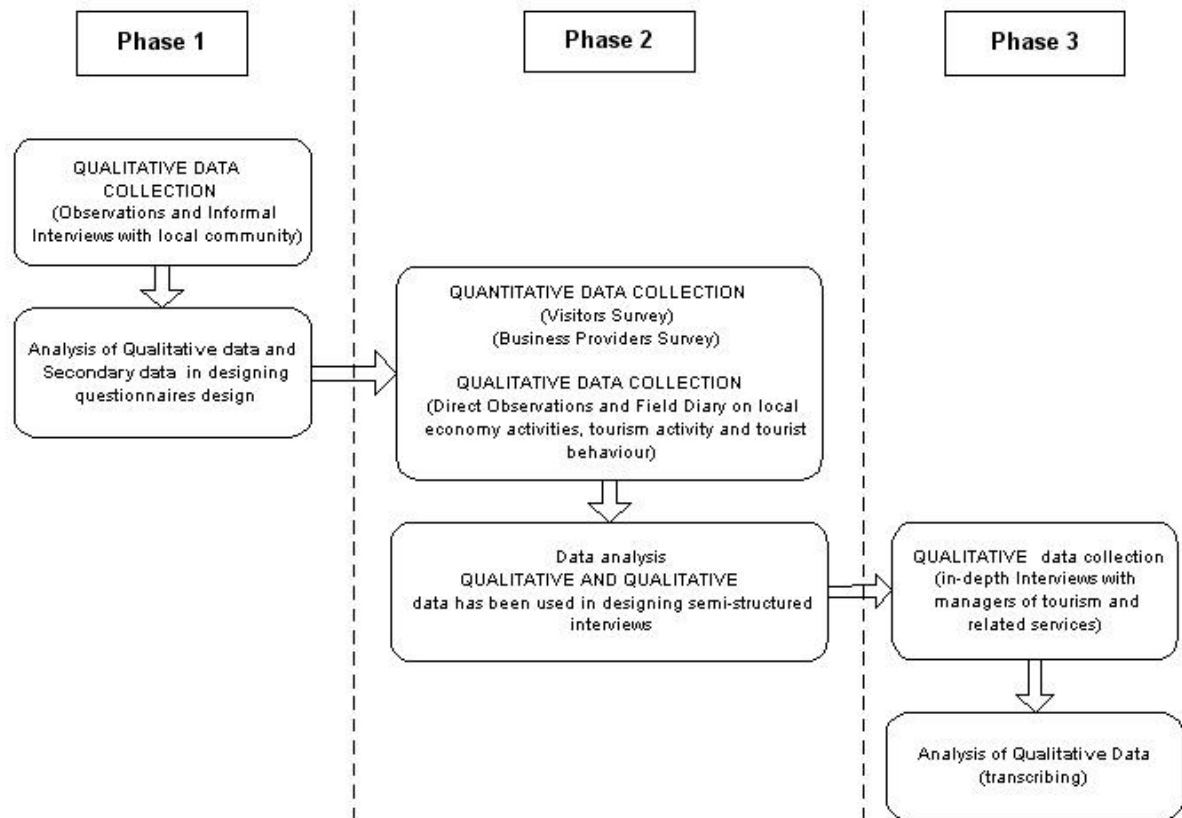


Figure 5.3: Sequential forms of mixed methods

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Clark (2007)

In contrast, qualitative research can be seen as a research strategy that normally emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data. Many researchers would relate qualitative research to generalisation rather than to the testing of theories but Adler (1985: 247) argued that qualitative research can also be used for testing theories. In practice, it is clear that both approaches can contribute significant evidence for addressing research objectives and this study adopted a sequential process of connecting the quantitative and qualitative elements of the research (see Figure 5.3).

## The Questionnaire Surveys

Two questionnaire surveys were undertaken: one with visitors to Ludlow in 2008 and one with local businesses providers in 2009. Considerable guidance on the content of the surveys and the approach to sampling was gained from the previous tourism related studies carried out in Ludlow, referred to earlier in this chapter (see Section 5.5). Purposive sampling technique means that the inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study (Creswell, 2007).

In the visitors' survey, a sampling frame could not be used because of the absence of information on the number of annual visitor arrivals in Ludlow. This made it impossible to calculate a proportion of the annual visitors that could be sampled. In the business providers survey, the Electoral Register was not suitable as a sampling frame and nor was the PAF (Small Users Postcode Address File) that lists all postal delivery points, because of the high proportion of vacant properties in the intended survey area. As a result, the sampling frame was developed based on the 'central town' of Ludlow as suggested in the 'South Shropshire Local Plan 1996-2011 Written Statement'. This area consists of a few streets in the town centre (as shown in Figure 5.2) where most business providers are located.

Despite the fact that an appropriate sample size can be technically calculated, there are usually limits to the sample that can be chosen. Some researchers have suggested that the decision on sample size is always a matter of judgment rather than calculation (Hoinville and

Jowell, 1978). The sample sizes adopted in this study were based on a consideration of the objectives of the study, the time needed to complete it and the costs involved. Based on these considerations, for the two questionnaire surveys of visitors and businesses, the aim was to achieve about 100 respondents in each<sup>3</sup>. This number was decided on as manageable for an individual researcher working alone (i.e. not too large, or costly in time or money), yet suitable for a simple disaggregation of data for analysis (i.e. not too small).

A random approach to sampling interviewees was used in the visitors' survey. Face to face interviews were carried out over a period of seven days in March 2008. The interview locations (see Figure 5.4) were at the entrance to Ludlow Castle (1), the Market Place in Castle Square (2), the Tourist Information Centre (3), and by St Laurence Church (4). 'Visitors' were defined as those living outside South Shropshire District who had come to Ludlow for leisure or business purposes, including tourism. The total number of interviews achieved in March 2008 was 84 responses. A further 16 interviews were carried out in May 2008 at the time of the Marches Transport Event, bringing the total visitor response to 100.

For the survey of business providers, a systematic sampling method was used. Although both random and systematic sampling allow for generalization about the study population, the use of systematic sampling ensured that the selection of respondents in Ludlow was representative of all streets in the 'central town'. The area covered is indicated by the red dotted lines on Figure 5.4. Respondents were selected by starting at a point in each street and sampling at every other business premises (N=2). Where premises were empty, the

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<sup>3</sup> The target of 100 interviews each for the visitors' and business surveys compares with 206 interviews achieved with visitors in the 2007 'Ludlow Market Town, Destination Benchmarking Survey'. The 2004 'Ludlow Visitor and Business Survey' interviewed 602 visitors and 51 businesses.



next occupied premises were sampled. At least two visits were made to each respondent: first to deliver a questionnaire and second either to collect it (if the respondent preferred self-completion) or to conduct a face to face interview with the respondent. The survey took place over a seven day period in May 2009. 'Business' respondents were those who owned or managed the sampled business/service, or who worked on the premises. The number of interviews or completed questionnaires achieved was 80.

In preparing for the surveys, draft questionnaires were given to some staff and research students at the Centre for Urban and Regional Studies, University of Birmingham, for comments prior to piloting. In designing the questionnaires, attention was given to the format, the flow of the questions, and the use of language that was unambiguous and simple to understand. Questions of a more personal nature were placed towards the end of the questionnaires. The aim was that each questionnaire could be completed in a face to face interview lasting about 10 minutes.

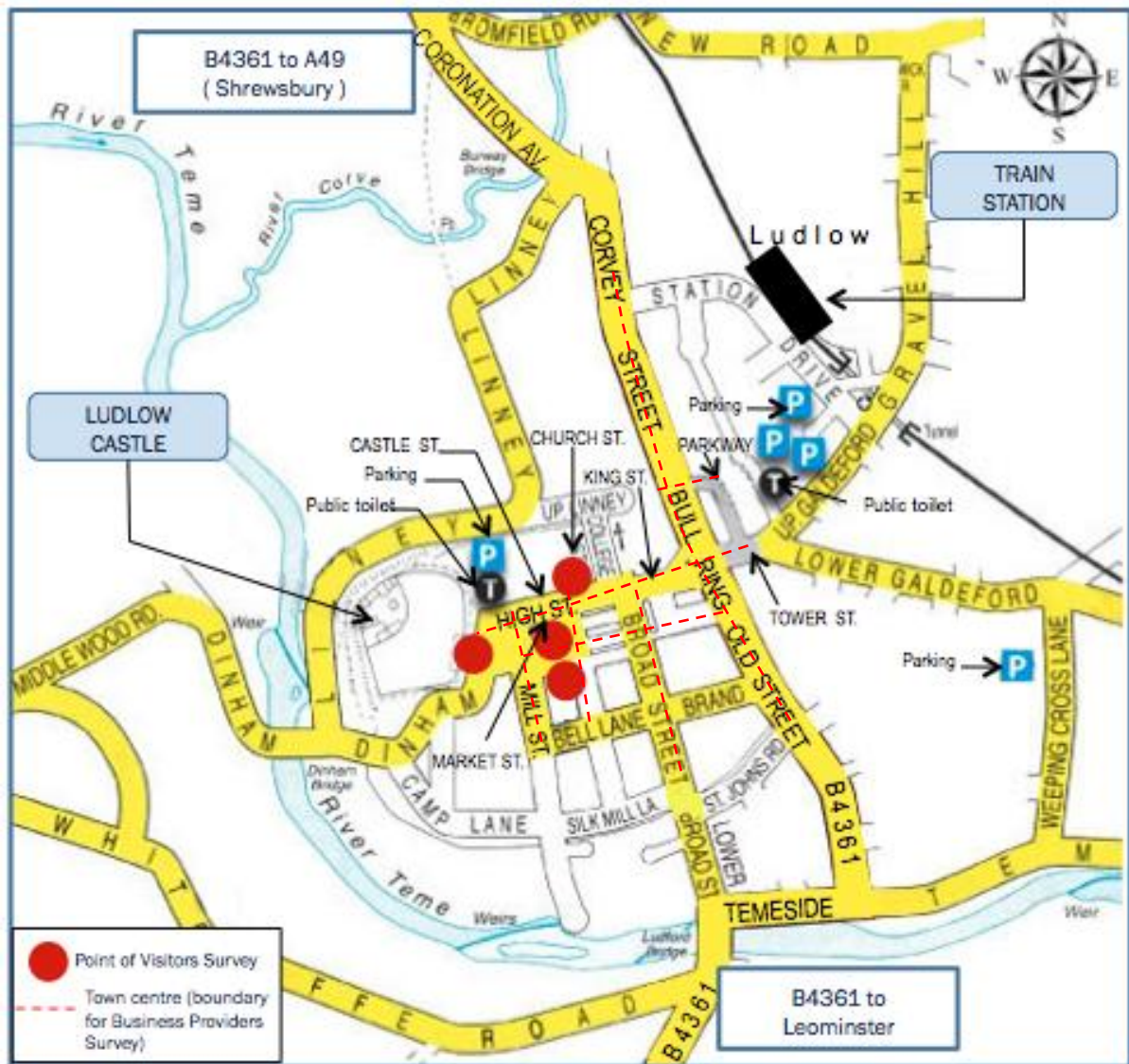


Figure 5.4: Location of 'Visitors Survey' and 'Business Providers Survey'

Source: Adapted from Online <http://www.shropshiretourism.co.uk/ludlow/map/> Accessed on March 2012

The questionnaire for the visitors' survey was two pages in length. It was designed in this way so as not to be off-putting to potential respondents when approached for an interview. Most of the questions were closed and a five point 'Likert scale' was used to record responses from (1) 'very poor' to (5) 'very good'. A sixth point was added to record 'don't knows'. Many of the questions were related to the built environmental typology suggested by Hunter and Green (1995).

The researcher administered all questionnaires personally. When approaching potential respondents for an interview, she introduced herself, showed her identification card, and explained the purpose of the survey. Respondents were not asked to give their names and were told that their responses would be aggregated for analytical purposes and not attributed to them as individuals. Screener questions were then asked about residence within or outside the area of South Shropshire District; and about the purpose of the respondent's visit to Ludlow. They were also asked about the length of time (hours) that had passed since their arrival in Ludlow, to ensure they had had the opportunity to gain some familiarity with the town before answering questions about it<sup>4</sup>. Those who wished could complete the questionnaire for themselves but the researcher always offered to conduct the interview herself. This enabled some answers to be probed and thus yielded further information. In some cases, the questions provoked lively discussion with the interviewer.

The business survey was designed in a similar way. Screener questions were used to check that respondents were familiar with the town. If they had been in business there for less than three months, they were not included in the survey.

## Data Analysis

Denscombe (2007) described the analysis<sup>5</sup> of research data as a process normally of five stages, for both quantitative and qualitative data (see Table 5.2). Quantitative research, as

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<sup>4</sup> The Ludlow Visitor and Business Survey (2004) found that the average length of stay by visitors was three hours.

<sup>5</sup> According to Robson (1993) once data have been collected and recorded in 'raw' form, the researcher usually has to process it into a form that describes the results. It is suggested that the compilation of such data generally involves the use of descriptive and inferential statistics. 'Descriptive statistics' refers to a collection of techniques used to organise, summarise and describe a sample (Bryman, 2004). There are no predictions or

used in the visitors' and business providers' surveys, tends to give 'more explicit' data than the qualitative method (*ibid.*) and can provide descriptive statistics (frequency distributions and means) and inferential statistics (cross-tabulations). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data from the two questionnaire surveys<sup>6</sup>, involving mainly univariate and bivariate analysis. Frequency tables, graphs and pie charts are used to present descriptive results from the univariate analysis. The bivariate analysis involved a choice of test to determine the relationship between two variables depending on the nature of the variables being examined.

The first stage of the analysis involves observing, sorting and grouping the data. To enable this, all data obtained from the questionnaire surveys were transferred to SPSS. During this process, four responses from business providers were rejected. In these cases, the participants had either failed to complete one or more of the key questions, which would enable data to be classified into key variables, or there were critical missing values within their replies. To ensure these questions reflected meaningful and readable format, they were categorised into several 'variables' according to the designed questionnaire. Once the data were ready, a detailed analysis was carried out. Univariate analysis (one variable at a time) was used throughout. However, bivariate (two variables at a time) and multivariate analysis (more than two variables at a time) was used for the follow up stage of the analysis. Both

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inferences yet made in this procedure. On the other hand, inferential or inductive statistics are used to infer or predict population parameters from sample measures. According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics include 'the Pearson correlation', 'the  $\chi^2$  test' (relation between two nominal variables), 'the *t*-Test' (significant mean differences between two groups), 'the ANOVA' (among multiple groups) and 'regression analysis'.

<sup>6</sup> In the initial stage of the statistical analysis, all variables were subjected to a frequency distribution analysis. This allows the data (a) to be organised into a more readable, comprehensive form; and (b) to be cleaned up for further investigation (Bryman and Cramer, 2005). According to Sekaran (2003) cross tabulation is one of the simplest and the most frequently used ways to demonstrate the presence or absence of such relationships. Cross tabulation is a joint frequency distribution of cases according to two or more classificatory variables.

surveys complement each other at the initial stage of findings, as both questionnaires were designed to reflect views and perspectives based on points of view from both the demand and supply sides (see Figure 4.3) in Chapter 4.

The five main stages of data analysis		
<u>Stages of analysis</u>	<u>Quantitative data</u>	<u>Qualitative data</u>
1) Data preparation	Coding (which normally takes place before data collection) Categorizing the data Checking the data	Transcribing the text Cataloguing the text or visual data Preparation of data and loading to software (if applicable)
2) Initial exploration of the data	Look for obvious trends or correlations	Look for obvious recurrent themes or issues Add notes to the data Write memos to capture ideas
3) Analysis of the data	Use of statistical test, e.g. descriptive statistics, factor analysis, cluster analysis Link to research questions or hypotheses	Code the data Group the codes into categories or themes Comparison of categories and themes Quest for concepts (or fewer, more abstract categories) that encapsulate the categories
4) Representation and display of the data	Tables Figures Written interpretation of the statistical findings	Written interpretation of the findings Illustration of points by quotes and pictures Use of visual models, figures and tables
5) Validation of the data	External benchmarks Internal consistency Comparison with alternative explanations	Data and method triangulation Member validation Comparison with alternative explanations

Table 5.2: The five main stages of data analysis

Source: Denscombe (2007), adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007)

### 5.6.3 Phase 3: Qualitative Survey

The main reason for using a qualitative approach in Phase 3 of the study was to further explore the issues that emerged from work in the previous two phases. It was felt there was

much that could be gained from more open-ended discussion with certain key stakeholders, in Ludlow: the managers of tourism and related services. Discussions were planned as ‘semi structured’ interviews, using topic guides developed for the purpose.

These interviews were conducted in August 2010, more than two years after the visitors’ survey and a year after the business survey had been completed, thus allowing time for the survey data to be analysed and for some preliminary conclusions to be drawn from them. This was important, as the main aim of the qualitative surveys was to clarify some of the issues from the first two phases of the study, while at the same time to gain more information from people with different roles and possibly different views. An executive summary report of both surveys was prepared. These and the topic guides (see Appendices) were sent two weeks in advance to respondents, allowing them time to prepare for the interviews. The topics covered in the interviews varied slightly, according to the respective roles of the respondents, but the main focus with everyone was related to the findings and preliminary conclusions of the visitors’ and business providers’ surveys.

Six semi-structured interviews were carried out with key stakeholders. Those selected for interview were: the Tourism Officer and the Conservation Officer of Shropshire Council<sup>7</sup>; the Manager of the Tourist Information Centre in Ludlow; the Manager of Ludlow Castle; the President of Ludlow Chamber of Trade and Commerce; and a Committee Member of Ludlow Civic Society. The interviewees came, respectively, from the public, private and voluntary sectors. Interviews with four of the respondents were carried out at their offices and two took

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<sup>7</sup> At the time of the interviews, neither officer was employed by South Shropshire District Council. The unitary authority Shropshire Council was formed in April 2009, over a year before the interviews took place.

place by telephone, using Voip Stunt. With the agreement of the participants, all interviews were recorded.

## 5.7 In Conclusion

The findings of the field work: the observation of activities in Ludlow; the questionnaire surveys of visitors and business providers; and the semi-structured interviews with the managers of tourism and related services are presented in Chapters 7 and 8.

The following chapter (Chapter 6) sets the case study of Ludlow in context. It explains the national and local planning policy framework; and the phenomenon of the small English heritage town, of which Ludlow is an outstanding example. It also introduces the history of the town and its present-day character, which form the basis of its attraction as a tourism destination.

## 6.0 LUDLOW: THE CASE STUDY IN CONTEXT

### 6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter explained the choice of Ludlow as the case study for the research. Ludlow is a small town in the West Midlands region of England and is situated in the south of the county of Shropshire. To the south of Ludlow lies Herefordshire and to the west is the border between England and Wales (Figure 6.2). Much of Ludlow's history has been influenced by its location and an account of the development of the town is given later in this chapter. First, however, the chapter aims to set this study of Ludlow in context. This could be done in many ways but the two main contextual elements from the point of view of the present research are (a) the public policy framework, especially in planning and heritage protection; and (b) the place of Ludlow as part of the phenomenon of the 'small English heritage town', of which it is one of the prime examples. This will be followed by an introduction to Ludlow itself and to some of the history which has helped to shape its present-day character and attraction as a tourist destination.





Figure 6.1: The location of Ludlow in the United Kingdom

Source: <http://www.itraveluk.co.uk/maps/england/all/1290/ludlow.html>

## 6.2 The Policy Context

### 6.2.1 The National and Local Planning Policy Framework

There is a long tradition in the United Kingdom of wishing to preserve buildings of historic interest, and to protect the natural environment. In the case of historic buildings, some of the earliest action was taken in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, leading to the creation in 1908 of the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England. Similar Royal Commissions were also established at the same time for Scotland and Wales. These developments marked the beginning of statutory protection for historic monuments which is now encompassed within the much broader concept of ‘heritage’.

Following strong campaigns in the inter-war years for countryside protection and countryside access, the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act 1949 enabled the designation in England and Wales of National Parks and Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONBs). There are now 10 National Parks and 35 AONBs in England; and 3 National Parks and 4 AONBs in Wales.

Thus in the case of ‘built heritage’ and in the protection of and access to the countryside, legislation respectively from the 1900s and from the 1940s onwards has recognised the importance of both as matters for public policy. The ‘listing’ of buildings of special architectural or historic importance was introduced in the Town and Country Planning Act 1947 covering England and Wales and in the similar Act covering Scotland. This has become a well established means of protecting the built heritage not only from demolition but also to

ensure that proposed modifications or changes of use of buildings are subject to statutory planning scrutiny and approval. In England, there are about 400,000 listed buildings and their number is being added to all the time, as more recent buildings (for example, from the 1980s) are considered worthy of protection for their architectural or historic interest.

The significance of these policies for Ludlow lies in the fact that the town has 434 listed buildings or other historic features (English Heritage, 2011 <http://www.english-heritage.org.uk/professional/>); and that it is situated adjacent to the Shropshire Hills AONB which was designated in 1958. The AONB is 802 sq km, or about one quarter of the land area of Shropshire. The present day character of Ludlow as a tourist destination owes much to the protection and support provided to the town and its surroundings under successive planning legislation throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

It is not appropriate here to give a detailed account of the development of public policy over the past sixty years on protecting historic or heritage buildings and the natural environment. The story is complex, due partly (a) to a succession of changes in government policy resulting from different party political perspectives on the emphasis and nature of development planning; (b) to a continuing process since the 1960s of local government reorganisation; and (c) to the creation in the late 1990s of the devolved administrations for Scotland and Wales, and in the 2000s for Northern Ireland, which caused an already partially devolved UK planning system to be devolved still further.

In all the countries of the UK, responsibility for heritage and the environment has moved between different public bodies and government departments, some of them relatively

new creations such as the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) whose executive agency, English Heritage is responsible for the protection of ancient monuments and the listing of historic buildings in England; and administers grants and other financial support for the restoration of the buildings and monuments for which it has oversight. A similar independent agency, Natural England, is responsible in England for designating AONBs, Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSIs) and National Nature Reserves (NNRs). The responsible government department for Natural England is the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) and in England, the responsibility for planning is with the Department of Communities and Local Government (DCLG).

Despite all the changes (which continue) in how and by whom heritage, environment and planning policies are implemented, the powers governing the protection of the historic heritage and natural environment have remained remarkably consistent over time and have tended to be strengthened as planning and other legislation has evolved in response to changing political, social and economic circumstances.

### 6.2.2 Development Planning

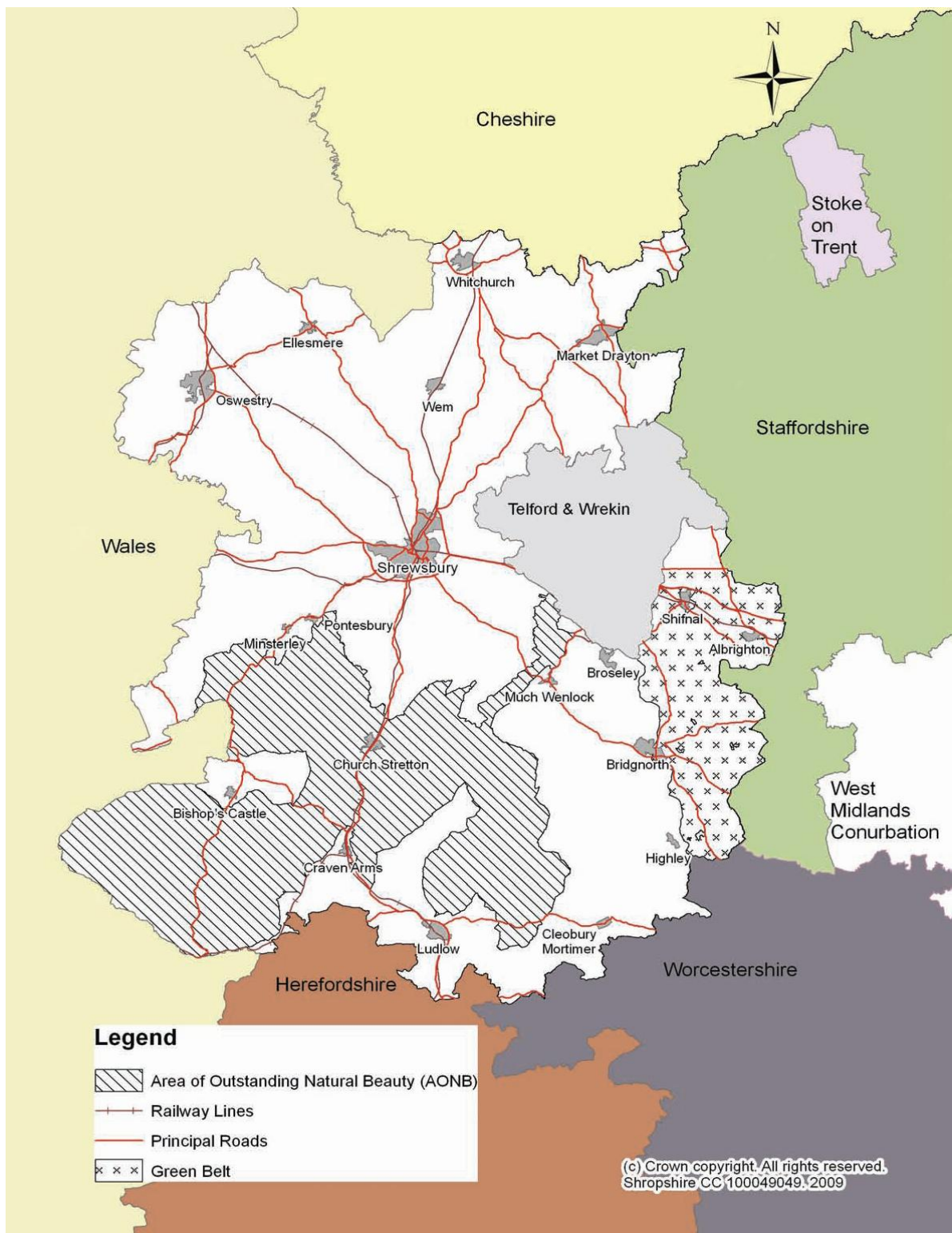
The present situation for development planning in England is that, under the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act 2004, local authorities are required to prepare Local Development Frameworks (LDFs); and in so doing to take account of national and regional planning guidance and strategies, such as the relevant Regional Spatial Strategy (RSS)<sup>8</sup>. According to Planning Policy Statement 12 (DCLG, 2008):

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<sup>8</sup> RSSs are being abolished under the Localism Act 2011

‘The Local Development Framework is the collection of *local development documents* produced by the local planning authority which collectively delivers the spatial planning strategy for its area. The Core Strategy is the key plan within the Local Development Framework.’ (p 3)

The local planning authority for Ludlow since April 2009 has been Shropshire Council, a unitary (ie all-purpose) authority covering the whole of Shropshire, apart from Telford and Wrekin, which has its own council. The former South Shropshire District Council, based in Ludlow, ceased to exist with the creation of Shropshire Council. Until 2009, tourism was partly a responsibility of the District Council and although the first tourism strategy for Ludlow was not developed until 2004 (South Shropshire District Council, 2004) the policies and the expertise of the former District Council informed the preparation of the Core Strategy for the Shropshire LDF which was adopted by Shropshire Council in February 2011 (Shropshire Council, 2011).



Scale: 1 cm = 7.5 km (approx)

Figure 6.2: Shropshire Council Core Strategy 2011: Sub-Regional Context

Source: Shropshire Council (2011: 8)

The Core Strategy relates to the period from 2010 to 2026 and among the ‘challenges’ faced in ‘planning for a flourishing Shropshire’ is the need to enhance the ‘natural and historic environment, its character, quality and diversity’ (Shropshire Council, 2011: 27).

This will be done by:

‘Supporting new and extended tourism development, and cultural and leisure facilities, that are appropriate to their location, and enhance and protect the existing offer within Shropshire;

Promoting connections between visitors and Shropshire’s natural, cultural and historic environment, including through active recreation, access to heritage trails and parkland, and an enhanced value of local food, drink and crafts;

Supporting development that promotes opportunities for accessing, understanding and engaging with Shropshire’s landscape, cultural and historic assets including the Shropshire Hills AONB, rights-of-way network, canals, rivers and meres and mosses’ (p.104).

### 6.2.3 Heritage Protection

English Heritage (EH), the body responsible for historic buildings and monuments in England, was established by the National Heritage Act 1983. Its purpose is to:

‘Secure the preservation of ancient monuments and historic buildings;  
Promote the preservation and enhancement of the character of appearance  
of conservation areas; and

Promote the public’s enjoyment of, and advance their knowledge of,  
ancient monuments and buildings.’

EH advises government on heritage matters and ‘promotes the importance of heritage in making places distinctive and valued’; it advises local government ‘on managing changes to the most important parts of our heritage’; provides grants ‘to reduce the amount of...heritage at risk’; ‘educates and entertains the public through...the 400 sites and properties [it manages directly] and through events and publications...’; and provides training and guidance to people working in heritage’ (English Heritage, 2011: 23).

There is no doubt that EH plays an important role in heritage promotion and protection. However, the role is not without controversy. For example, as noted by Cullingworth and Nadin (2000: 232):

“‘Heritage’ is the fashionable term [for conservation] although its use is not always welcomed. Heritage takes the conservation idea...and embraces consideration of the use of what is conserved...For some, heritage presents historical buildings and places as commodities to be traded, packaged and marketed. And much of the UK is now neatly packaged into heritage products, carefully denoted by the



brown signs marking entrances to “Shakespeare’s County”, “Brontë Country”, “Lawrence Country”, and many more. On the positive side, the notion of heritage draws attention to the economic potential of conservation but it has been argued that the commodification process pays much less attention to authenticity and accuracy.’

It is appropriate to bear in mind that the origins of English Heritage and its counterpart bodies in other parts of the UK, lie in a period of recent political history when cultural heritage and tourism began to be valued and promoted for their perceived contribution to economic vitality and regeneration. By now, this is a very well established position, both in the UK and much more widely. For example, the publication *Heritage Counts* (English Heritage, 2010) begins:

‘The historic environment plays a distinct and important role in the UK economy. It is a key driver of tourism, (the UK’s third largest export industry), with a third of international tourists citing it as the main factor in them choosing to come to the UK. The economic importance of heritage extends beyond tourism. Investment in the historic environment supports economic performance by attracting new businesses and residents, encouraging people to spend more locally and enhancing perceptions of areas. It is a successful way to encourage economic growth and provides a blueprint for sustainable development’ (p 2).

Moreover, research reported in *Heritage Counts 2010* confirmed

‘the popularity of heritage among local people with more than 90% of those surveyed agreeing that investment in the historic environment had improved the perception of their local area, increased the pride they had in their local community and created places which are now nicer to live [in], work and visit’ (p 1).

It has been in this context that, for more than ten years, government has been reviewing heritage policy and practice in England, in a process led by the responsible ministries: DCMS and DETR – now DCLG. Among the outcomes was a series of publications including *Power of Place: the future of the historic environment* (English Heritage, 2000) which sent ‘a strong message about how to strengthen conservation in all areas of public policy...’ and made a forceful case for organisational rationalisation. One of the strong themes for the future was seen to be ‘the promotion of the economic value of the historic environment in terms of investment returns...job creation and tourism’ (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2000: 251).

This stream of work continued throughout the 2000s, leading to the publication in 2007 of a White Paper *Heritage Protection for the 21<sup>st</sup> century* (DCMS and Welsh Assembly Government, 2007) and in 2008 a draft *Heritage Protection Bill* (Great Britain, 2008). The Bill was welcomed in some quarters for its aim of consolidating and clarifying the legal basis of protection; it was criticised in others because of the evident lack of resources in both local

authorities and English Heritage for the administration both of the current and the proposed new system (House of Commons, 2008: para 27). The then Labour government did not proceed with the Bill, citing changes in priorities resulting from the international banking crisis. Following the General Election of 2010 and the creation of the Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition government, English Heritage began to develop the National Heritage Protection Plan (NHPP) for the period 2011-15. The strategy is to:

‘Identify and protect our most important heritage (Understanding);

Champion England’s heritage (Valuing);

Support owners, local authorities and voluntary organisations to look after England’s heritage (Caring);

Help people appreciate and enjoy England’s heritage (Enjoying); and

Achieve excellence, openness and efficiency in all we do.’ (English Heritage 2011c : 5)

As the recession has continued and the government has undertaken a ‘comprehensive spending review’ the Plan notes that it ‘comes at a time of very significant resource pressure and change for English Heritage’ (ibid p 16). Despite good intentions<sup>9</sup>, therefore,

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<sup>9</sup> The 2007 White Paper promised to: ‘...improve the heritage protection system by raising the profile of the historic environment, promoting a more joined-up approach, and increasing capacity at local level’ (p 9).

the process of reform and modernisation of heritage protection that characterised most of the 2000s faces a difficult future, at least in the medium term.

## 6.3 Small English Heritage Towns

### 6.3.1 Introduction

England has many hundred small towns, with histories dating back for more than 1,000 years, in some cases to the time of the Roman conquest which began in the year AD 43. Many small towns were built for defence, perhaps with a wall or more substantial fortifications. And as Christianity spread in Britain from the 5<sup>th</sup> century onwards, churches were built in most of the major settlements. By the Norman conquest of 1066, many of the old Anglo-Saxon kingdoms had become shires or counties, providing a basis for administration and law and, especially under the Normans, signifying the power of the nobility, alongside that of the Church, with its dioceses and cathedrals marking the centres of ecclesiastical power.

Many towns did not develop as major political and religious centres but they became important, perhaps for defensive reasons, or because of their role as market towns, trading in agricultural produce, including sheep and cattle, and in other products - often in the woollen trade. The resulting wealth was reflected in new or enlarged Church buildings; the houses of the local merchants; and the reputation of the towns for their prosperity.

Over time, such towns continued to thrive and were the subject of further development: timber framed buildings were followed by brick and stone houses, including those in the 'Georgian' style of the late eighteenth century; public buildings were added, such as a covered market hall and a 'grammar' school; and shops with glazed windows. By the late nineteenth century, developments in public services and local government introduced new buildings with new functions such as a Town Hall, a public library, a Post Office and possibly a railway station. Other development was also likely, of Victorian villas on the edge of town, followed by the addition of smaller 'suburban' style housing in the early years of the twentieth century, especially before the introduction of the modern planning system in the 1940s, which has sought to contain development in existing settlements.

These towns, which have not been significantly industrialised and which continue to be centres of mainly rural and agricultural areas, reflect some of the history of the development of England and are an important part of the country's heritage. With the coming of mass transport and, particularly, the private motor car from the 1930s onwards, such towns began to feature in guide books and to be recognised as worthy of attention. At the same time, many of them have become subject to the pressures of development, for example as commuter towns or retirement towns. Modern communication technology also means that some small towns have become popular locations for businesses that do not need to be located in major urban centres. Thus it can be said that many small historic towns in the recent past, now, and in the foreseeable future have faced, face or will face development pressures which make them a focus for the planning and heritage protection discussed previously in this chapter. The role of tourism in the present and future economic prosperity of these towns is well

recognised and a challenge for policy is to protect the asset of the small historic town in such a way that the town can continue to flourish without being simply a museum to the past.

One of the early twentieth century champions of the English small town was the writer and poet John Betjeman (1906-84). His *English Cities and Small Towns* (Betjeman, 1943) was one of a number of books published in the 1940s in the series 'Britain in Pictures' where well known authors were asked to write on aspects of English culture and heritage. The task was not easy. For example:

‘...how am I going to describe the three hundred and seventy five quiet inland towns of England? Three times now I have tried to write this part of the book. First I wrote of the show towns – Stratford-on-Avon, Ludlow, Rye and Winchelsea, Burford: then it seemed I had left out those I ought to mention, more alive than the show places because less self-conscious and less well-known. Then I tried to mention all the small towns, however briefly, tried to fit into a few words the wind-swept, fortress-like North, brick and flint East Anglian towns, stony Cotswold places huddled among the sheep hills, rich West Country orchard towns, modest Midland boroughs – but the result was too condensed. I am at a loss. English country towns are all different: their pattern and their history is on the surface similar, but below it is full of individual character’ (Betjeman, 1997: 36).

A few pages later, Betjeman continues:

‘In Shropshire, the Severn winds down a valley which is almost a gorge: deciduous woodland decorates its banks and here and there is a grassy clearance of parkland to reveal a country house, and round a bend is Bridgnorth, on a cliff above the rapid river...Ludlow in the same county is lovelier, it is probably the loveliest town in England, with its hill of Georgian houses ascending from the river Teme to the great tower of the cross-shaped church, rising behind a classic market building’ (pp 40-41).

Though a fine example and, some would say, the prime example of a small English heritage town, Ludlow is but one of a group of seven small towns *in South Shropshire alone* that are known and admired for their heritage and natural environment attractions.

### 6.3.2 Examples of other Heritage Towns in England

It is no surprise that Betjeman’s view of Ludlow as ‘the loveliest town in England’ is often used by those who promote the town as a tourism destination. As mentioned in Chapter 5, Ludlow has also been highlighted in other ways, notably as one of six English towns featured in the BBC TV series of the same name which was broadcast in 1978 and formed the subject of the book *Six English Towns* (Clifton-Taylor, 1978). The other towns presented by Clifton-Taylor were: Chichester, Richmond, Tewkesbury, Stamford and Totnes, and all (including Ludlow), as Clifton-Taylor noted, had been designated as Conservation Areas under the Civic Amenities Act 1967 (Clifton-Taylor, 1978: 9). As examples of the number

and variety of small English heritage towns, brief introductions to three of them – Chichester, Richmond and Stamford – are given here: they draw on a variety of sources, including Clifton-Taylor (1978) and local tourist literature.



## Chichester



Chichester is an historic city and market town in West Sussex, on the south coast of the United Kingdom. Its population in 2001 was about 24,000. Originally a Roman fort, the area was built on first in 44 AD by the Romans. The Celtic tribe who had previously occupied the land cooperated with the Romans, and the leader of the tribe continued as King of Sussex. The Romans chose the land as a fort due to its proximity to a harbour (to import goods) and a river (The Lavant) which could supply water.

The Romans did not stay in Chichester long, and after they had left, the king (Cogidubnus) decided to turn the fort into a town. The town was called 'Noviomagus' by the Romans, or 'new market place'. The layout of the town has changed very little since then, and the main streets (North, East, South and West) lie nearly exactly where they were first built.

The city walls were constructed at the beginning of the 3rd century to protect the city from attack and invasion, and were reinforced in the 4th century with bastions where guards could stand. An amphitheatre provided a popular source of entertainment, and the public baths were also extremely popular among the Roman population, especially as a form of socialisation. Many of the residents of the town made their living in craft, including carpentry, blacksmithing, pottery and leather working – all of which brought wealth to the town, if not to the workers themselves. The richer residents of the town lived in large houses in the town centre.

By 408 AD the Romans had left Britain. It is not known whether the town was also abandoned or whether part of the population remained – either way, the Saxons arrived soon after. Although little is known of this time, the town was used as one of a series of defensive points along the southern and eastern coasts of Britain. The Saxons named the town Chichester. It originated from the Saxon 'Cissa' and the word 'Ceaster' (what the Saxons called a set of Roman buildings), hence 'Cissa's Ceaster'. This evolved into 'Cisscester', and eventually 'Chichester'.

In the Middle Ages, during the Norman conquest of England, a castle was built at Chichester. It was a wooden construction on a motte (a man made hill). The castle has gone but the motte still stands today. Chichester's most famous landmark, its cathedral, was begun in 1091 after the local Bishopric was moved from Selsey to Chichester. When it was built, the cathedral had a bell tower. The spire was added later. In the middle ages, the Chichester-born Saint Richard, who had been Bishop of Chichester from 1245 to 1253, was made patron saint of Sussex. Today Chichester's hospital is named after him, and his statue stands outside the western wall of the cathedral. Chichester still has strong roots to the past, from its cattle market to historic architecture and archaeology, and the legacy of the Romans, Saxons and Normans lives on.

Figure 6.3 : Chichester, Sussex

## Richmond



Richmond is a market town on the River Swale in North Yorkshire and is the administrative centre of the district of Richmondshire. It is situated on the edge of the Yorkshire Dales National Park, and is the Park's main tourist centre. The population in 2001 was about 8,000. The town has many cobbled streets, is built largely of sandstone and is surrounded by high moorland. In the centre is a large market place, the church and a ruined castle dating from the 11<sup>th</sup> century.

The name Richmond came from the French *Riche-mont*, or strong hill. Richmond was founded in 1071, by the Breton Alan Rufus, on lands granted by William the Conqueror. Alan built his castle to protect England from the Scots and to protect himself from Anglo Saxons. Growing wealth led to Richmond becoming a chartered borough. It had 13 craft guilds (which controlled trade) and was an important centre for markets and fairs.

In 1311 defensive stone walls were built to protect the town from Scottish raids. Two gates in the town wall still survive. The Market Place was originally the outer bailey of the castle. The Market Cross was replaced by the present obelisk (see photograph above). In the 14th century, Richmond was badly affected by poor harvests, the loss of livestock and by the plague.

Medieval Richmond had a variety of places of worship. There were three chapels in Richmond castle, the Trinity Chapel in the Marketplace, St. Mary the Virgin Parish Church, three chapels on the outskirts of the town, and a college for Chantry priests. The most important religious centres were the House of the Greyfriars (now only the Bell Tower remains) and the order of The White Canons at Easby Abbey.

In the mid 17th century there was civil war between supporters of the monarchy (Charles I) and Parliament (Oliver Cromwell). Richmond was the headquarters of the Scottish Army, (Parliamentarians) though the town favoured Charles II when the monarchy was restored in 1660. The late 17th and 18th centuries were a time of prosperity and growth for Richmond, based partly on nearby lead mining and the production of woollen garments. New elegant Georgian housing and buildings replaced many of the older medieval buildings. In 1756 The Town Hall was built as a Georgian assembly room.

In 1830 a sub-committee was formed to organize the first street lighting. Richmond is credited as being a leader of radical reform and one of the first towns to have public street lighting. 1832 Municipal Reform - Parliament reformed the system of representation. Richmond now had a mayor, 4 aldermen and 12 councillors. The Stockton to Darlington Railway was opened in 1825. A branch line was later extended in 1846 to Richmond chiefly looking for the carriage of coal, lead and lime. Nine miles of track was completed to Richmond. The bridge over the River Swale and the station road leading up to the market place were built around the same time. The railway brought visitors to Richmond and gave local people the opportunity to travel.

Figure 6.4 : Richmond, North Yorkshire

## Stamford



Stamford is located in the county of Lincolnshire. It was the first conservation area to be designated in England and Wales under the Civic Amenities Act 1967. Since then the whole of the old town and the adjacent St Martins Without has been made an 'area of outstanding architectural or historic interest' that is of national importance. The population in 2001 was about 22,000. Many writers, including Sir Walter Scott, John Betjeman and Nikolaus Pevsner have praised the attractiveness and architectural distinction of the town. Pevsner called it 'the English country market town par excellence'.

In the 9th and 10th centuries, Stamford was one of the five controlling boroughs of Danelaw. It was one of the first towns to produce glazed, wheel-thrown pottery. Stamford prospered under the Normans with an economy based mainly on wool; it was particularly famous for its woven cloth called haberget. The town's excellent communication routes via the Great North Road and via the River Welland to the North Sea ensured the success of its trade.

By the 13th century, Stamford was one of the 10 largest towns in England. It had a castle, 14 churches, 2 monastic institutions, and 4 friaries. Many buildings survive from this period including the early 12th-century St Leonard's Priory; the 13th-century tower of St Mary's Church; the 13th-century arcades in All Saints' Church; the 13th-century stone-built hall houses and undercrofts, and the 14th-century gateway to the Grey Friary. The removal of the main wool trade to East Anglia in the 15th century forced the town into decline. While this decline continued into the 16th century, Stamford was linked to national affairs by the fact that a local man, William Cecil, became secretary of state to Queen Elizabeth I. He built a palatial mansion, Burghley House, just outside Stamford for his mother, which survives as one of the best examples of Tudor architecture.

The town escaped the civil war relatively unscathed despite Oliver Cromwell's siege of Burghley House and the visit of the fugitive King Charles in May 1646. After the Restoration of 1660, the town recovered as improvements to the Great North Road encouraged road trade and the river was made navigable again by being partly canalised. Prosperous professionals and merchants were attracted to the town and they built the vernacular and later Classical or Georgian houses which today provide the town with much of its architectural character and distinction.

Stamford produced skilled agricultural engineers but never became significantly industrialised. The traditional, almost feudal, relationship between town and house (the Cecils of Burghley were Stamford's landlords) preserved and 'pickled' the town so that today the historic urban fabric survives almost unscathed. Stamford is a unique example of provincial English architecture built of the finest stone. Today it prospers as a small market town with a mixed economy based on industry, services, agriculture, and tourism.

Figure 6.5 : Stamford, Lincolnshire

Chichester, Richmond and Stamford are just three examples of small heritage towns in England. Their populations range from less than 10,000 to just over 20,000 people. They are living, active towns and are well-known and popular tourism destinations. As Betjeman indicated, they are 'all full of their individual character' but also share many aspects of their history and development with that of other small towns throughout the country. For example, the origins of Chichester can be traced through the Roman, Anglo-Saxon and Norman periods. With its cathedral, it became an important religious centre but was (and remains) a market town. Richmond developed around its castle which was built in Norman times as part of England's northern defences against the Scots. Stamford, though without a cathedral, priory or large abbey, was an important religious centre and even, for a few years in the early fourteenth century, had the beginnings of a university to rival Oxford and Cambridge (Clifton-Taylor, 1978: 95). In the Roman era, the town was an important river crossing on the route northwards; it was taken by the Danes and then regained by the Anglo Saxons; and in the Norman era it was fortified and a castle was built. But Stamford's long-term wealth came from its position at the centre of rich farming land and its proximity to the Fens with their plentiful fish and wildfowl. The town was renowned for its wool production and cloth making; and later for its position on the coaching routes between London and the north of England, and as a trading centre for its large agricultural hinterland.

Like Ludlow, none of these towns became greatly industrialised in the nineteenth century, though all were connected by railway to the rest of the country. They remained as market towns and important local centres in agricultural environments and thus their character and functions were much less affected than was the case for towns that became industrialised through the growth of manufacturing and mining industries in the late eighteenth and

nineteenth centuries. Those towns and cities, too, have a heritage but it is very different to that of the small country towns being considered here.

## 6.4 Ludlow

### 6.4.1 Historical Background

‘Ludlow, like Richmond, was a Norman creation, although, also like Richmond, it does not occur in Domesday Book<sup>10</sup>. [William] the Conqueror had granted the large manor of Stanton to one of his stalwart supporters, Walter de Lacy, and entrusted him with the special responsibility of guarding that part of the English border against the still unconquered Welsh. And the village of Stanton Lacy is still very much there, three miles away to the north’ (Clifton-Taylor, 1978: 145).

Walter’s son, Roger de Lacy, decided, in about 1090, that to fulfil his father’s assignment, he would build a castle, and did so on the cliffs overlooking a bend in the River Teme, facing towards Wales. The river surrounded the castle on three sides and on the fourth a wall was built to provide further protection. The illustration of River Teme and Ludlow Castle can be referred in Figure 6.7 and Figure 6.8. This marked the beginning of Ludlow and the town came into being (as did Richmond) to serve the needs of the castle. However, Ludlow soon became a flourishing market town for the surrounding district. By 1200 it had a

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<sup>10</sup> Domesday Book (1086) was written under the orders of William I (William the Conqueror) the first Norman king of England. He wanted to know how much his kingdom was worth and how much taxation he could command. It was a record, covering much of England and some parts of Wales, of land and property ownership, land use and agricultural yields. All known settlements and landowners were recorded.



grammar school. Trade thrived, especially in wool and, before long, in cloth making (Clifton-Taylor, 1978: 145).



Figure 6.6 : The view of Ludlow from Whitcliffe

Source: Suraiyati, taken September 2009

In 1475, Ludlow was chosen as the seat of the Council of the Marches, set up to govern Wales and the Border. The castle became the residence of the President of the Council and Ludlow, in effect and although situated in England, became the administrative capital of Wales until the Council was abolished in the late 17th century.



Figure 6.7 : The River Teme

Source: Suraiyati, taken September 2009

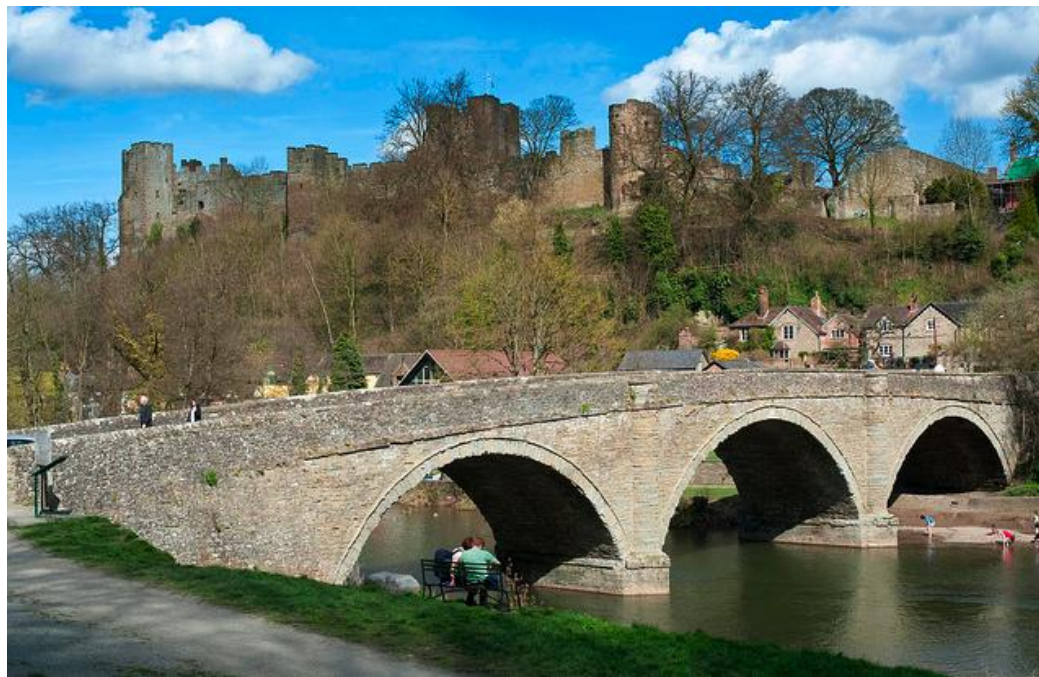


Figure 6.8 : Ludlow Castle

Source: Suraiyati, taken September 2009



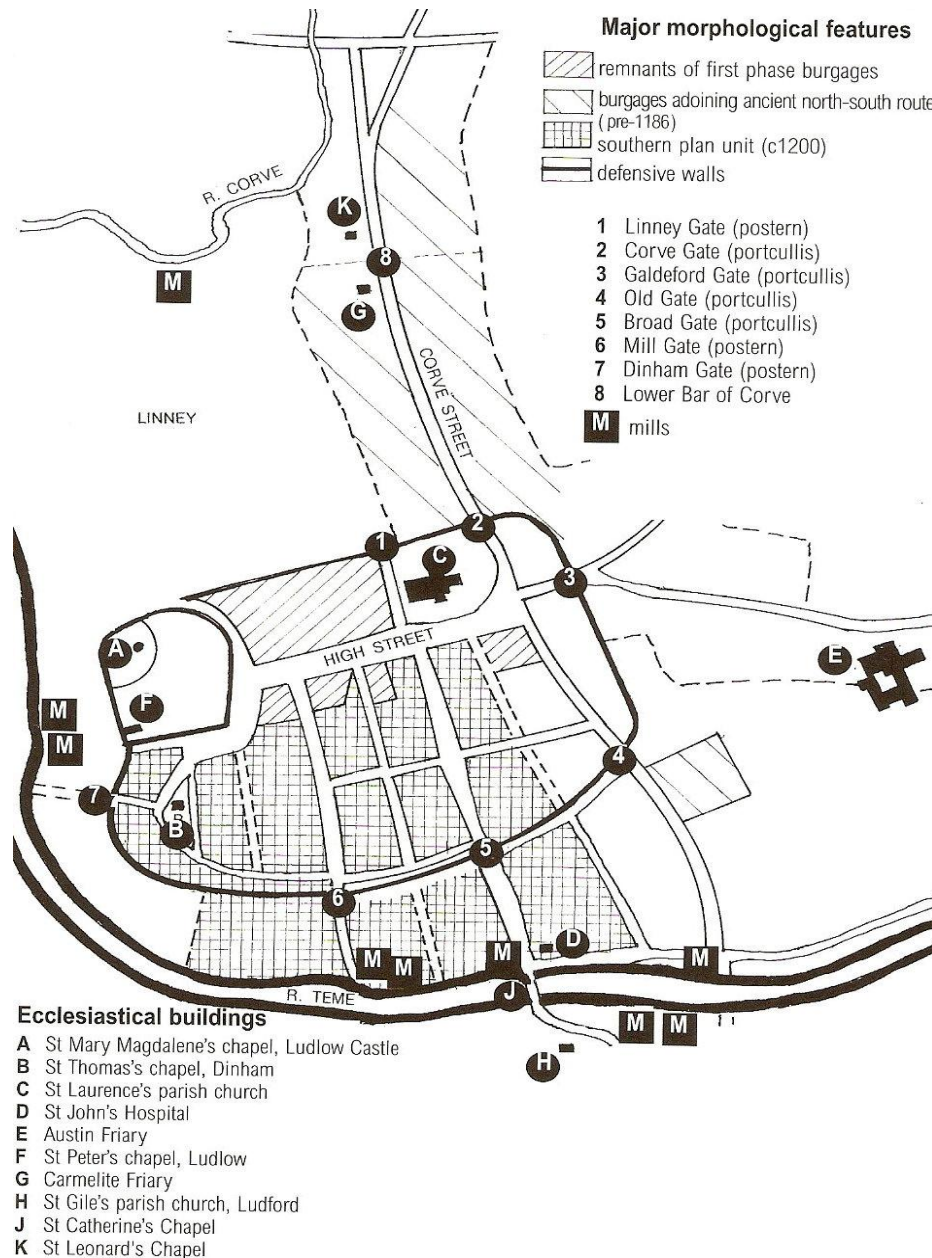


Figure 6.9:Medieval Ludlow

Source: Lloyd (1999)

The prosperity and political importance of Ludlow led to its development as a planned town, with a grid iron street pattern, radiating from High Street, which runs from the east gateway of the town walls to the gateway of the castle (Figure 6.9). Plots or ‘burgages’ were



laid out for rental on which ‘burgage tenements’ or buildings could be constructed. The plots were regular in size, usually 33 feet, 49.5 feet or 66 feet in width (ie multiples of 16.5 feet<sup>11</sup>, or just over 5 metres). Some burgages have been subdivided and some were combined, as can be seen today where the Rose and Crown in Church Street and the two shops in front of it occupy a site 49.5 feet wide (Lloyd, 1999).



Figure 6.10: Part of the surviving town wall, now incorporated into a house

Source : Online

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<sup>11</sup> This was a standard medieval measurement - a ‘perch’ of 5.5 yards or 16.5 feet (5.0292 metres).



Figure 6.11: Back view of St Laurence Church

Source: Suraiyati, taken September 2009

St Laurence Church, first established in the 11<sup>th</sup> century was rebuilt in the 14<sup>th</sup> century. Its size and architectural quality are evidence of the prosperity of the times and it is said to be the largest church in Shropshire (Clifton-Taylor, 1978: 148). Although not a cathedral<sup>12</sup>, it is often referred to today as ‘the Cathedral of the Marches’.

According to Clifton-Taylor (1978: 158) until about 1700, every house in Ludlow was timber-framed, often with quite ornate decoration, some of which is now being restored to its original rather than a ‘black and white’ condition (Figure 6.12). By the late 1700s, however, Ludlow ‘became a social centre for the surrounding nobility and gentry’ who built town

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<sup>12</sup> Ludlow is in the Diocese of Hereford

houses, of brick or stone, in the newly fashionable Georgian style, as did the town's 'professional men or local merchants' (Clifton-Taylor, 1978: 162). Other buildings from this time include the Buttercross (1744). They were followed in the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries by Victorian and Edwardian houses on the outskirts of the original town. The railway station was opened in 1852 on the Hereford to Shrewsbury line.



Figure 6.12 : Restoration of an original style of timber decoration, Ludlow  
Source :Suraiyati, taken September 2009



Figure 6.13 : Broad Street, Ludlow



Figure 6.14 : The Buttercross building by Louise Rayner (c 1850)

Source (both): Clifton-Taylor (1978: 156)





Figure 6.15 : Timber-framed buildings  
Source: Suraiyati, taken September 2009



Figure 6.16 : Georgian buildings on Mill Street  
Source: Suraiyati, taken September 2009

### 6.4.2 Ludlow Today

Ludlow today is a lively market town with a population of about 10,000. It is an important tourist centre and attracts many visitors each year. Retail, professional services, light industry and tourism are the main activities. It is a popular retirement destination.



Figure 6.17 : Ludlow Railway Station

Source: Suraiyati, March 2008

In recent years, Ludlow has gained a reputation for food – in its market, its shops and its restaurants. There is an emphasis on local produce both in the market and at the Ludlow Food Centre, a few miles north of the town. Several festivals are organised annually: for example, a Ludlow Marches Food and Drink Festival; a Spring Festival; and the annual Ludlow Festival for two weeks in June and July which features the production of a Shakespeare play in the grounds of Ludlow Castle.

Through Shropshire Council, Ludlow is a member of the Historic Towns Forum (formerly the English Historic Towns Forum), a membership organisation set up in 1987 to support professionals working in the historic built environment. It organises conferences, promotes good practice, produces publications and acts as a lobbying organisation with government, government agencies and other bodies in the heritage sector. The membership includes local authorities, civic, conservation and preservation societies, independent professionals, consultants, designers and many others, from all the countries of the British Isles.

## 6.5 In Conclusion

This chapter has provided a context for the results of the observation findings and surveys in the following chapter. It has shown the importance of public policy, through the development planning system and heritage protection, in supporting small historic towns in England. It has examined the phenomenon of the small heritage town, of which there are many hundred throughout the country, and has looked at examples of towns with a similar history to Ludlow over the past one thousand years. Finally, it has explained briefly some of the historical events and developments that have shaped present-day Ludlow, making it an important centre in its own region, and a major attraction for heritage tourism. It is the perceptions of Ludlow as a tourism destination that will be examined in the next chapter.

## 7.0 SURVEYS OF LUDLOW: VISITORS AND BUSINESS PROVIDERS

### 7.1 Introduction

This is the first of two chapters about the field work carried out in Ludlow for this research. The chapter is in three main parts. The first part (section 7.2) draws from the ‘observation’ stage of the study: the process of familiarisation with Ludlow that formed an essential foundation for the field work and which continued throughout the period of the research. The second and third parts respectively (sections 7.3 and 7.4) present the findings of the questionnaire surveys of visitors (2008) and business providers (2009). The information and experience gained in these stages of the study were drawn on in preparing for the qualitative interviews with managers of tourism and related services in Ludlow, which are the focus of the following chapter.

### 7.2 Observation Findings

As explained in Chapter 5 (see Table 5.1), regular visits were made to Ludlow to become familiar with the town and to engage with the community, for example, during the Ludlow Festival and at other events. Such observational visits, according to Veal (1997: 118), are useful not only for gathering data on the number of users of a site but also for studying the way people make use of it. The role of volunteers was apparent, for example in facilitating the Ludlow Festival; and local expertise, such as that of local historian the late Dr David Lloyd, was available to help the researcher gain an overview of the nature of heritage in

Ludlow. It was observed that many of the participants at Ludlow events are local residents, reinforcing the view of Poria et al. (2006) that the more participants perceive a site as their own heritage, the more they feel connected to and interested in it. From discussion with local residents, some who had always lived in the area and some who had moved there, for example for retirement, it seemed that most had positive feelings towards events in Ludlow, especially the Ludlow Festival, and saw them as beneficial to the community and the local economy. The impression from these informal discussions was that tourism was good for the locality but had both positive and negative impacts on the built environment. Tourism was said to contribute negatively to congestion and to cause parking problems; but positively, to encourage conservation of the townscape and the surrounding countryside, and the upgrading of the market and other local facilities.

According to the South Shropshire Local Plan (South Shropshire District Council, 1996-2011: 15), South Shropshire has a wealth of attractive villages and picturesque small market towns, a rich heritage of historic buildings and important archaeological sites, and many fine traditional buildings, all of which make a vital contribution to the character of the area. In Ludlow, the conservation efforts in maintaining historic buildings and the overall character of the town have been important in making it distinctive and special; and the Local Plan (*Policy E3: Conservation of Listed Buildings*) confirmed the Council's intention to continue promoting the conservation of buildings and features of special architectural or historic interest (listed buildings), by encouraging their full and beneficial use. However, this has not prevented the building of supermarkets in the town, such as Tesco and Somerfield, both of which aroused considerable opposition, despite attempts in the case of Tesco to make aspects of the design blend into the local landscape.



The attractive character and setting of the town are illustrated in the following pictures:



Figure 7.1: The view from the top of Ludlow Castle

Source: <http://www.flickr.com/photos/61195469@N00/6452295925/in/pool-47051315@N00>

Accessed on February 2012



Figure 7.2: The Market in Castle Square facing Ludlow Castle

Source: Suraiyati, taken June 2008

Further observations took place at the time of the Visitors' Survey from 21-27 March 2008 and covered the period from 8.00 am to 6.00 pm each day. As expected, the town is quiet until business activity begins at around 9.00 am, when deliveries are made to shops and other businesses, especially to the market in Castle Square. Traffic congestion was noticeable in King Street, Broad Street and High Street (see map, Figure 7.9) and pavement parking often obstructed pedestrians. Most deliveries are completed by 10.00 am, by which time all the shops and other business premises are open.

Ludlow exhibits the typical conflict between vehicles and pedestrians which is exacerbated by the medieval pattern and the narrowness of many of the streets. Only Tower Street is pedestrianised, though vehicle delivery to premises there is allowed from 4.00 pm to 10.00 am each day. However, a few small streets or lanes have been pedestrianised, including Parkway, Quality Square and Church Street where only loading and unloading is allowed. As indicated in *Policy S17 Traffic Management Measures, Ludlow*, the District Council in conjunction with the Highways Authority implemented agreed traffic management measures, following public consultation on the recommendations of the Ludlow Town Centre Enhancement Study (South Shropshire Local Plan 1996-2011:41).



Figure 7.3: Delivering goods on King Street

Source : Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008

Extensive off-street (designated) car parking is provided at Galdeford (near the railway station), Smithfield (at the east entrance to the town) and to the north of Castle Square (near the Castle). Being the closest to the town centre, Castle Square is normally the first car park to be fully occupied, followed by Galdeford, which is next to the Library and Museum Resource Centre and within easy walking distance of the town centre.



Figure 7.4 : Narrow Street and pavements

Source : Suraiyati, taken March 2008

Park and ride facilities are provided on the outskirts of the town. Residents' and disabled parking are available on street (with permits) and visitors may also pay to park there, but for a maximum of 2 hours. Most longer-stay visitors, therefore, will use a designated car park.



Figure 7.5 : Smithfield car park  
Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008



Figure 7.6 : Galdeford car park  
Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008





Figure 7.7: Castle Square car park  
Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008



Figure 7.8: On street parking along Broad Street  
Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008

Facilities available for tourists include public transport, a tourist information centre, public toilets, signage for pedestrians and vehicles, and seating areas. The public transport system includes rail, bus and coach services. There are no direct rail connections to regional

or national airports, which may restrict accessibility for international visitors. The Tourist Information Centre (TIC), strategically located on Castle Square opposite the market, is an important and well-used facility, and the Ludlow website provides information on matters such as the history of Ludlow, events and festivals, visitor attractions, and places to eat and stay. Ludlow Tourist Information Centre was one of top 5 TIC is in the West Midlands in 2007. At the time of the visitors' survey in March 2008, the Ludlow Museum and TIC were being refurbished, and temporary information facilities were available at Ludlow Library, near the Galdeford car park. There is extensive signage to help visitors on foot find their way around the town.

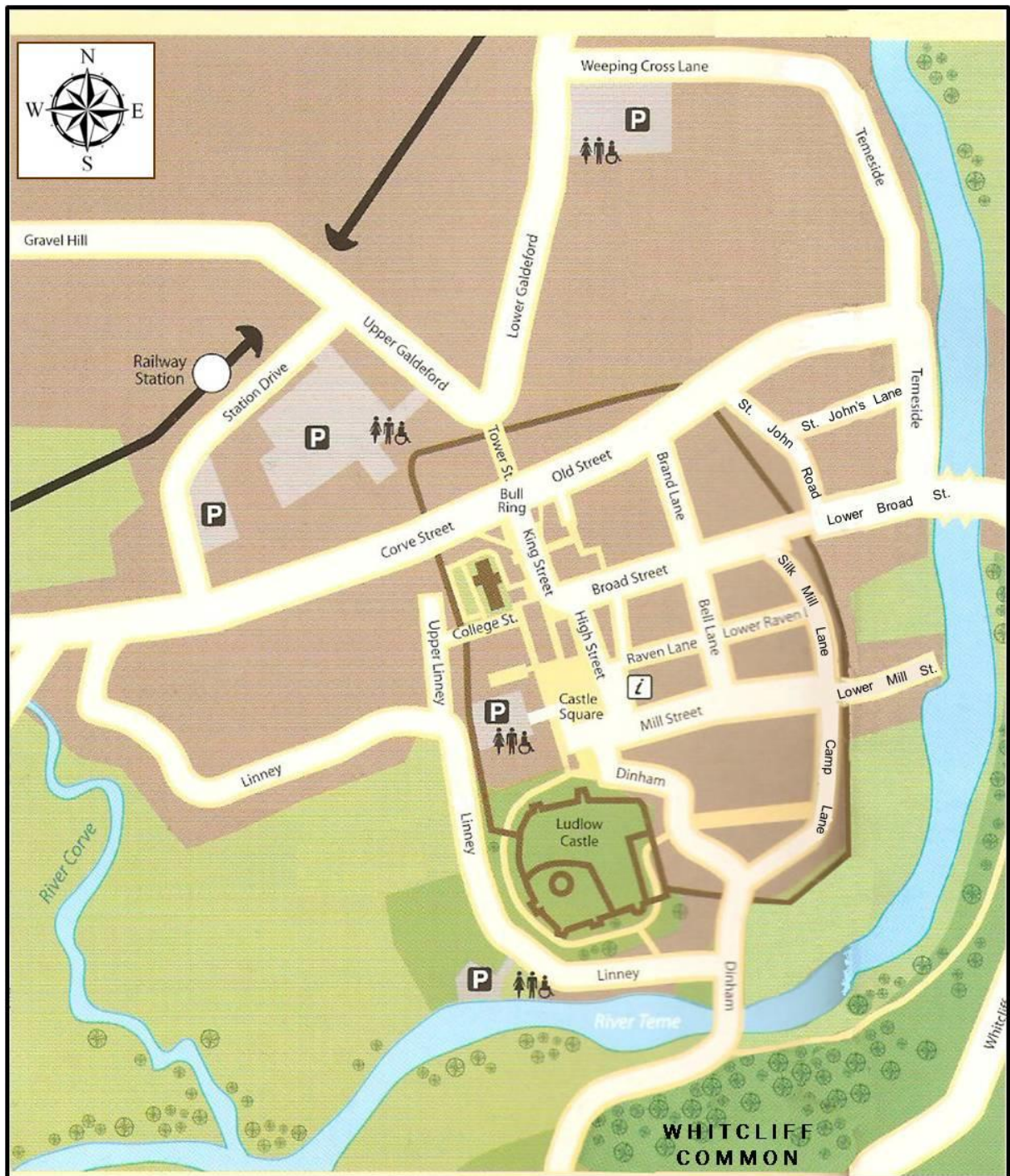


Figure 7.9: Location of facilities in town centre of Ludlow  
Source : Adapted from the brochure of Ludlow Town Guide, 2008

One of the town's main attractions is the market square (Castle Square), located strategically in front of the gateway to Ludlow Castle. Leading from the square are the streets that contain the principal businesses, offering a diverse range of local produce and facilities, such as a bakery, a butcher's a fishmonger's, souvenir shops, cafes, restaurants, hotels and other retailers. Many of the shops are independent, offering a range of speciality products, and this gives a character to Ludlow that is lacking in many other British towns and cities. The dominance of historic older buildings enhances the distinctive nature and ambience of the town centre (see Figure 7.10 – 7.15). Among the most valued historic buildings are Ludlow Castle, St. Laurence Church, The Feathers Hotel, Broadgate, the Buttercross, Castle Lodge and Angel. Each of these buildings has its special character but the overall impression given by the town is on a human scale (Telling Ludlow Stories: An interpretation plan for Ludlow, 2006). For example, although the tower of St Laurence Church is visible far away from Ludlow, to a pedestrian, the Church seems almost hidden in the town centre where it is often 'discovered' by taking one of the narrow lanes that connect the churchyard to King Street and Castle Square.

Ludlow Town Council summed up the attractions of Ludlow in 'Telling Ludlow Stories' (op cit), in a form that could be useful in a variety of ways: for example, to local groups or organisations which might be applying for grants to support local projects, or to those involved in tourism, heritage, conservation and planning in the town, including local authorities. The 'stories' were organised by area and by theme. The areas were:

- Town centre
- St Laurence Church and precinct



- Castle, Castle Walk and Linney
- Broad Street
- Corve Street/Old Street
- Riverside and Whitcliffe

The themes were

- Topography, politics and history
- Geology and conservation
- Architecture/human history
- Food and commerce
- Natural history/industrial history
- Trade, commerce, festivals

A variety of projects were put forward such as guided walks, audio trails, markets past and present, riverside play and heritage, as suggestions for those interesting in developing ideas for future implementation. This analysis and the ideas coming from it reflect Ludlow's functions as a small market town, a place to live and a place to visit. The town is used by local residents and by visitors.



Figure 7.10 : Ludlow Castle  
Source: Suraiyati, taken June 2009



Figure 7.11: St. Laurence Church



Figure 7.12: Buttercross

Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008



Figure 7.13: Angel



Figure 7.14: Broadgate

Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008



Figure 7.15: The Feathers Hotel

Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008

Observation suggests that, in general, visitors spend time in the central area of the town and by the River Teme. Some also visit local countryside attractions such as Whitcliffe Common. Patterns of visitor activities are influenced by the season. For example, school trips and coach tours to Ludlow come mainly in spring and summer, rather than in autumn and winter. When staying in Ludlow, the author has observed fluctuations in visitor numbers



on weekdays and at weekends, and a relative lack of visitors in the town centre during the evenings. This is not surprising since it was noted in Chapter 5 that the average length of stay by visitors is three hours. For general observation purposes, visitors are readily distinguished from residents by the interest they show in heritage buildings, taking photographs, buying souvenirs, window shopping, and ‘menu-browsing’ or eating in cafes and restaurants. It was striking to see how many visitors were amazed by the sight of Ludlow Castle in particular. Some read the information about these historic buildings on the display board outside the castle, which also gave details of festivals and other events.



Figure 7.16: Shopping for local produce at individual shops



Figure 7.17: Monthly event (Local produce at Buttercross)



Figure 7.18: Visitors reading the information



Figure 7.19: Visitors at Ludlow Castle

Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008

## 7.3 Visitors' Survey

### 7.3.1 Introduction

The visitors' survey was undertaken during the Easter holidays 2008 (21<sup>st</sup> March – 27<sup>th</sup> March) and at the Marches Transport Event on 11<sup>th</sup> May 2008. The methods of data collection and analysis were explained in Chapter 5. The sample aimed for was 100 and the number of interviews achieved was 100<sup>13</sup>. Inevitably, some visitors refused to participate through time constraints or lack of interest (there were 30 refusals altogether) but the researcher continued interviewing until the target number was reached.

The purpose of the survey was to explore the visitors' experience (the 'demand side') of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in Ludlow. Similar issues were explored from the 'supply side' in the survey of business providers in Ludlow, which is reported in the next part of this chapter. The other research themes of Sustainability and Heritage Tourism Management (see Chapter 5, Figure 5.1) are addressed mainly through the qualitative survey of appointed officials and tourism managers, which forms the subject of Chapter 8.

In reporting the results of the surveys, some comparisons are made with the findings of previous studies in Ludlow, as explained in Chapter 5 (section 5.5).

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<sup>13</sup> 84 interviews were achieved from 21-27 March and 16 interviews on 11 May 2008.

### 7.3.2 Respondents' Profile/Background

Survey respondents were asked a number of questions including: gender, age, highest level of education, and country of origin, to enable them to be classified by socio-demographic background or 'type'. In accordance with usual practice (to minimise non-response), these questions were placed towards the end of the survey. Respondents were asked to answer for themselves, rather than as a couple, family or other group of visitors. Information on background is important not only as a means of classifying respondents but also because previous research has shown that the socio-demographic background and type of visitors might be a factor influencing their perception of and views on the built environmental impacts of tourism (Lie et al., 1987; Suraiyati, 2005 and Petrosilli et al., 2007).

#### Age Group and Gender

Age Group	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Under 25 years old	4%	9%	13%
25 -44 years old	12%	27%	39%
45 to 64 years old	18%	20%	38%
65 years old and above	5%	5%	10%
Total	39%	61%	100%

Table 7.1: Age group and gender

Table 7.1 shows that female respondents (61%) substantially outnumbered male respondents (39%). Most respondents (77%) were aged from 25 to 64 years, with almost equal percentages aged 25 to 44 (39%) and 45 to 64 (38%). The smallest group of respondents were aged 65 years and above (10%). This age distribution is quite similar to that of the 2007

Ludlow Destination Benchmarking survey, where the highest proportion of respondents was aged 45 to 64 years (49%).

#### Age Group and Level of Education

Age group	Highest level of education			Total
	Secondary	College	University	
Under 25 years old	4%	4%	5%	13%
25 -44 years old	6%	9%	24%	39%
45 to 64 years old	10%	13%	15%	38%
65 years old and above	5%	1%	4%	10%
Total	25%	27%	48%	100%

Table 7.2: Age group and level of education

Table 7.2 cross-tabulates the age group of respondents by their highest level of education. A high proportion of all respondents (75%) had studied at college or university level with 48% having studied at university, much higher than the national average for the United Kingdom of 23% ‘degree or equivalent or higher for all occupations’<sup>14</sup>. By age, the highest proportion of respondents with university level education was in the group aged 25 to 44 years.

<sup>14</sup> Office for National Statistics (2009) Social Trends 38, Chapter 3 Table 3.15.

### Visitors' Country of Origin

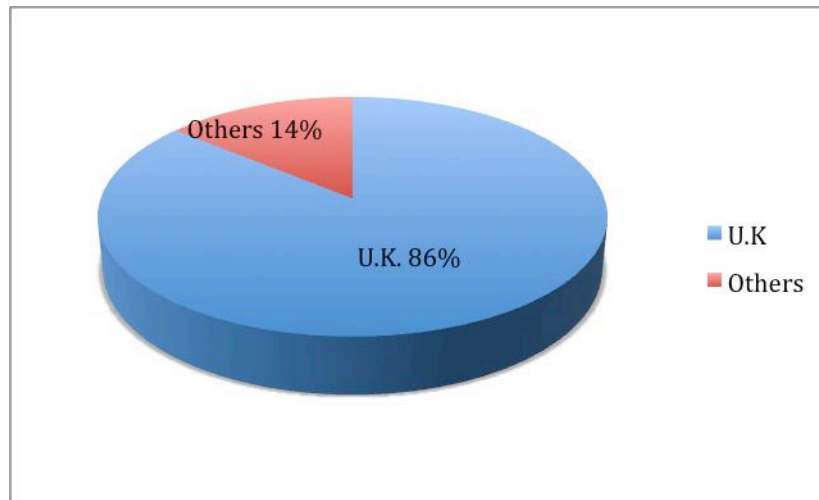


Figure 7.20: Visitors' country of origin

Most visitors in the survey (86%) were domestic tourists from the United Kingdom and 14% came from countries outside the UK. Those represented are shown in Figure 7.20. The percentage of international visitors in the survey was higher than the 10% recorded in the Ludlow Destination Marketing Benchmark survey of 2007, which included visitors from Australia, Canada, South Africa and Hong Kong, as well as from most of the countries recorded in the 2010 survey, but no particular significance can be inferred from this. The fact is, however, that Ludlow is attractive to international visitors from a wide range of countries, both in Europe and further afield.



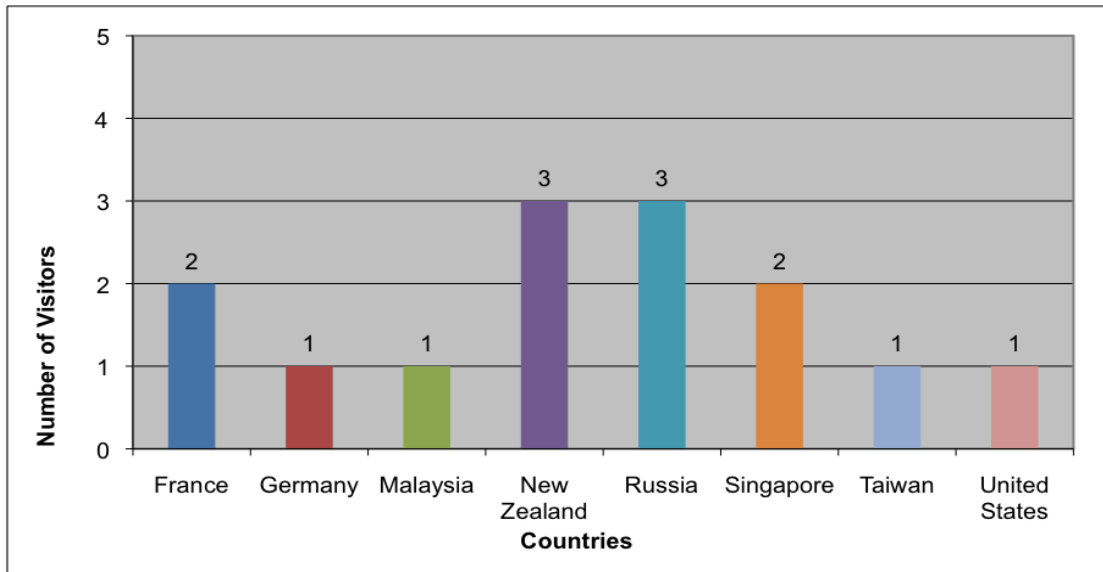


Figure 7.21: Country of origin of international tourists

### 7.3.3 Characteristics of Visitors

#### New / Repeat Visitors

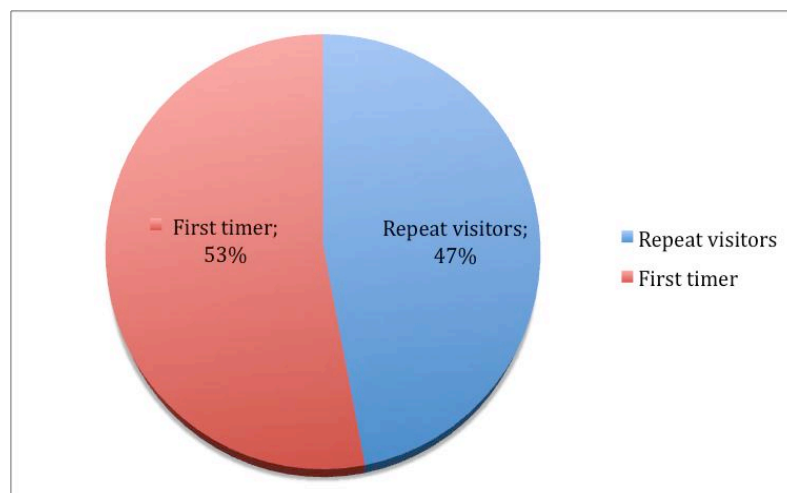


Figure 7.22 : New or repeat visitors

Nearly half (47%) the survey respondents had visited Ludlow before and 53% were making their first visit. The distribution of first time and repeat visitors by age group shows

that, as might be expected, a higher proportion of older visitors (27% aged 45 years and above) had visited before, compared with 31% aged up to 44 years who were making their first visit (Table 7.3).

#### Age Group: New and Repeat Visitors

Age group	First visit?		Total
	Yes	No	
Under 25 years old	9%	4%	13%
25 -44 years old	23%	16%	39%
45 to 64 years old	17%	21%	38%
65 years old and above	4%	6%	10%
Total	53%	47%	100%

Table 7.3: Age group, new and repeat visitors

#### Repeat Visitors: number of visits within the past 12 months

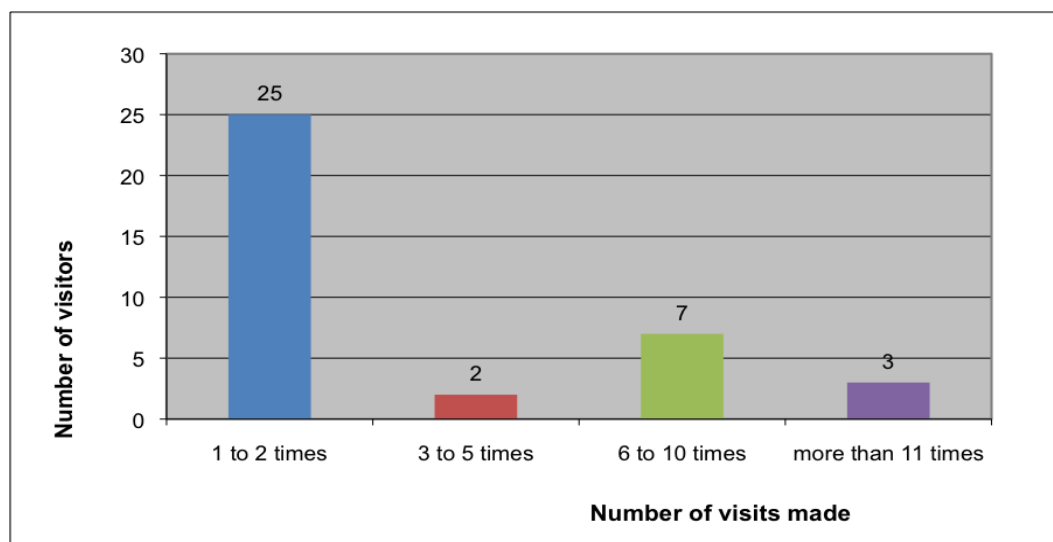


Figure 7.22: Repeat visitors: number of visits within the past 12 months

Of those respondents who had visited Ludlow more than once within the past twelve months, by far the largest number (25) had visited once or twice during that period. Smaller numbers had visited more often. Those in the higher categories (6 visits or more) were making visits to friends or relatives, or to a caravan they kept nearby.

#### Age Group and Group Size

Age group	Are you travelling					Total
	Alone	With family	With friend(s)	With a group	With partner	
Under 25 years old	1 %	7%	1%	-	4%	13%
25 -44 years old	-	28%	11%	-	-	39%
45 to 64 years old	3%	27%	3%	2%	3%	38%
65 years old and above	1%	8%	1%	-	-	10%
Total	5%	70%	16%	2%	7%	100%

Table 7.4: Age group and group Size

Nearly three-quarters of respondents (70%) were travelling with their family, followed by 16% who were travelling with friends. Not surprisingly, those travelling as a family were mainly in the age groups 22 to 44 years and 45 to 65 years. The relative absence of respondents travelling as part of a group is not surprising given the nature of the survey and the way it was carried out. From observation throughout the study, it was clear that group visits to Ludlow are made by coach parties, and this type of visitor may not be fully represented in the survey.

### Main Reason for Visiting Ludlow

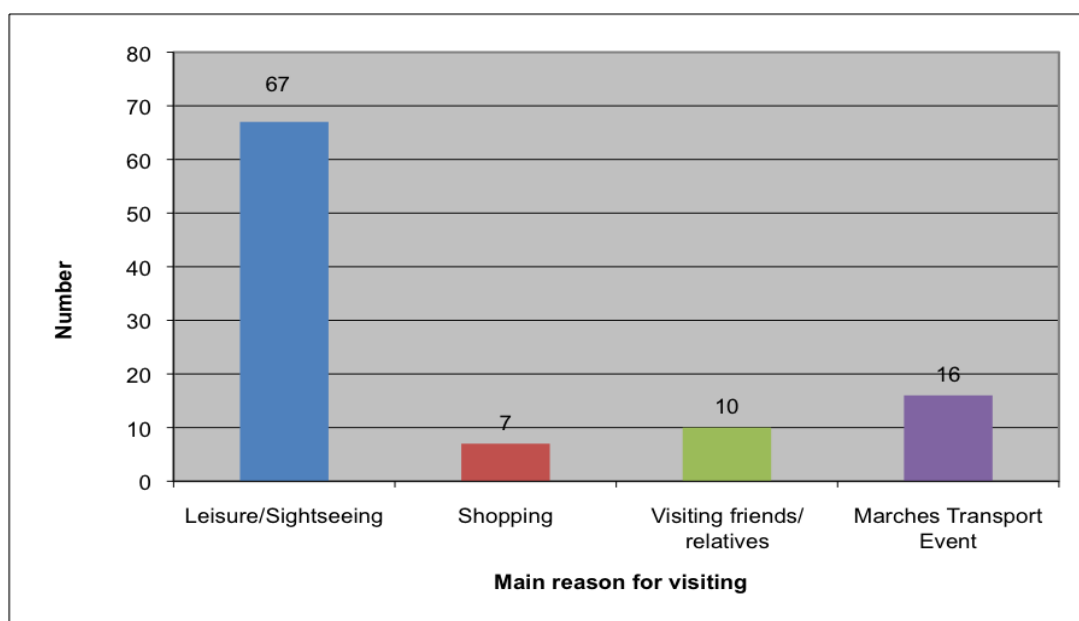


Figure 7.23: Main reason for visiting Ludlow

Most respondents (67) were visiting Ludlow for leisure or sightseeing and a further 16 (those interviewed on 11 May 2008) mentioned the Marches Transport Event. Only 7% gave ‘shopping’ as the main reason for their visit. These findings are in contrast to those of the 2007 Ludlow Benchmarking survey, in which sightseeing accounted for 53% of visits and shopping for 15%. The reasons for these differences are not clear: they may be due to the different times of year (spring and summer) at which the two surveys were carried out. However, the high proportion of ‘leisure and sightseeing’ visitors in the present survey was considered helpful in relation to the objectives of this research.

Age Group	Main reason for visiting				Total
	Leisure/ Sightseeing	Shopping	Visiting friends/ relatives	Marches Transport Event	
Under 25 years old	12%	-	1%	-	13%
25 -44 years old	29%	3%	4%	3%	39%
45 to 64 years old	22%	4%	3%	9%	38%
65 years old and above	4%	-	2%	4%	10%
Total	67%	7%	10%	16%	100%

Table 7.5: Age group and main reason for visiting

In terms of age group, there was a clear dominance of those aged 25 to 44 and 45 to 64 in the proportion of respondents visiting for leisure/sightseeing (Table 7.5)

#### Length of Stay in Ludlow

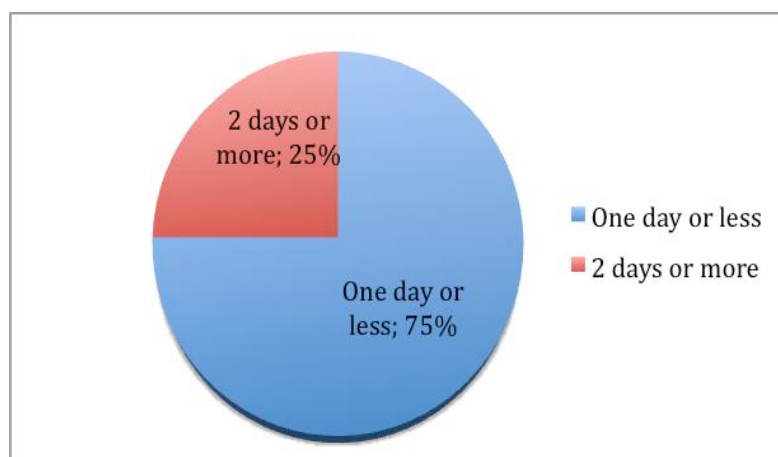


Figure 7.24: Length of stay in Ludlow

Three-quarters of respondents were visiting Ludlow for one day or less and their visit did not include an overnight stay. This is typical of visitor patterns to many smaller tourist

destinations and in the case of Ludlow, the finding is consistent with that of the Ludlow Visitor and Business Survey (2004) in which the average length of stay by visitors was given as three hours.

### Main Method of Travel to Ludlow

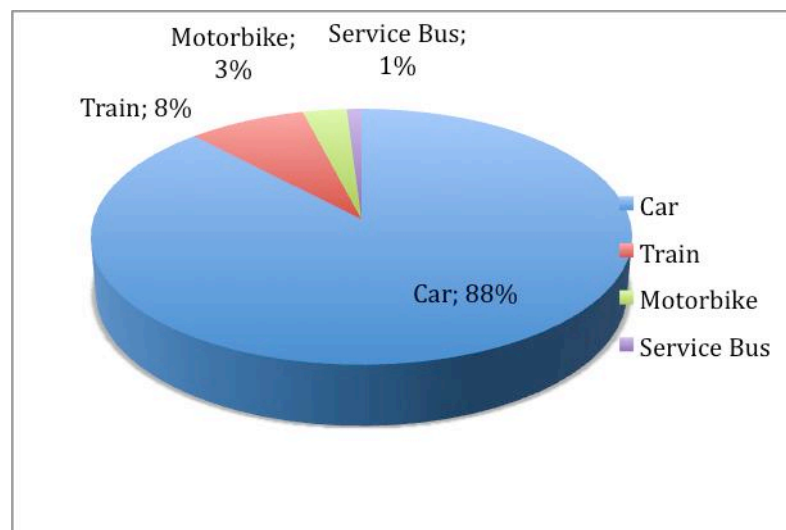


Figure 7.25: Main method of travel

The overwhelming majority of respondents (88%) had travelled to Ludlow by car. The next most popular form of transport (8%) was by train. These percentages are higher than those in the 2007 Ludlow Destination Benchmarking survey (car/van/motorcycle 78%; and train 3%) but both results show the dependence of Ludlow on the motor car as a means of attracting visitors to the town.

## Activities while Visiting

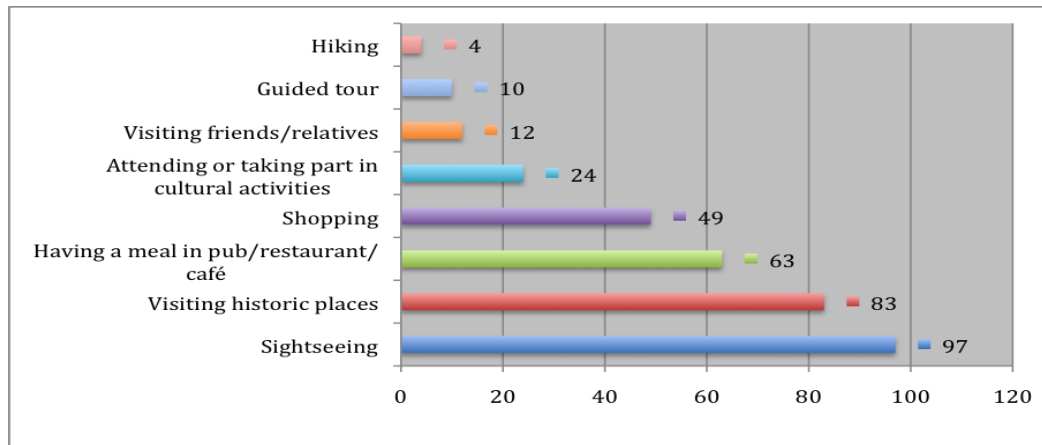


Figure 7.26: Activities (have been doing or expect to do) while visiting

(Note: respondents may give more than one answer)

Figure 7.26 and Table 7.5 showed that the majority of respondents gave ‘leisure/sightseeing’ as their main reason for visiting Ludlow. To allow more detailed analysis, the questionnaire also asked about the range of activities people intended during the course of their visit. In this case, more than one answer could be given. Once again (Figure 7.26), sightseeing achieved the largest number of responses (97) out of the 342 recorded altogether. This was closely followed by ‘visiting historic places’ (83), having a meal in a pub or restaurant (63) and shopping (49). These second and subsequent ranked responses show that being a visitor almost invariably leads to some form of expenditure: beginning with a car parking fee and then, perhaps, admission fees to a visitor attraction, buying a meal in a restaurant, or buying goods in a local shop. The connections between the demand and the supply side of the ‘tourism equation’ are thus clearly indicated. Sightseeing and shopping were the two most important primary / main activities. Eating out and visiting friends and relatives, while not as important, were still significant main activities. Together, these four activities accounted for the main activities of 92% of visitors (Tourism Enterprise and Management, 2004).

### 7.3.4 Visitors' Perceptions

#### Factors Influencing the Decision to Visit Ludlow

Factors	Not important/ Not relevant	Important	Very important
It is easy to get here	52%	42%	6%
It is an attractive place	5%	57%	38%
Interesting historic buildings	8%	63%	29%
There are good places to eat	55%	33%	12%
There is good local produce (at market/shops)	56%	35%	9%
There are good cultural activities	50%	46%	4%
There are plenty of facilities here for visitors	34%	49%	7%
Others factors			
Marches Transport Event		1%	17%
Hiking		3%	
Family farm area			3%

Table 7.6: Factors influencing the decision to visit Ludlow

Note: (percentages total across for each factor)

In order to gain a greater understanding of respondents' reasons for visiting Ludlow, they were shown a series of statements and asked to rank each of them as 'not important/not relevant', 'important' and 'very important'. The results are shown in Table 7.6. Almost all were motivated to visit Ludlow because 'it is an attractive place', with 95% giving this as an important (57%) or very important (38%) factor influencing their decision to visit the town. The second important (63%) or very important (29%) factors, together totalling 92%, were the 'interesting historic buildings' in Ludlow. While other factors were rated, none were given such importance as these two, though having 'good places to eat', 'good local produce' and



‘good cultural facilities’ were all ranked fairly positively. Perhaps surprisingly, however, given the reputation of Ludlow as a centre for gastronomy and slow food, the proportion of respondents that rated these factors as ‘not important/not relevant’ to their decision to visit was high, at over 50% in both cases.

### Value and Appreciation of Heritage

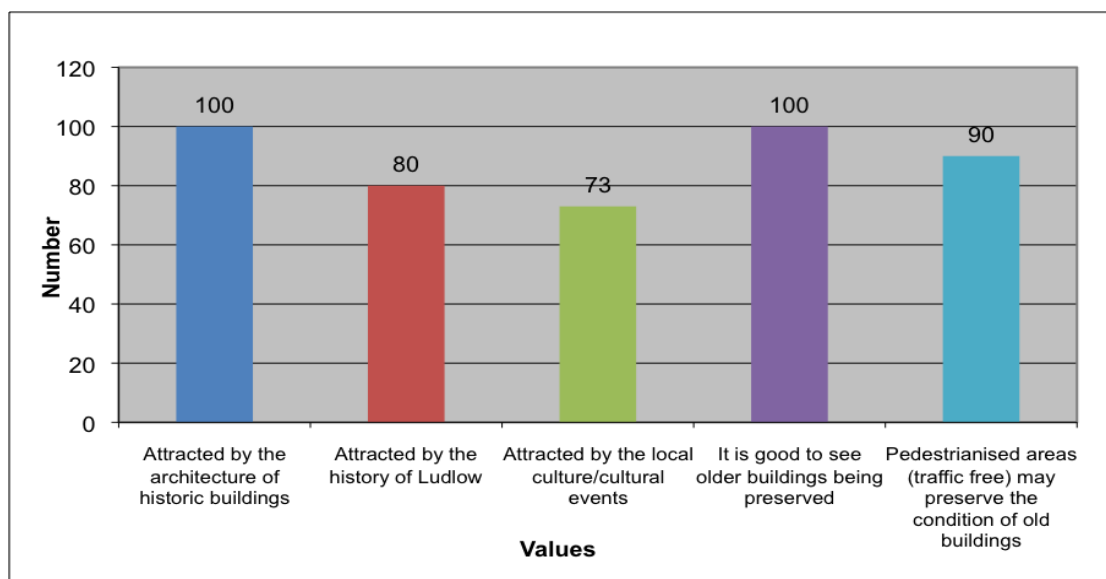


Figure 7.27: Value and appreciation of heritage

(Note: respondents may give more than one answer)

An important aim of the survey was to explore visitors’ perceptions of heritage and the value they placed on different aspects of it. According to Williams and Lawson (2001), attitudes are determined more by values than by social variables and this part of the survey set out to examine this in a simple way. Figure 7.27 (above) shows that all respondents agreed they were ‘attracted by the architecture of historic buildings’ and that ‘it is good to see older buildings being preserved’. Furthermore, 80% of respondents said they were ‘attracted by the history of Ludlow’ and 73% by ‘local culture/cultural events’. An even higher percentage

(90%) agreed that ‘pedestrianised areas may preserve the condition of old buildings’, though as was noted earlier in this chapter, pedestrianisation is not widespread in Ludlow.

#### Values and Level of Education

Values	Highest level of education		
	Secondary	College	University
Attracted by the architecture of historic buildings	25%	27%	48%
Attracted by the history of Ludlow	19%	22%	39%
Attracted by the local culture/cultural events	19%	23%	31%
It is good to see older building being preserved	25%	27%	48%
Pedestrianised areas (traffic free) may preserve the condition of old buildings	24%	22%	44%

Table 7.7: Values and level of education (percentages total across)

(Note: respondents may give more than one answer)

Disaggregating these figures by highest level of education (Table 7.7) shows that the highest proportions agreeing with all the statements are for respondents who studied to university level, thus tending to support a view that level of education will influence attitudes and values that are positive towards heritage.

### Quality of the Built Environment in Ludlow (Facilities and Visual Appearance)

Factors	Don't Know	Very Poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very Good	Mean
Conservation of old buildings	2%	-	-	3%	48%	47%	4.36
The character of the town	5%	-	-	2%	49%	47%	4.37
Landscaping of the area	4%	-	-	3%	57%	36%	4.17
Provision of sufficient rubbish bins	23%		1%	30%	35%	11%	2.87
Provision of public toilet facilities	27%	8%	19%	28%	15%	3%	2.05
Provision of benches/sitting areas	2%	-	2%	6%	60%	30%	4.12
Tourist Information Centre services	37%	1%	6%	14%	33%	9%	2.32
Signposting (for cars)	16%	-	3%	23%	47%	11%	3.18
Signposting (for pedestrians)	14%	-	2%	20%	54%	10%	3.30
Parking facilities	10%	2%	11%	33%	35%	9%	3.08
Pedestrianised streets	5%	1%	11%	19%	55%	9%	3.45
Provision of park and ride	65%	-	5%	2%	25%	3%	1.31
Public transportation system (buses and train)	83%	-	-	1%	15%	1%	0.38

Table 7.8: Quality of built environment (Facilities and visual appearance)

The concept of perceptual carrying capacity has been adopted in this study as a means of examining the built environmental impacts of tourism from the users' point of view. The factors on which users' perceptions are based relate to Hunter and Green's (1995) concept of

a typology of the built environmental impacts of tourism, as discussed in Chapter 3. The factors selected for examination in the survey reflect the utilities and infrastructure most likely to be experienced during a visit, which can influence the visitors' impressions of the visual quality or appearance of the town. Table 7.8 lists the factors included in the questionnaire and the responses on the scale of 'very poor' to 'very good'. A category of 'don't know' was included, since not every respondent was expected to have experienced all the factors during their visit. In some cases the 'don't know' percentages are quite high and this must be borne in mind in interpreting the Table: for example, 83% of respondents did not know about the public transportation system; and 37% answered 'don't know' when asked to evaluate the Tourist Information Centre, though a reason for this fairly high figure, as noted previously, may be that the TIC was temporarily located in the Library at the time of the survey.

Perhaps the key findings from Table 7.8 are the very high proportions of respondents who ranked highly the conservation of old buildings (95% 'good' or 'very good'), the character of the town (96% good or very good), the landscaping of the area (93% good or very good), and the provision of benches or seating areas (90% good or very good). Other facilities such as signposting, parking and pedestrianisation scored quite highly but 25% thought the provision of public toilet facilities was 'poor' or 'very poor'; 13% criticised the parking facilities as poor or very poor; and 12% said the provision of pedestrianised streets was poor or very poor, perhaps reflecting the traffic congestion and vehicle-pedestrian conflict noted earlier in the chapter.

## Advantages of Encouraging Tourists to a Heritage Town

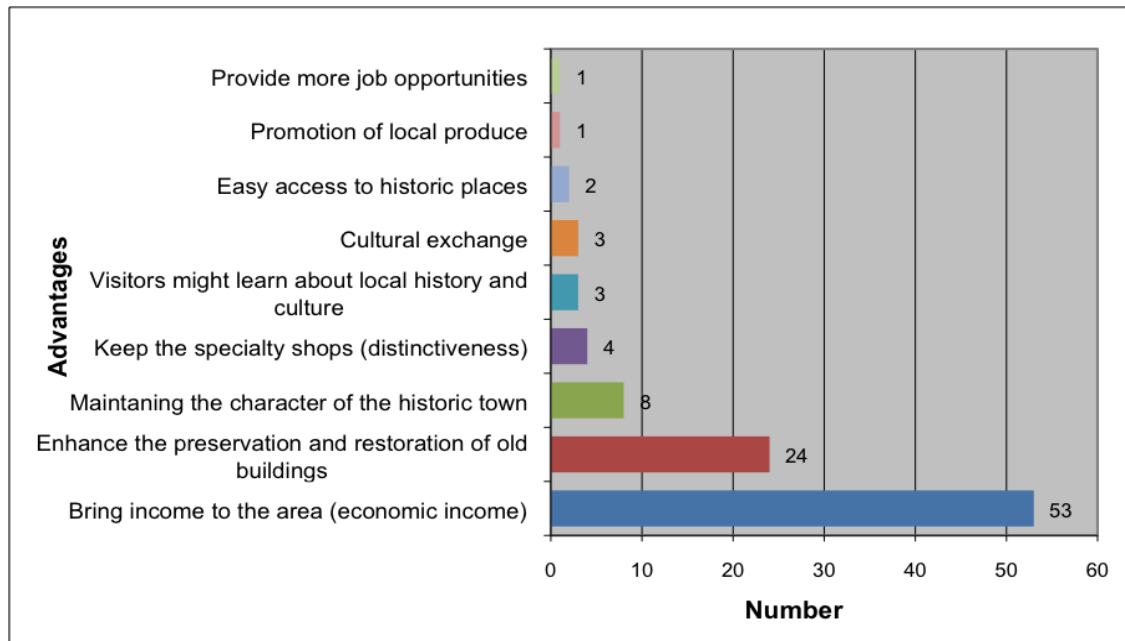


Figure 7.28: Advantages of encouraging tourists to a heritage town

(Note: Respondents may give up to three answers)

A small number of open-ended questions were included in the survey, to probe respondents' views on what they saw as the advantages and disadvantages of encouraging tourism to an historic town such as Ludlow. They were asked to state up to three advantages and three disadvantages. Looking first at the perceived advantages (Figure 7.28) the largest number of responses (53) mentioned the economic benefits of tourism through 'bringing income to the area'. The second most important advantage was to enhance the preservation and restoration of older buildings (24 responses). Other advantages mentioned included: maintaining the character of the town, supporting the speciality shops, learning about local history, and cultural exchange.

## Disadvantages of Encouraging Tourists to a Heritage Town

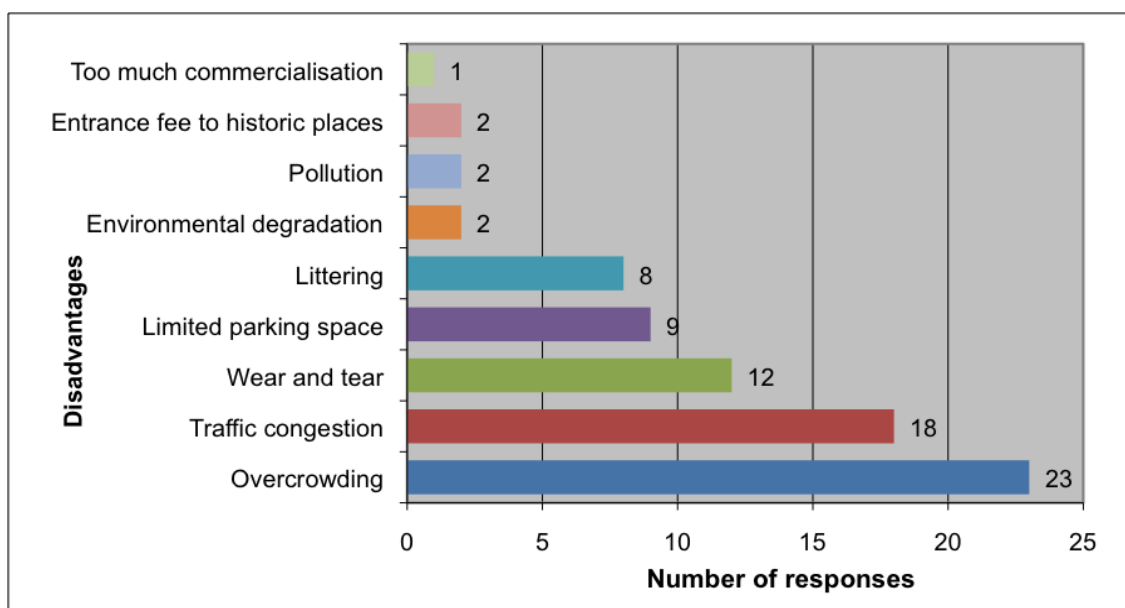


Figure 7.29: Disadvantages of encouraging tourists to a heritage town

(Note: Respondents may give up to three answers)

The main disadvantages of encouraging tourism were seen to be overcrowding, mentioned by 23 respondents, traffic congestion (18), 'wear and tear', limited parking, and litter.

## Most Attractive Buildings in Ludlow

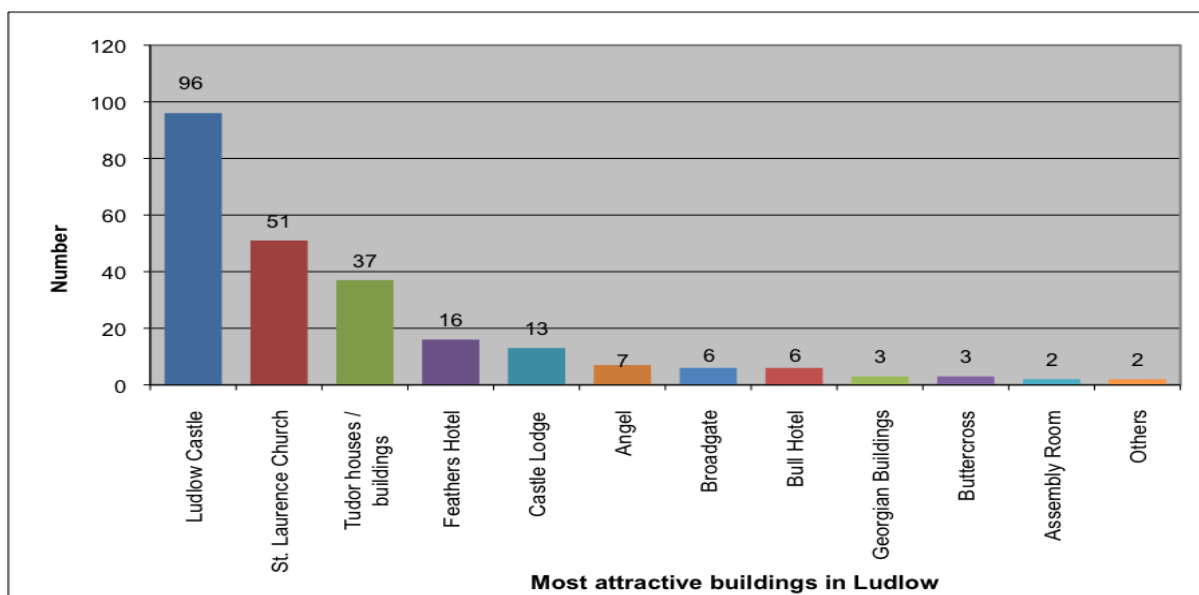


Figure 7.30: Most attractive buildings in Ludlow

(Note: Respondents may give more than one answer)

When asked about the most attractive buildings in Ludlow, almost all respondents (96) said Ludlow Castle, followed by St Laurence Church (51), the timber framed Tudor houses and buildings (37) and the Feathers Hotel (16). Several other buildings of interest were mentioned by smaller numbers of respondents. Although, with the exception of the castle, the response to specific individual buildings is less than might be expected, it must be remembered that the character of the town and the conservation of old buildings were rated very highly by most respondents (Table 7.8), thus emphasising the importance of the overall impression of Ludlow created amongst its visitors. It could also be suggested, however, that in a typical visit of a few hours' in length, visitors might not be familiar with the names or types of all the buildings on which they were asked to express an opinion.

### Positive Characteristics of Heritage Buildings in Ludlow

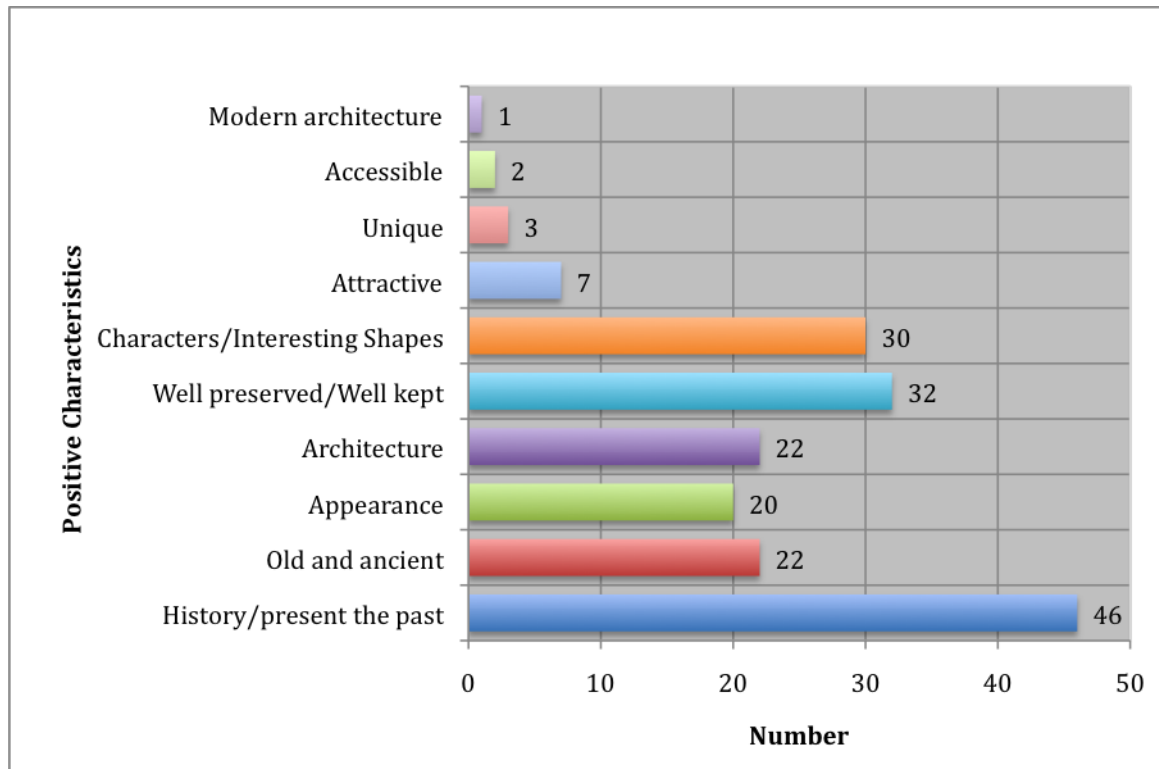


Figure 7.31: Positive characteristics of heritage buildings in Ludlow

(Note: Respondents may give more than one answer)

Figures 7.31 and 7.32 indicate respectively the respondents' perceptions of the positive and negative aspects of heritage buildings in Ludlow. On the positive side, 185 responses indicated a favourable view (Table 7.32) while only 9 negative comments were made (Table 7.33). Without going into the detailed responses recorded on each table, the important point here is the strength of respondents' positive feelings toward the character of the heritage buildings in Ludlow, compared to the small number of negative points that were made by a very small number of respondents.



## Negative Characteristics of Heritage Buildings in Ludlow

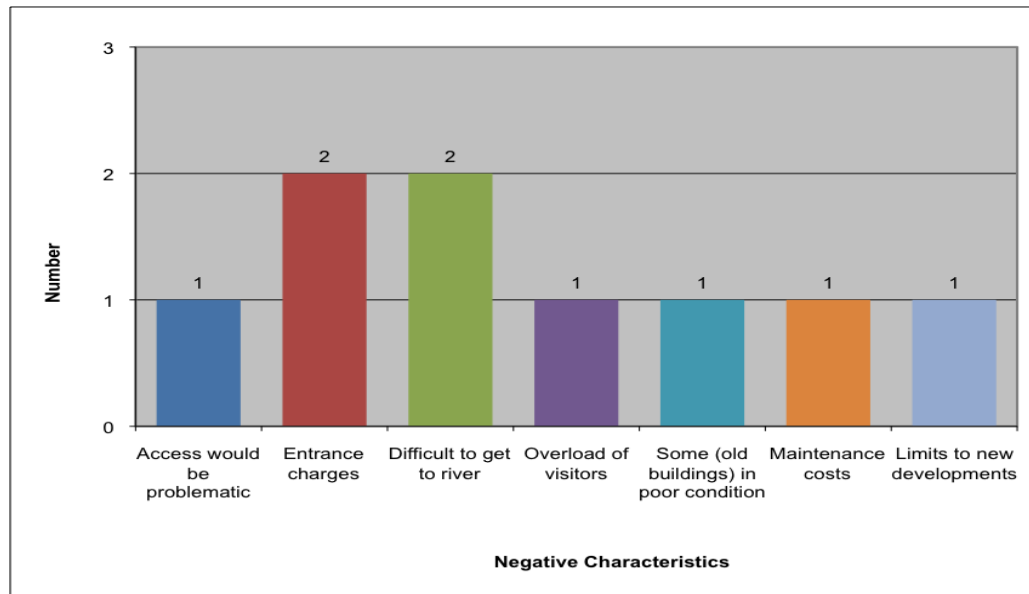


Figure 7.32: Negative characteristics of heritage buildings in Ludlow

(Note: Respondents may give more than one answer)

One of the main potential impacts of tourism on the built environment is the restoration of older buildings to retain their character (Hunter and Green, 1995), as discussed in Chapter 3. But restoration is only one form of action against, or resulting from, decay. To explore visitors' perceptions on this, the survey asked for their opinion on the best way of maintaining old buildings. The majority response (73%) was that historic buildings should be maintained in their original condition, though a smaller proportion (11%) felt that the buildings could be restored with modifications, for example, to reflect present-day circumstances of use. This is perhaps the most practical response, since it recognises that, through their lives, older buildings often may have been modified because of changing circumstances: for example, a change of use; or the introduction of modern facilities such as electricity or running water; or the availability of new materials that might be used in a concealed way to give greater soundness to the structure.

Although views on how to maintain older buildings may differ, all respondents agreed that maintenance in one form or another is necessary, to protect buildings against decay. There were none who preferred to accept decay, through inaction or demolition, as discussed by Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) and presented in Figure 3.3 of Chapter 3. Of the three ‘prevent’ options put forward by Ashworth and Tunbridge (restore, conserve or copy), the approach most favoured in our survey was that older buildings should be conserved.

### Suggestions for Maintaining Old Buildings

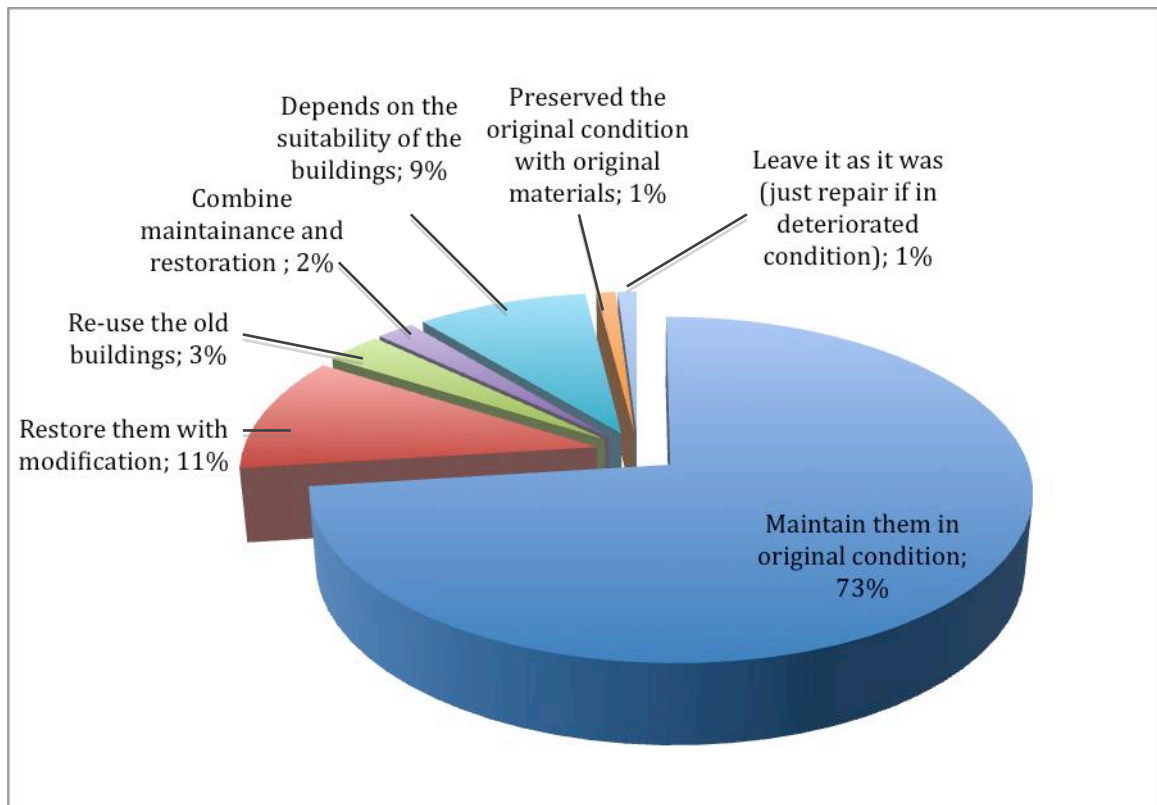


Figure 7.33: Suggestions for maintaining old buildings

## Ludlow as a Tourist Destination

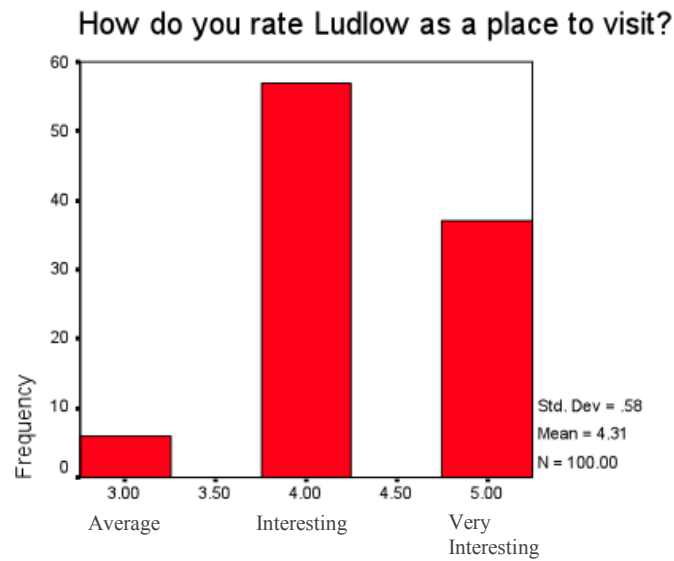


Figure 7.34: Ludlow as a tourist destination

As shown in Figure 7.34, most respondents rated Ludlow as a ‘very interesting’ or ‘interesting’ destination (mean 4.31) because of its distinctiveness as a small heritage town and its environment. Only 5 per cent rated Ludlow as an ‘average’ destination to visit. Ninety-seven per cent of respondents said they would revisit Ludlow while only 3 per cent would not come again. This supports what is shown in Table 7.8, where the quality of the built environment (facilities and visual appearance) is ranked highly (‘good’ or ‘very good’) by a high proportion of visitors, implying a high level of visitor satisfaction.

In the context of cultural tourism and the services provided by cultural organisations, Rojas and Camarero (2009) have shown that visitors’ expectations are affected by both cognitive (perceived quality) and emotional (pleasure) experiences; and these can be viewed as complementary paths resulting in satisfaction. Perceived value and its role in contributing to visitor satisfaction, according to Chen and Chen (2009), should be an important issue for managers when designating their heritage sustainability strategies.

## 7.4 Business Providers Survey

### 7.4.1 Introduction

The business providers' survey in Ludlow was undertaken from 2<sup>nd</sup> - 8<sup>th</sup> May 2009. As explained in Chapter 5, the study aimed for 100 completed questionnaires (about 36% of all businesses in the town<sup>15</sup>) and the number achieved was 80. Seven of the businesses approached refused to take part, and 3 questionnaires, when coded, were found to be incomplete and were therefore excluded from the analysis. Many respondents, because they were at work, preferred to complete the questionnaire themselves rather than being interviewed by the researcher<sup>16</sup>. In these cases, two visits were made to each business: one to deliver and one to collect the completed questionnaires.

Streets	Number	Percentage (%)
Corve St	18	23
Parkway	2	3
Bull Ring	5	6
Tower St	6	8
Old St	5	6
King St	9	11
High St	7	9
Broad St	8	10
Church St	5	6
Quality Square	2	3
Market St	5	6
Castle St	5	6
Mill St	3	4
Total	80	100

Table 7.9: Distribution of responses by street

Note: The location of streets can be seen in the town maps (Figures 5.4 and 7.9)

<sup>15</sup> The 2007 White Young Green 'South Shropshire 'District Retail and Leisure Study 2006 to 2021' distributed questionnaires to all local businesses (222) and achieved a 20% response rate (45 completed forms).

<sup>16</sup> 50 questionnaires were completed by respondents and 30 by interview with the researcher.

The aim of the survey was to obtain basic information about the nature of business activity in Ludlow town centre; and to explore the views of business providers on the built environmental impacts of tourism. Table 7.9 shows the number and percentage of businesses taking part on each of the streets in the ‘town centre’ that were sampled for the survey (see Figure 5.4, Chapter 5). Not all business premises were occupied and this was attributed by at least one respondent to the ‘global economic downturn’ and ‘high business rates’ (Interviews with local business, May 2009). In other cases, buildings were under reconstruction or refurbishment.

#### **7.4.2 Respondents’ Profile: Business in Ludlow town centre**

A ‘business respondent’, as defined in Chapter 5, owned or managed the sampled business/service, or worked on the premises. Figure 7.37 shows that more than half the respondents (42) gave their job title as ‘owner/director’ or ‘manager’ of the business and a further 23 as ‘sales or shop assistant’. The next largest group (8 respondents) were placed in the ‘other’ category: this includes people who defined themselves according to their profession such as optician, bookbinder, or antique dealer. With hindsight, it might have been better in designing the survey to be more precise about who should have been considered the ‘most appropriate’ business respondents but in practice, this would have limited the number of responses that could be achieved, perhaps to an unsatisfactory extent. In considering the results of the business providers’ survey, therefore, it should be borne in mind that the information obtained and the views expressed are those of respondents *working* in the business sector in Ludlow rather than necessarily *representing* people in a particular class of job in the local business community.

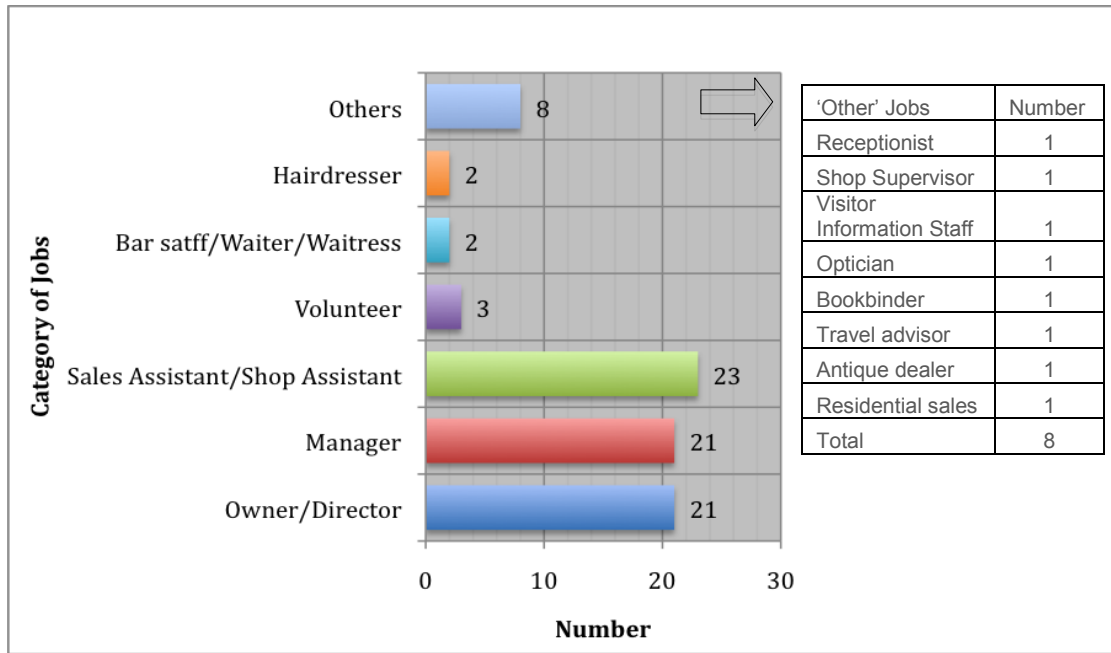


Figure 7.35: Respondents and their jobs

## The Businesses

The following Figures (7.38 – 7.42) provide further information on the businesses surveyed in Ludlow:

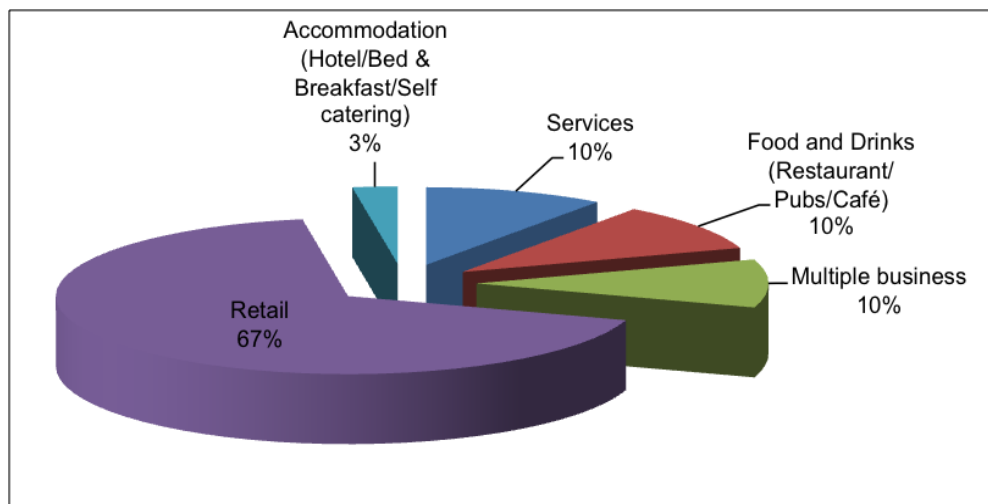


Figure 7.36: Type of business

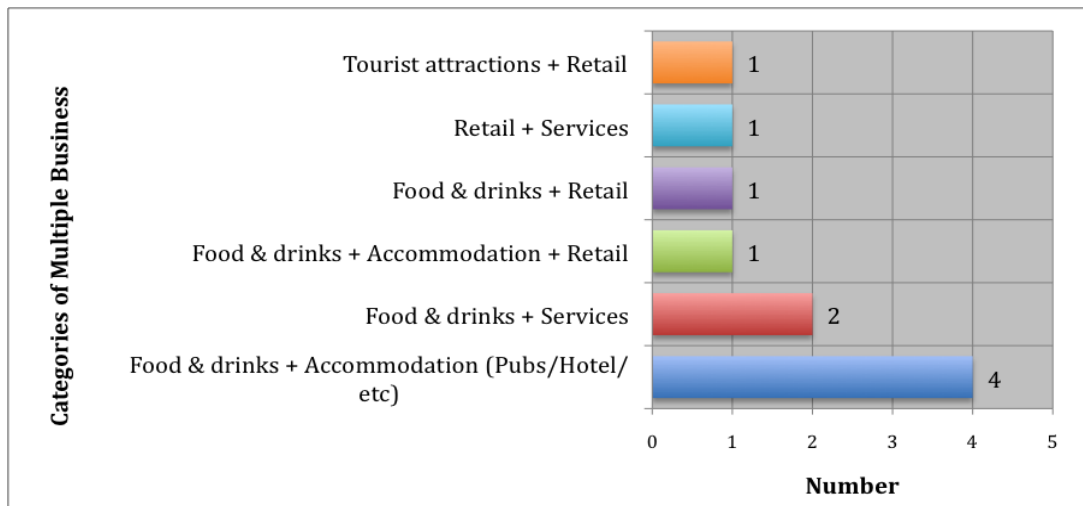


Figure 7.37: Multiple businesses

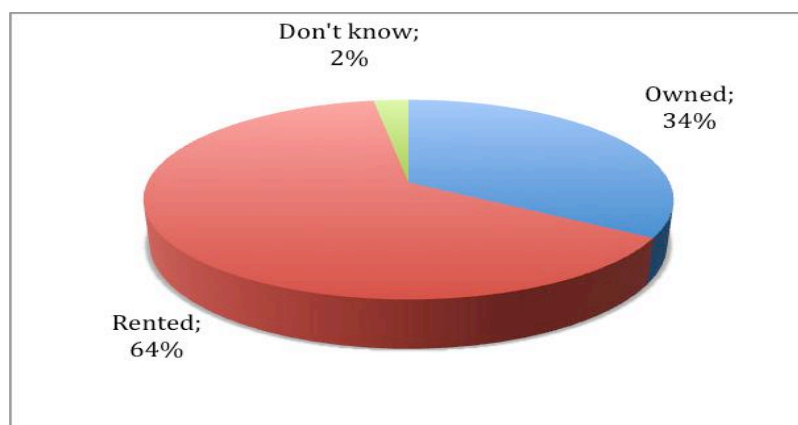


Figure 7.38: Tenure of business premises

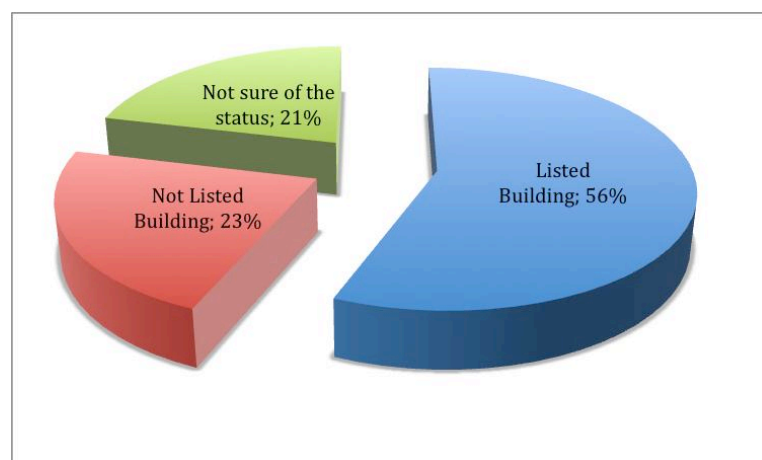


Figure 7.39: Are the business premises a listed building?

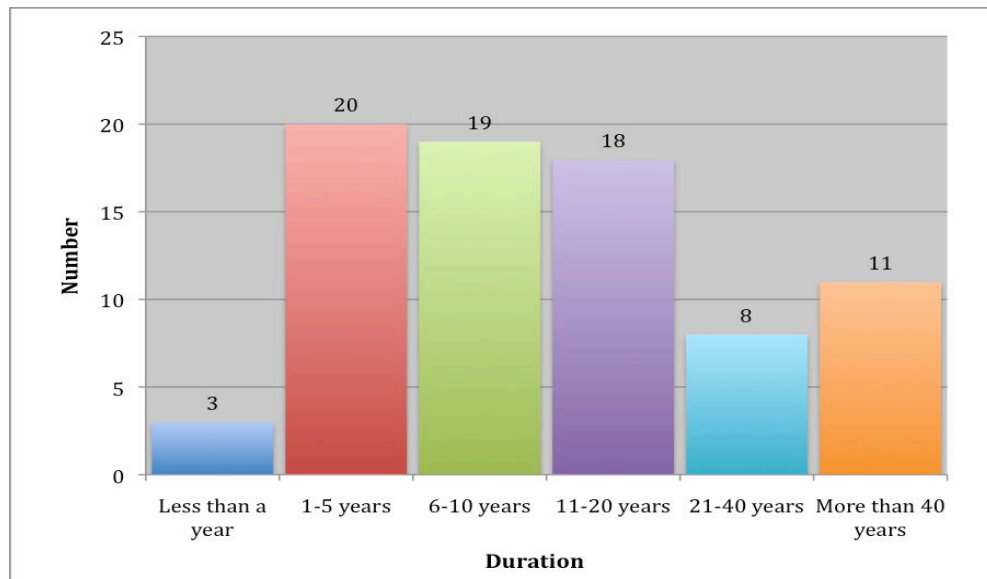


Figure 7.40: Length of time the business has been running at these premises<sup>17</sup>

In summary:

- Most businesses (67%) are retail shops (Figure 7.36). Others provide services (10%), food and drink (10%) and accommodation (3%). Ten per cent are multiple businesses, meaning they combine different types of activity (Figure 7.37).
- Sixty-three per cent of business premises were rented and 34% owned (Figure 7.38).
- According to the respondents, 56% of businesses included in the survey were in listed buildings, and 23% were not. However, the rather high proportion of respondents (21%) who were 'not sure' means these figures should be treated with caution (Figure 7.39). It is likely that a higher proportion of businesses in the town centre will be in listed buildings.

<sup>17</sup> Businesses that had been operating for less than 3 months at the time of the survey were not included in the survey (see Chapter 5).



- Many of the businesses in the survey are very long-established. Eleven have been running in the same premises for more than 40 years and thirty-seven for more than 10 years (Figure 7.40).

## Tourism and Business

Most businesses in Ludlow depend on local trade but many of them benefit also from domestic and international tourism. The great majority of business respondents (90%) said that tourism in Ludlow was beneficial to their business (Figure 7.43). Those who said they did not benefit from tourism tended to be in businesses such as estate agency, antiques, electrical shops and specialist services which are less associated with the ‘tourist trade’.

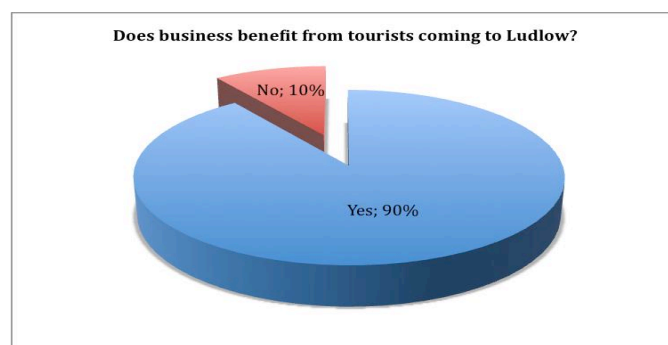


Figure 7.41: Benefits of tourism to the business

Respondents were asked to rank their main customers according to the type of business they bring, with 1 being the most important, 2 the next most important and so on. The categories to be ranked were: local residents, domestic visitors and international tourists. The results are shown in Table 7.10.

	1st Customer	2nd Customer	3rd Customer	Total	No response
Local Resident	61	8	7	76	4
Domestic Visitors	16	56		72	8
International tourists	4	10	57	71	9
Others (Home buyers/ International companies)	3				

Table 7.10: Ranking of main customers

Most responses (61) were that local residents were the first ranked customers. However, the second and third largest number of responses, 57 and 56 respectively, were for international visitors, ranked third in importance, and domestic visitors ranked second in importance. But 16 respondents claimed domestic visitors and 4 claimed international visitors as their first ranked customers.

The tourism industry is well-known for its seasonality and this appears to be reflected in the flow of profits reported by respondents. Figure 7.42 shows (for 69 responses) that December is the most profitable month, followed by August. It can be inferred from this that the tourist spend may be highest in the summer while the resident spend is highest in December.

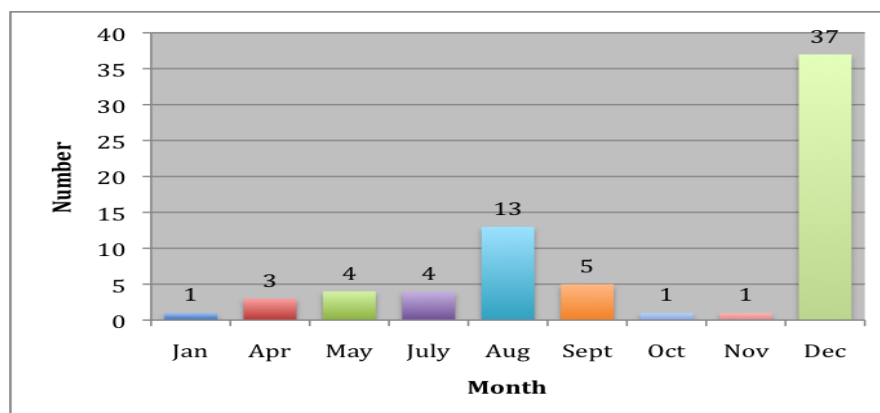


Figure 7.42: Profits by month

### 7.4.3 Business Views on the Impact of Tourism on the Built Environment in Ludlow

The business survey explored a number of questions about the impact of tourism on the built environment, including issues of town management such as traffic flow, parking and urban infrastructure. The positive and negative aspects of each were considered. These were followed by questions about the contribution of local authority policies to the development and improvement of Ludlow.

#### Traffic and Parking

If businesses are to be successful, especially retail businesses, their premises need to be accessible to customers, and businesses will often object to any policy that might appear to affect vehicle access, such as parking limitations, high parking fees and pedestrianisation schemes. Thus there is scope for conflict between the views of ‘conservationists’ who might wish to limit traffic and parking in the interests of protecting and ‘improving’ the urban environment (especially in a heritage town) and the views of ‘business’ which might see any restrictions as a possible threat to the viability and profitability of their business activities.

In view of this tension it is not surprising, perhaps, that the majority of businesses in the survey (81%) considered the present level of traffic flow in Ludlow to be ‘acceptable’ (Figure 7.43). Despite this, 54 respondents (68%) said that car parking was a problem for their customers. Sixty-three per cent of respondents said there was not sufficient parking for their customers, though the parking that is provided was considered accessible by 76% of respondents (59 out of 78 replying) (Figure 7.11).

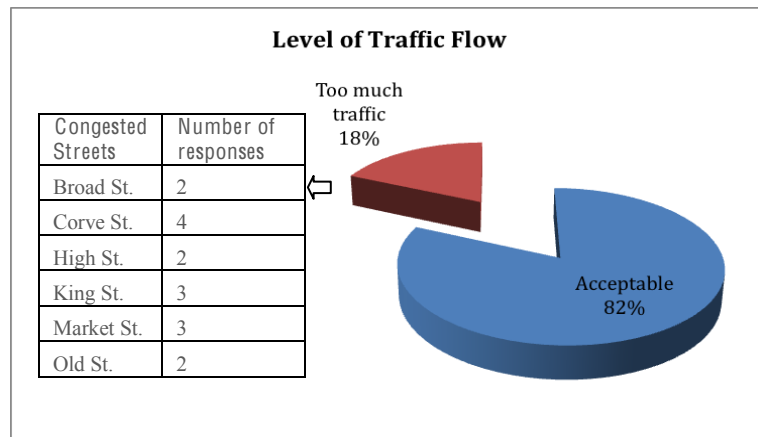


Figure 7.43: Level of traffic flow

Note: 1 (no response)

Parking Problems	Yes	No	Don't know	Total	No response
Is parking a problem for your customers?	54	23	3	80	
There is sufficient parking	27	49	2	78	2
Accessibility of parking is a problem	59	18	1	78	2

Table 7.11: Parking problems, sufficiency and accessibility

### The Built Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Tourism in this area has created (or added to):	Agree	Disagree	Not Relevant	Don't know	Total
Traffic Congestion	37	24	14	5	80
Litter	32	35	2	11	80
Overcrowding	24	46	7	3	80
Parking problems	57	22	1		80
Deterioration of old buildings	17	50	10	3	80
Good opportunities for business	77		3		80

Table 7.12: Perception of the built environmental impacts of tourism in Ludlow (Environmental Management)

Respondents were asked if the presence of tourism in Ludlow had created or added to certain environmental or environmental management issues such as parking problems, traffic congestion or the deterioration of old buildings. Their replies are shown in Table 7.12. Not surprisingly, tourism was said by just under half the respondents to have added to traffic congestion (37 out of 75 responses) and parking problems (57 out of 80, or 71%). But the majority disagreed that tourism had contributed to the deterioration of old buildings (50 out of 80, or 63%), or to overcrowding in the town (46 out of 80 responses) perhaps in the latter case because tourism in Ludlow is quite seasonal and is not always evident at many times in the year.

Has tourism development affected:	Has improved	Not Affected	Got Worse	Don't Know	Total
Gas Supply System	1	62		17	80
Electricity Supply System	1	65		14	80
Water Supply System	1	65		14	80
Sewerage System		65		15	80
Telecommunication System	1	65	1	13	80
Rubbish collection	8	59	2	11	80
Changes of use of buildings	19	40	2	19	80

Table 7.13: Perception of the built environmental impact of tourism in Ludlow  
(Infrastructure and Services)

A further question looked at the impact of tourism on infrastructure and services, such as water supply, rubbish collection and the change of use of buildings (Table 7.13). There was quite a high non-response to this question but even so, it is clear that most respondents do not feel that tourism has created problems for basic infrastructure such as energy and water supplies – unlike the situation that might be found in some developing economies where

infrastructure and tourism development are sometimes out of balance. However, 19 respondents out of 61 (31% of those responding) said that tourism has had an effect on the change of use of buildings. It could be expected that such changes of use are beneficial if they contribute to the viability of a building that might otherwise fall into disuse; on the other hand changes of use can be controversial. The survey did not explore this further.

Tourism impacts	Agree	Disagree	Not Relevant	Don't Know	Total
Pedestrianised areas have been good for my business	20	16	40	4	80
Brought about the re-use of disused buildings	31	23	11	15	80
Restoration and preservation of historic buildings and sites	58	2	12	8	80
Introduction of new architectural design	21	32	15	12	80
Growth of built-up area of the town	60	12	4	4	80
New people coming in to live in the area	32	32	10	6	80
Enhancement of the character of the historic town	61	9	4	6	80
An improved quality life of Ludlow	58	14	3	5	80

Table 7.14: Perception of the built environmental impact of tourism in Ludlow  
(Visual and Quality of Life)

Table 7.14 presents business respondents' views on some of the visual impacts associated with tourism and the effects of tourism developments on the quality of life in Ludlow. Taken overall, the general response is positive: for example, 58 respondents agreed that tourism developments have contributed to the 'restoration and preservation of historic buildings and sites'. Sixty-one respondents said that tourism developments have enhanced the 'character of the historic town' and 58 that they have brought 'an improved quality of life to Ludlow'. Sixty respondents agreed with the statement that one of the impacts of tourism

development has been ‘growth of the built up area of the town’ though this is perhaps slightly contradicted by the number disagreeing (32) that the developments had led to ‘new people coming to live in the area’.

Although many businesses (40, or half of all respondents) said the statement ‘pedestrianised areas have been good for my business’ was not relevant to them (presumably because their business was not in or near a pedestrianised or semi-pedestrianised area), 25% of respondents (20 businesses) agreed with the statement.

### Town Centre Improvements

Without going into detail, business respondents were asked: ‘A lot of work seems to have been done recently to improve the town centre. Has this had a good impact on your business?’ The results are shown in Figure 7.44. It is notable that almost half (38 respondents) said their business had not been affected, although 22 (28%) said the impact had been good for them.

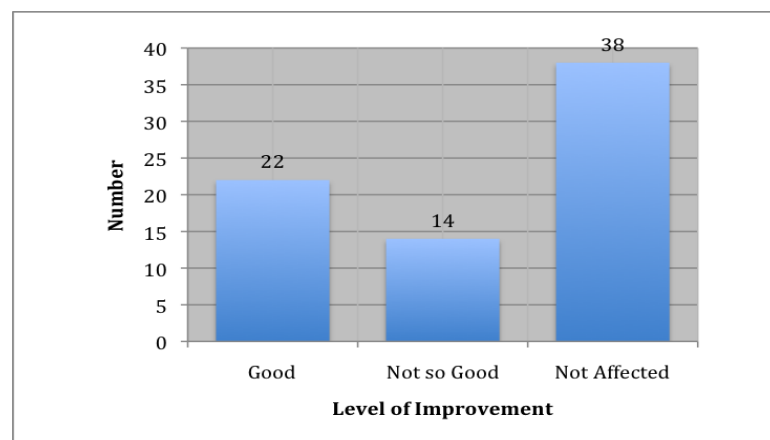


Figure 7.44 : Impact of town centre improvements on local business

## Advantages and Disadvantages of Public Events to Local Business

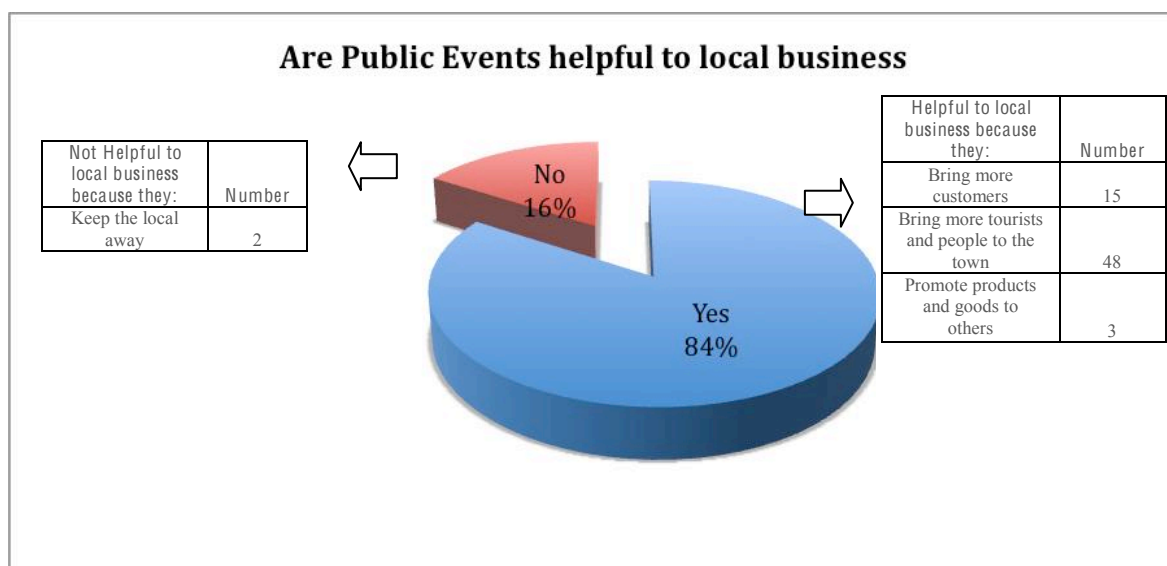


Figure 7.45: Advantages and disadvantages of public events to local business

There are several annual public events in Ludlow such as the Food Festival, Easter Festival, Ludlow Marches Transport Festival, Ludlow Festival, May Fair and Christmas Festival. Their aim is to boost the local economy and to promote Ludlow as a visitor destination and in other ways. Eighty-four per cent of respondents said that public events are helpful to local business, citing as reasons: ‘bringing more customers’, ‘bringing more tourists and other people’, and ‘promoting products and goods’ that are available in Ludlow. The remaining 16% of respondents did not feel that public events were helpful to them, probably because their business was not oriented towards visitors, though in 2 cases, it was said that ‘locals’ preferred not to use local businesses when large numbers of visitors were expected in the town, for example at the May Fair (Figure 7.45).



## Advantages and Disadvantages of Encouraging Tourism in Ludlow

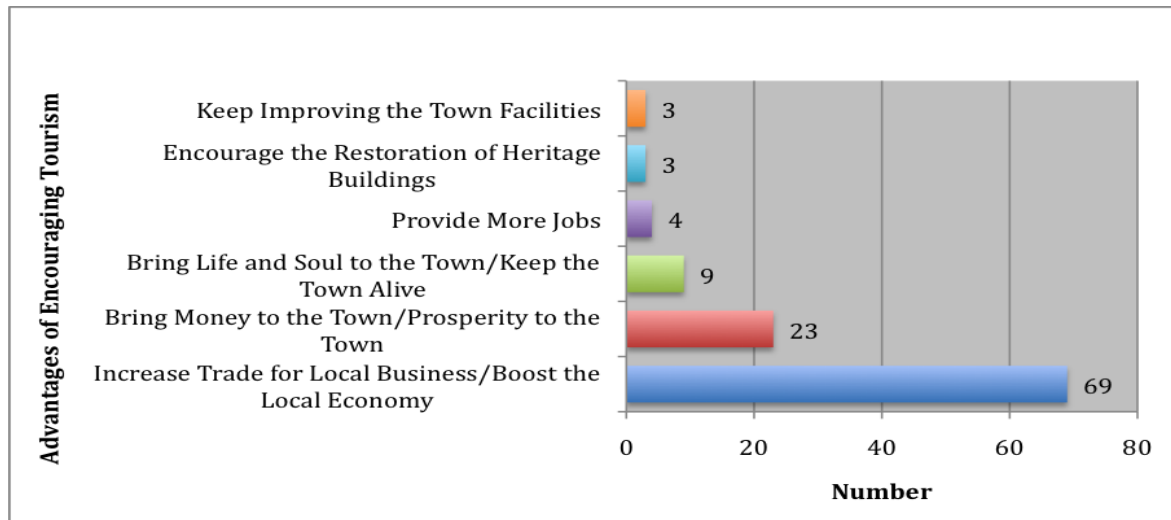


Figure 7.46: Advantages of Encouraging Tourism in Ludlow

An open ended question asked business providers to give their views on the advantages and disadvantages of encouraging tourists to visit Ludlow. More than one ‘advantage’ and ‘disadvantage’ could be given; all answers were noted and they are shown in Figure 7.46 and 7.47.

Most respondents (69) said that the encouragement of tourism brought increased trade for local business, or that it helped to ‘boost the local economy’. ‘Bringing money’ or ‘prosperity’ to the town were also mentioned (23 responses). A smaller number of responses mentioned support for jobs and for the restoration and improvement of the town.

In line with responses to many other questions in the survey, advantages of tourism were mentioned much more often than disadvantages. The main disadvantages referred to (Figure 7.48) were parking problems and traffic congestion (33 and 9 responses respectively). In fact,

this question did not reveal any advantages or disadvantages that had not been identified already from earlier questions in the survey.

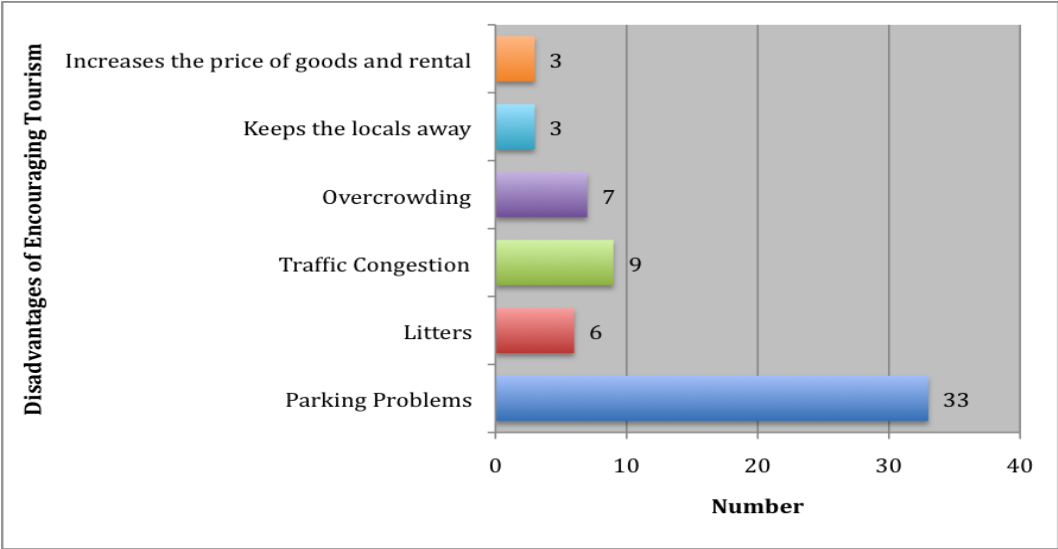


Figure 7.47: Disadvantages of encouraging tourism in Ludlow

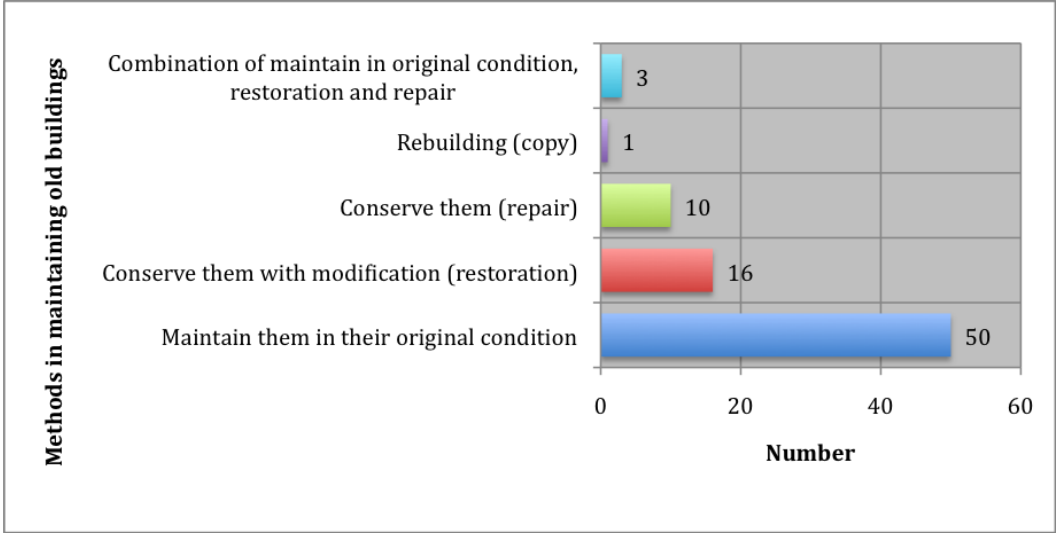


Figure 7.48: Methods of maintaining old buildings

Figure 7.48 shows the overwhelming support of business providers in Ludlow for the maintenance and conservation of the town's older buildings. Ninety-six per cent of respondents favoured either maintaining older buildings in their original condition or conserving them through restoration or repair. The question was framed in relation to Ashworth and Tunbridge's (2000) range of actions that can be taken in response to the decay of older buildings (Chapter 3: Table 3.3) and it is notable that in no case did business provider respondents in Ludlow (the supply side) suggest the acceptance of decay, rather than its prevention through restoration, conservation or rebuilding in an original style. From these responses, it is clear that business providers perceive the built heritage as a key contributor to the success of business activity in the town.

#### Suggestions for improving Ludlow town

Suggestions for improving Ludlow town	Number
Maintain the small shops and encourage variety of small shops	3
Improvement of facilities (public toilets and signposting)	3
Maintain the character of historic town	3
Beautification of Ludlow town (more plants and flowers)	4
Improve park and ride facilities and public transport	1
Provide more jobs for young people	3
Better promotion of historic town of Ludlow	2
Keep the town as it is	18

Table 7.15: Suggestions for improving Ludlow town

A final, open-ended question gave respondents the opportunity to make any further suggestions for improving the town and its environment. Just under half of those who

responded wanted to ‘keep the town as it is’ (Table 7.15). A number of other suggestions were made by quite small numbers of respondents, all of which were positive in nature.

## 7.5 In Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of three parts of the case study of Ludlow. The first part drew on observation by the researcher in the process of becoming familiar with the town and some of its everyday activities, as well as with some of the special events designed to enhance the appeal of Ludlow as a tourism destination. An understanding was gained of the attractiveness of Ludlow as a heritage town, with its outstanding setting, many important individual buildings, and a townscape that retains many features of its historic past.

The second part presented the results of a survey of visitors to Ludlow, which explored their experience of visiting the town, the reasons for their visit, and their perception of Ludlow as a visitor destination, especially in terms of the quality of its built environment.

The third part reported on a survey of business providers in Ludlow town centre, including retail shops, food, drink and accommodation providers, and other businesses such as estate agents, travel agents and professional services. The aim was to explore how businesses see Ludlow as an historic and market town, and their perception of the impacts of tourism both on their business and on the built environment of Ludlow as a whole.

The next chapter (Chapter 8) deals with the remaining part of the case study: the interviews with managers of tourism and related services in Ludlow. Chapter 9 includes an assessment of the conclusions to be drawn from all parts of the case study.

## 8.0 SURVEYS OF LUDLOW: MANAGERS OF TOURISM AND RELATED SERVICES

### 8.1 Introduction

This is the second of two chapters about the field work carried out in Ludlow for this research. It is built around the results of in-depth interviews with managers of tourism and related services in the town. As explained in Chapter 5, the interviews were carried out in August 2010, two years after the visitors' survey (2008) and one year after the business providers' survey (2009). The reason for phasing the work in this way was to allow time for the two questionnaire surveys to be analysed before embarking on the more open ended discussions with key stakeholders. More detail on the methodology of this part of the case study is given in Chapter 5 (section 5.9) and the topic guides on which the interviews were based are in the Appendices.

As noted in Chapter 5, six semi-structured interviews were carried out with key stakeholders. For convenience, they are referred to collectively as 'managers of tourism and related services'. Those selected for interview were: the Tourism Officer and the Conservation Officer of Shropshire Council; the Manager of the Tourist Information Centre in Ludlow; the Manager of Ludlow Castle; The Manager of Bed and Breakfast Accommodation; the Committee Member of Ludlow Chamber of Trade and Commerce; and a Committee Member of Ludlow Civic Society. The interviewees came, respectively, from the public, private and voluntary sectors. In the account that follows, remarks have been anonymised as far as possible though this has been difficult to achieve in view of the specific responsibilities of the individuals who were interviewed.

A brief introduction is given here to the roles and responsibilities of the interviewees. 'A' is a local government officer responsible for the promotion of tourism in Shropshire, in partnership with private sector providers. He is involved in coordinating Council services that relate to tourism such as public transport, museums, tourist information centres and country parks. 'B' has worked for many years as a custodian of historic buildings. Her responsibilities are for the day-to-day running of the castle, including admission and visitor management, the promotion of the site for educational and other purposes, and its use during events and festivals. 'C' is manager of the tourist information centre, which assists visitors with information and advice, including the provision of an accommodation service in liaison with local hotels, guest houses, B&Bs and other accommodation providers in the surrounding area. To complement the visitor information boards in the town centre, the TIC carries a wide range of brochures, books and maps, some of which are free and some for sale. 'D' is a local government conservation officer, with many years' professional experience. Important roles are to advise the Council on the conservation aspects of any development that might affect the viability of the town and its conservation areas; and to work alongside local groups with conservation interests, including work in schools to raise awareness and knowledge of conservation issues. 'E' is a representative of the business community, whose organisation will share ideas and experiences relating to tourism and conservation and whose main aim is to improve trade and commercial interests in Ludlow and district. 'F' is from a voluntary organization concerned with 'maintaining the historic integrity and future vitality of Ludlow' through coordination and consultation with the relevant public bodies, and encouraging an active interest in the character and history of the town.

The chapter has three main parts, reflecting the themes emerging earlier in the research, and through the visitors' and business providers' surveys. They are: heritage tourism and management; the built environmental impact of tourism; and sustainability. The theme 'heritage tourism and management' includes the development and implementation of tourism strategy and policy at local level, including the effects of recent local government reorganisation; and issues around the management of heritage buildings. The theme of the 'built environmental impact of tourism' explores what characteristics of the built environment are valued: by whom and why; and considers the main impacts of and issues surrounding tourism in an historic town. The theme 'sustainability', looks at the concept of the sustainable approach; how it can be implemented in an historic town; and the role of collaboration and partnership in achieving it.

The approach followed in the chapter is to integrate information from the survey of managers of tourism and related services with findings from the questionnaire surveys, and from secondary data including official documentation in reports and websites. The chapter is the first step in beginning to draw conclusions from the research, a process that will be continued in Chapter 9.

## 8.2 Heritage Tourism and Management

Chapters 6 and 7 have shown the importance of heritage tourism in Shropshire, with its wealth of attractive villages and picturesque small market towns, its historic buildings and important archaeological sites, together with many fine traditional buildings. The historic environment is a key driver of tourism, the UK's third largest export industry, with a third of



international tourists citing heritage as the main factor in choosing to come to the UK (Heritage Counts 2010, England). Heritage Counts 2010 argues that investment in the historic environment supports economic performance by attracting new businesses and residents, encouraging people to spend more locally and enhancing the perception of areas. Thus, it shows that heritage is a major contributor in generating tourism in the United Kingdom. The visitors' and business providers' surveys confirm that tourism is recognised in Ludlow as important to the economy and the enhancement of the town, although the occasionally conflicting interests of local residents, visitors and businesses were evident. These will be discussed later in the chapter.

The question of how the heritage product is segmented or promoted was considered in Chapter 2, with reference to the heritage production model of Ashworth and Larkham (1994). It was shown that heritage products could be developed and commodified through an interpretation process, in which different elements or features of the product, such as 'heritage' and the sub-products within it, are tailored to different markets. This process can be seen at work, for example, on websites promoting Ludlow as a tourist destination, where it is described as a 'market town', a 'Norman planned town', a town with 'more than 500 listed buildings' (a slight exaggeration); a place for 'food and drink' and with fine 'natural surroundings'; and the home of 'Ludlow Castle' and 'St Laurence Church'. Such phrases and segmentation are also to be found in the several government documents (e.g. Strategy and action plan for sustainable tourism in the Shropshire Hills and Ludlow 2011 – 2016, Telling Stories Ludlow: An interpretation plan for Ludlow and South Shropshire Tourism Strategy 2008).

### 8.2.1 Tourism Strategy and Local Government Reorganisation

Although central government and local authorities have been responsible for many years for tourism planning and development, the first Tourism Strategy for South Shropshire was not produced until 2004 and the first Tourism Development Officer for South Shropshire District Council was not assigned until 2006. Previously, tourism matters were dealt with by Shropshire County Council as part of its remit for town and country planning and for economic development in the County.

The South Shropshire Tourism Strategy, which contained a three year Action Plan, was produced by a Tourism and Economic Development Working Group of South Shropshire District Council, through a process which included consultation and discussion across the area to reflect a wide range of opinion. The Strategy was designed to fit alongside the County Strategy for Tourism and the West Midlands Regional Strategy for Tourism. An important aim was to ensure that local opinion and local activity were acknowledged and taken fully into consideration, whilst appreciating how local activities fitted into the bigger picture at County and Regional Levels (Review of Tourism Strategy and Action Plan, 2007).

Community involvement in the preparation of the Tourism Strategy was organized largely through a series of meetings at which the tourism strategy and action plan were reviewed and discussed at various stages in their development. Meetings related to tourism and economic development involved representatives of the business providers but their attendance could not necessarily be guaranteed. One of the interviewees, for example, said:

‘With the lack of staff in my department, I was never able to attend and to take an active part in the meetings that were organized.’

Informal discussion with some local residents (Chapter 5 section 5.6.1) suggested they sometimes felt their views were not given sufficient weight: for example, their opposition to the development of the Tesco store at the northern end of Corve Street. However, their view undoubtedly would have been different if the store had *not* been built. Reflecting on the need for and the difficulties of engaging in stakeholder or public participation, one of the local government interviewees said:

‘Often our role is to encourage the expression of, and to recognize, the different points of view of local residents, visitors and business providers, while trying to find a way of reconciling, or smoothing over, the range of opinions that can be put forward’.

The South Shropshire Tourism Strategy focused on encouraging and supporting sustainable tourism activity in maintaining the natural, built and historic landscape; raising awareness of the benefits of tourism to the local economy; increasing visitor numbers and spending; supporting local initiatives in tourism development; and encouraging, within the local tourism sector, collaboration and partnership between public and private sectors (South Shropshire Tourism Strategy, 2004). These aims remained unchanged when the Strategy was revised in 2008 (South Shropshire Tourism Strategy, 2008), though added emphasis was given to the potential of tourism in South Shropshire, referring especially to the Shropshire Hills AONB, which covered 60 per cent of the area of South Shropshire District, including many designated conservation areas; to the 50 per cent of the District within Environmentally

Sensitive Areas<sup>18</sup>; and to Ludlow, the largest settlement, having been ‘dubbed by English Heritage as a jewel in [South Shropshire’s] crown of market towns’ (South Shropshire Tourism Strategy, 2008: 3).

South Shropshire Tourism Strategy (2008: 4) noted that in 2006, 29.7 per cent of economically active people in the District were employed in the tourism sector, compared to 5.7 per cent in agriculture and agricultural related occupations. Thus, it was claimed that ‘tourism benefits local people as well as visitors’, which is one of the reasons why tourism is recognized as a major contributor to local economic activity and development. In the business providers’ survey (Figure 7.41) 90 per cent said their business benefited from tourists coming to Ludlow. Vibrant market towns provide services to locals that would struggle to survive without the income from tourists: also family and friends visiting the area can be major contributors to visitor numbers.

The County Strategy (2010) suggested Shropshire’s strengths as

‘an area of attractive, varied landscape, appealing market towns, diverse rural attractions and a peaceful and tranquil pace of life. Local people can enjoy events and visit attractions, contributing to the economic cycle within their own communities’.

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<sup>18</sup> The ESA scheme was introduced in 1987 to offer incentives to encourage farmers to adopt agricultural practices which would safeguard and enhance parts of the country of particularly high landscape, wildlife or historic value. Although existing agreements remain, the scheme has now closed to new applicants and has been superseded by the Environmental Stewardship scheme. See: <http://www.naturalengland.gov.uk/ourwork/farming/funding/closedchemes/esa/default.aspx>

The visitors' survey (Table 7.6) shows that important or very important reasons influencing the decision to visit Ludlow are 'interesting historic buildings' (92% of respondents) and the fact that 'it is an attractive place' (95%).

As explained in Chapter 6, a reorganization of local government created the unitary Shropshire Council from 1 April 2009 and the former authorities of Shropshire County Council and the Shropshire District Councils, including South Shropshire DC, ceased to exist from that date. The offices of Shropshire Council are in Shrewsbury. What effect did these changes have for the planning and management of tourism in Ludlow? According to one of the local government interviewees:

'The biggest effect was that South Shropshire District Council did not exist after 1 April 2009. The old County became smaller [with the simultaneous creation of a second unitary authority, Telford and Wrekin Council] but took on more responsibilities [and some staff] from the five District Councils. The lowest level of local governance, the Parish Councils [including Ludlow Town Council], now coordinate with the unitary council rather than with both the County and the Districts. As for the effects on tourism policies and strategy, the South Shropshire Tourism Strategy 2004 is still being used; it has been revised [in 2008] and continues to be updated. Major changes in tourism policy in Shropshire are not expected as a result of the local government reorganization and support for small towns such as Ludlow will continue as before. Ludlow is the largest of Shropshire's market towns and its role both as a heritage town and as a vital service centre for the surrounding community will continue to be encouraged and safeguarded. But even more attention is likely to be given in future to the partnership

approach through the Destination Management Strategy [at ‘County’ level] and local Destination Development Partnerships.’

Shropshire Council encouraged the growth of these partnerships. *‘A Strategy and Action Plan in the South Shropshire Hills and Ludlow 2011-16’* (2011) was published in June 2011, following four months of extensive consultation,

‘including desk research, an online survey of tourism enterprises, five local consultation meetings, one-to-one consultation with over 40 key stakeholders, site visits, a stakeholder workshop and comments received on an interim report’.

It was concluded that:

‘The need for a partnership approach to tourism is more important now than ever before. The members of the Shropshire Hills and Ludlow Destination Development Partnership are well placed to take on responsibility for coordinating the implementation of this strategy and action plan, and to encourage others to work with them in doing so’. (ibid)

The primary aim of the strategy is

‘To develop, manage and promote the Shropshire Hills and Ludlow as a high quality sustainable tourism destination, in keeping with its focus on a designated Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty’

The associated aims are:

- ‘To provide all visitors with a fulfilling and enjoyable experience of the Shropshire Hills and neighbouring market towns;
- To foster a prosperous tourism and food industry, providing secure year round jobs;
- To enhance the quality of life within local communities and support for local services;
- To increase appreciation and understanding of the special landscape, biodiversity and cultural heritage of the area and support for their conservation;
- To minimise negative impacts of tourism on the environment’.

Writing in support of the Strategy, Councillor Mike Owen, Shropshire Council Portfolio Holder, Economic Growth and Prosperity, said:

‘This strategy will help to integrate activity in this lovely part of Shropshire where tourism is vitally important. It is a strategy for growth in tourism, across the area and around the year, but businesses have also made clear their commitment to being ambitious about sustainability in relation to the environment and local communities’.

The Strategy and Action Plan for Sustainable Tourism in the South Shropshire Hills and Ludlow (2011), drew on a series of reports commissioned in 2005 by the Shropshire Tourism Research Unit on the volume and value of tourism in the County and its individual Districts. The annual value of tourism in South Shropshire was found to be £116.7m and it supported

approximately 3,500 jobs, representing 21 per cent of the value of tourism in the former county of Shropshire as a whole.

### 8.2.2 Managing Heritage Buildings

Swarbrooke (1995) referred to the different goals and motivations of the owners of heritage buildings, using a simple classification of public, private and voluntary sector ownership (Chapter 2, Table 2.1). The public and voluntary sectors were seen to be motivated primarily by a concern for conservation and education, whereas private sector ownership was associated with profit and recreation. In Ludlow, however, such distinctions were seen sometimes as over-simplified. The manager of an historic building, for example, said:

‘This building may be privately owned but that does not mean we are free to do what we like with it. We need permission from English Heritage to make renovations or to change the fabric of the building. Our aim is to keep the building standing. We do not have any public funding so we have to create all our own income. It is quite frustrating since the building is used a lot by the public. But the family has owned it for nearly 200 years and they wish to carry on’.

Thus, the aim is to generate income through admission fees and other charges, in order to maintain and conserve the building as an attractive tourist destination. A privately owned heritage business, if it is to survive, must be profitable but not necessarily profit-driven, as suggested by Swarbrooke. It does not need to operate as a crowd-pulling theme park, as some heritage venues do; on the other hand, the introduction of special educational displays; the



provision of luxury holiday accommodation; or the promotion of the premises as a wedding venue are examples of how the attractions of a heritage building may be diversified to increase visitor numbers and profitability. But no owner, public, private or voluntary, however much they may value heritage, can afford to underwrite venues that do not pay their way.

‘We created new attractions and introduced new ideas to grab more visitors. [The owners] did not want to make the premises a theme park.... but they were happy to use new technology, especially if it would make things more interactive and interesting to children. It is undeniable that it is hard to inspire and explain about ‘stones’ or ‘the ruined castle’ to the young generation....’.

The need to develop an interest in heritage among all children of all backgrounds was one of the themes of a report by the Public Accounts Committee ‘Promoting Participation with the Historic Environment’ (NAO, 2009) and the participation of children in visits to heritage sites is monitored regularly by English Heritage (‘Heritage Counts’, 2010: 29), under the DCMS ‘Taking Part Survey’ which collects data on many aspects of culture, leisure and sport in England. Although annual ‘participation in the historic environment’ figures for children aged 5-10 and 11-15 both regularly exceed 70 per cent, Heritage Counts reports that ‘Taking Part’ continues to show a large drop off in participation levels when people leave school and/or their family home. Among 16-24 year olds, the percentage participating in the historic environment falls to less than 60 per cent (ibid).

### 8.3 Built Environmental Impact of Tourism

As discussed in Chapter 3, the built environment of historic towns and cities may be adversely affected if they receive too a high volume of tourists, due to the fragility of their old buildings and their historic setting. On the other hand, tourists are not the only factor that may affect historic places, as shown in Chapter 2 by the concept of the tourist-historic city. In practice, a range of interrelated factors can impact on the built environment, especially when it is shared by many types of user and activities. The complexity of analysis has limited the extent of previous research on the built environmental impacts of tourism in urban areas generally and historic towns in particular. Several criteria need to be examined, in addition to the socio-demographic background and other characteristics of the visitors, and the motivations and aims of business providers.

The survey questionnaires used in Ludlow were designed to obtain views from respondents (both visitors and business providers) on the built environmental impacts of tourism, their perception of the quality and value of historic buildings, and their thoughts on the best way of maintaining the old buildings in Ludlow. Summaries of the findings of the surveys were given to the managers of tourism and related services and their reactions to them are referred to, when appropriate, in the sub-sections that follow.

### 8.3.1 Characteristics and Aspects of the Built Environment that are Valued

It was agreed by most of the managers of tourism and related services ('the managers') that the distinctiveness of Ludlow and its surroundings are strong factors influencing people to visit. For example:

'If you stand there [in the town centre], you can see the evolution of the town through hundreds of years. Not everything was built at the same time and the main historical periods are all represented. There is not much from the Victorian period and later – at least in the town centre – though there is Tesco, of course, and the modern library.'

'Ludlow has a unique identity with a mix of architecture from various periods and interesting rural surroundings. The grid street pattern and the squares were laid out in the medieval period and that's part of the history, too. The key attractions that make Ludlow distinctive are the timber-framed buildings, their human scale and character, and the relaxing feel of the town, especially as a place for walking.'

Ludlow was referred to by one of the managers as being particularly favoured by visitors who are 'keen on heritage' and who will come to the town despite (or perhaps because of) it being quite far from the national motorway network. The fact that all respondents in the visitors' survey said they were attracted by the architecture of historic buildings and that it was good to see old buildings being conserved (Figure 7.27) was not surprising to any of the managers. Some were pleased also that a high proportion (90%) of

visitors had commented favourably on the benefits of pedestrianisation in maintaining the historic environment, and on the attractions of local history and culture.

A Victorian town hall was built at Castle Square in 1897. It was demolished in 1986, apparently for structural reasons. From discussion with local residents as part of this study, it is clear that the decision to demolish was controversial: some being very much in favour and others against. Interestingly, several of the managers referred to this, in one case saying that the absence of the town hall had ‘opened up the fantastic square to create something new’, while another commented that it had ‘revealed the panoramic view not only of the old buildings but also the natural environment such as the river, the hills and the castle, to make the view much more interesting.’ As a result, it was said that Castle Square had become a focal point for meeting and relaxation for visitors and local people; and had become a market place again, in keeping with Ludlow’s history as a medieval market town. There are now two venues for selling local produce and handicrafts but the square is the more spacious, both for stallholders and customers.

One of the managers commented on how much the older buildings were appreciated by visitors from both home and abroad, even if ‘some of the locals seem sometimes to take the history for granted’. Yet visitors ‘could be surprised by the age of the buildings and their history’.

Both questionnaire surveys asked respondents to give their opinion on the best way to look after older buildings. The question was intended to gain a general impression of people’s views, and did not imply that visitors or local business providers have special

knowledge or expertise in these matters. Seventy-three per cent of visitors said that old buildings should be maintained in their original condition and a further 11 per cent said they should be restored ‘with modification’ (Figure 7.33). The corresponding figures for business providers were 63 per cent and 20 per cent respectively (Figure 7.48). Both surveys show a high level of support for maintaining the older buildings, as might be expected from Carter and Bramley’s (2002) formulation of criteria for assessing resource values and significance (Chapter 2 section 2.7), where a distinction is made between intrinsic values, where objective assessment is possible; and extrinsic values, which rely on subjective assessment. Both have validity in assessing the ‘value’ of the built environment in Ludlow, with the ‘objective’ perspective of the managers and the ‘subjective’ views of the visitors and business providers contributing to the evaluation.

### 8.3.2 Perceptions on Visitors’ and Business Providers’ Survey Findings

#### Aspects of Tourism Activity in Ludlow

All the managers agreed on the attractiveness of Ludlow as a tourism destination. One commented that:

‘unlike some of the bigger tourist towns such as Bath, Cambridge or York, Ludlow is pleasing because there is usually quite a good mixture of visitors and local people: it still feels like a living town, yet we have the benefit of the added activity and business that the visitors bring’.

The visitors' survey did not ask in detail about respondents' origin, their ultimate destination and their journey to and from Ludlow. However, some of the managers expressed the view that many visitors include Ludlow as part of a south-north or north-south tour of the Welsh Border, or perhaps come on a day trip from other parts of the West Midlands Region, often approaching from the east, via Clee Hill and the small market town of Cleobury Mortimer. The visitors' survey showed that the main mode of transport to Ludlow was by car (88 per cent) with only a small proportion of journeys by public transport (8 per cent by train) (Figure 7.25).

Ludlow has a 'park and ride' service, with a free shuttle bus from the car park to the town centre. This was mentioned by two of the managers as a facility designed to reduce traffic congestion and parking in the town but the visitors' survey found that a majority of the respondents (65 per cent) did not know about it. The park and ride service is signposted at the entrances to the town and promoted at Ludlow Tourist Information Centre but of course by the time a visitor goes to the TIC they will have decided already where and for how long to park.

### Traffic and Parking

Ninety-six per cent of respondents in the business providers' survey said that tourism in Ludlow had created good opportunities for business (Table 7.12) but 18 per cent of visitors mentioned traffic congestion as a disadvantage in trying to attract tourists to a heritage town (Figure 7.29). Most of the managers (four out of six) acknowledged that narrow roads and one-way streets in Ludlow lead to traffic congestion. For example, one said:

‘We accept that the narrow streets and the traffic can be a major problem at times, especially when tourist numbers are high...Businesses want to encourage more visitors but sometimes residents wish the numbers were smaller and blame visitors for overcrowding and traffic problems. There are costs and benefits here. This is one of the conflicts we have to try to resolve and it is not always easy.’

In 1991, local authorities were enabled to introduce ‘decriminalised parking enforcement’ (DPE) under which they or their agents took responsibility for enforcing parking regulations through a system of fixed penalties which are used to finance the system and, where necessary, to provide further parking facilities or even to support certain public transport initiatives. Thus parking penalties have provided a source of income for local authorities which itself is sometimes a matter of controversy. Proper enforcement of parking regulations means that all parking restrictions, signs and markings must be ‘100 per cent correct’. If they are not and a parking penalty is challenged through the Courts, any fine payable goes to central government rather than to the local authority. Thus, the choice is stark: lines, signs or cars, according to the EHTF (Transport innovation in historic towns 28-29 March, 2007).

The parking arrangements in Ludlow were explained in detail in Chapter 7 (section 7.2). They comprise a combination of designated pay and display car parks and on-street parking; and all, with the exception of the park-and-ride, are within easy walking distance of the town centre. Interestingly, the two questionnaire surveys revealed contrasting points of view: 44 per cent of visitors said that parking facilities were good or very good (Table 7.8) while 67 per cent of business providers said that parking was a problem for their customers. About half the business respondents said there was not sufficient parking (Table 7.11).

One of the managers explained that pay-and-display on-street parking had been introduced in 2006 to create more short term parking for shoppers in the town centre and to prevent all-day street parking by people working in the shops and offices. There have been many discussions about parking between the local authority and local businesses. According to one manager, however:

‘When people say there is a parking problem, it is often not a problem of supply but rather of duration and price.’

On the other hand, another manager commented: ‘Ludlow is a medieval town. It was not meant for modern vehicles.’ And another said:

‘It is claimed that some people do not want to come to Ludlow because the parking is awful but they are not able to suggest what could be done about it....In my opinion, tourism does not really create parking problems or even problems such as littering, overcrowding or traffic congestion. These problems are here anyway and because the volume of visitors to Ludlow is quite small [compared to many other tourist destinations] we should not blame them for negative impacts. The market segment of visitors to Ludlow is the right one and the number who come is about right, too’.

### **Pedestrianisation**

The layout of Ludlow shows clearly its medieval origins, hence the narrow streets and pavements fronting the historic buildings. To many people, this is part of the attraction of the



town but none of the survey respondents proposed that all the streets should be pedestrianised. Among the business providers, 50 per cent said that pedestrianisation was not relevant to, or not an issue for, their business since it was not located on a pedestrianised street. On the other hand, 25 per cent of respondents replied that pedestrianisation had been good for their business. Ludlow has relatively little pedestrianisation and although some streets such as King Street, High Street and Castle Square might benefit from being completely traffic free, this idea is known to be unpopular with many of the businesses that would be affected. However, at least one of the managers was not convinced that pedestrianisation would be bad for business:

‘Personally, I think the central town should be a pedestrian area. This would give more space for people to walk safely and would open up the views of the historic buildings. At the same time, you could spend more time looking in the shop windows, which could be very good for business.’

Another manager said:

‘Pedestrianisation would be better for the environment – the natural environment and the built environment as well. There have been many consultations and meetings about this and the feedback always varies according to the group of people putting forward their views....but pedestrianisation is always rejected by the business community.’



Figure 8.1 : Semi-pedestrianised at Quality Square

Source: Suraiyati, taken March 2008

This is another area of policy and management where the ‘solution’, inevitably, is likely to be a compromise between different points of view.

### Festivals and Events

Ludlow is well known for its annual programme of festivals and events. The first to be held was the Ludlow Festival in 1953, which has gained a high reputation nationally and internationally, especially for its open-air Shakespeare productions, held in the grounds of Ludlow Castle. The Marches Food and Drink Festival was started in 1995 and has grown considerably since then, attracting visitors from many parts of the United Kingdom. It is believed to have been the first food and drink festival in the country and is centred on Ludlow Castle. One of the managers said that attendances of up to 200,000 people can be expected at

these events. Other events, begun more recently, are the Spring Food Festival, the May Fair and the Ludlow Medieval Christmas Fayre.



Figure 8.2 : Shakespeare open air theatre during Ludlow Festival

Source: Online



Figure 8.3 : Food Festival at the ground of Ludlow Castle

Source : Online

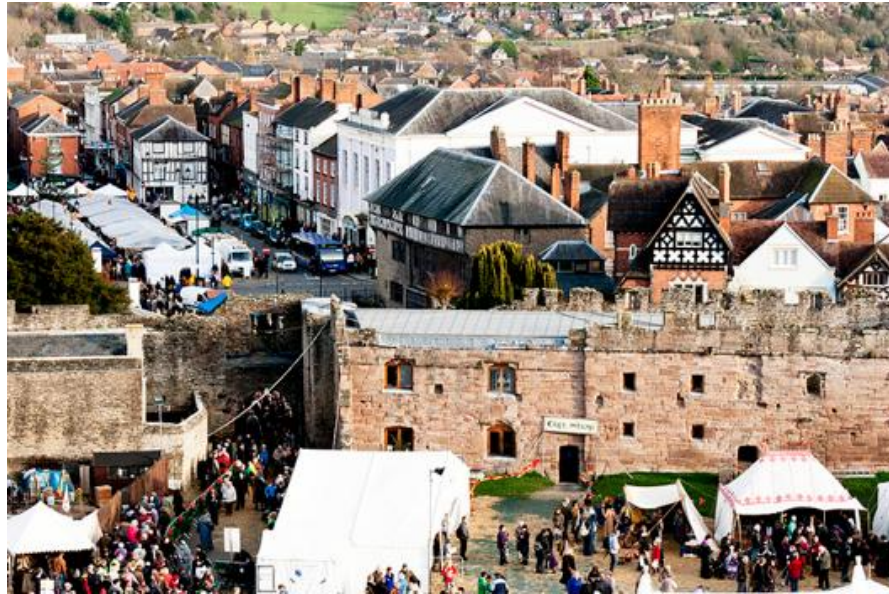


Figure 8.4 : Medieval Fayre

Source: Online

All these events rely heavily on volunteers working with the private sector the local authority and the Town Council. Discussion with some of the volunteer organizers of the Ludlow Festival indicates that they are willing to participate in the interests of enhancing the town and through a recognition that the success of the festivals will always rely substantially on voluntary effort. Many people value this enterprise, not least the local businesses: for example, in the business providers' survey, 84 per cent of respondents said that public events were helpful to local business (Figure 7.45). One of the managers said:

‘The big food festivals and other events are good for the local economy and I am sure they play a part in encouraging visitors to come back to revisit the town.’

Some businesses, however, commented that local people may avoid shopping on festival and event days because they feel that Ludlow is too crowded at that time. But any loss of

business for this reason is compensated by visitors in search of restaurants, cafes and pubs. A manager commented that

‘...some of the established events, the Ludlow Festival and the food festivals, for example, have a loyal following of exhibitors and crowd. This has led to a word of mouth promotion of the events, encouraging more people to come to Ludlow.’

With nearly fifty years experience as a festival venue, Ludlow can be seen as part of and possibly even one of the instigators of the worldwide phenomenon of performing arts and other festivals (Getz, 1991; Chacko and Schaffer, 1993; Grant and Paliwoda, 1998). The growing appeal of festivals generally and the increasing number of people attending have been explained by Prentice and Andersen (2003) as having many causes, ranging from supply factors such as cultural planning, tourism development and civic repositioning, to demand factors such as leisure and lifestyles, socialisation needs and the desire by some market segments for activities that are ‘creative’ and ‘authentic’. Further work would be needed to say which of these factors has influenced the growth of festivals and events in Ludlow since the first festival took place in 1953.

## 8.4 Sustainability

As discussed in Chapter 3, ‘sustainability’ can be said to mean ‘all things to all people’ while Collin and Howard (1995) suggested the concept of ‘sustainable development’ is like plastic

that can be moulded to fit widely differing approaches to environmental management, even though the aim is to protect and maintain environmental resources for future needs.

According to Phillips (2003:131), Ludlow offers a number of insights in terms of 'human interaction with place' to facilitate functional needs. In her view, there are 4 main indicators of initiatives which encourage sustainable development: a coherent master plan of streets, plots and unit of measurement; a predisposition throughout time towards adaptability in urban development; an implicit regard for relief, materials and climate in maximizing for human psychological comfort; and a recognition of the amenity of landscape and architecture for human psychological comfort.

Analysis of the urban historical geography of Ludlow (Conzen, 1988; Lloyd and Klein, 1984; Slater, 1998) shows that the town grew up not as a single act of planning but rather through at least six plan units, laid out at different times and adapting to different circumstances and planning ideals. But the 'planned approach' dating back to the earliest development, according to Lloyd and Klein (1984), imposed a discipline, clarity and unity on the developing town which can be clearly seen today. Ludlow shows great adaptability in its architectural development, indicating periods of prosperity and town pride that are reflected today in the fact that Ludlow has well over 400 listed buildings. The long life, the continued attractiveness and the 'liveability' of many of these buildings are evidence of a sustainability inherited from the past and maintained for future generations.



According to one of the managers:

‘...the town is a model for sustainability...It’s an example of good practice where so much has been and is being done to sustain the historic environment for today’s and future generations. Moreover, the focus on sustainably grown local produce, the presence of Michelin starred restaurants in the town and its participation in the ‘citta slow’ movement<sup>19</sup> are examples of an interest in ‘sustainability’ beyond the physical realm of the historic buildings and the townscape.’

But there were other views. One manager claimed that the definition of sustainability as ‘development that meets the needs of the present without comprising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (WCED, 1987: 43) creates a conflict situation for places such as Ludlow:

‘There is so much pressure on the built and natural environment, especially given the congestion caused by the medieval street pattern in Ludlow. It would be so much better to reduce or eliminate the amount of traffic and unless we do it, the prospects for the future are not good.’

#### 8.4.1 The approach to sustainability in the heritage town

Managers were asked to explain or to give their views on the approach to sustainability that is being taken in Ludlow. The national framework for protecting valued heritage and environment was explained in Chapter 6 but the purpose in the managers’ interviews was to

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<sup>19</sup> A movement begun in 1999 whose goals include improving the quality of life in small towns by ‘slow living’. Ludlow was the first English town to join the movement but is not a member at present.

examine the implementation of these policies at local level and the influence on the process of local knowledge and expertise.

One manager said:

‘One of the problems with tourism is that we don’t really have any control on the number of people coming in. It doesn’t matter so much in the town: it is a hard environment that doesn’t easily wear out. On the other hand, the natural environment such as the Shropshire Hills is much more sensitive and easily damaged by large visitor numbers or the misuse of sites.’

Another manager highlighted the importance of the national framework in helping to protect or sustain the built environment in Ludlow:

‘These measures are crucial: the listing and grading of buildings of architectural or historic importance; and the planning system which does so much to ensure the town is not subjected to drastic and irreversible change. We can do a lot locally but the national legal and policy framework gives us the authority that is needed. In some ways, it is the local issues that are the more difficult. For example, I just wish we could make more progress on pedestrianisation which, in my opinion, has a lot to contribute to the protection of the town’s heritage. But without much stronger national guidance (unlikely) there’s not so much we can do.’

One manager made the point that, in an historic town, individual owners often have a strong sense of responsibility for and commitment to their premises. In this respect the sustainability



of the built environment has a strong element of self-motivation, not only in protecting the monetary or investment value of properties, but also their historic value as part of the town:

‘People as a whole are civic minded. They appreciate their premises. Vandalism is not common. There seems to be something of a shared commitment to keep the assets standing and, if there is any damage, to repair or restore it as soon as possible.’

#### 8.4.2 Collaboration, Partnership and Participation

Collaboration and partnership are essential components in tourism development. As noted earlier in the chapter, Shropshire Council is committed to a partnership approach, and seeks to work with other public services, the private and the voluntary sectors. Participation, too, is an important element in local policy-making; and many developments affecting Ludlow are the subject of extensive consultation with local residents and special interest groups.

Inevitably, different stakeholders and different interest groups can have different views, sometimes leading to conflict. According to one of the managers:

‘Often, there are situations where visitors, the business community, tourism providers and local residents, including young people and retired people, can be in conflict. In Britain nowadays, many people move around a lot, so when you talk about ‘local residents’ not many of them may be born and bred in Ludlow; they come from all over the place. So there can be incomers versus the existing population and there is always

potential conflict there. It's a responsibility of the local council to help to smooth the water by promoting partnership working and sometimes that can be very successful. My feeling is that most local residents basically think tourism is a good thing and many of them give a lot of support to the special events.'

Shropshire Council has established a network of twenty-eight Local Joint Committees covering the whole local authority area. Ludlow is served by the Ludlow and Clee Area LJC, which meets several times a year at a local venue within its area. Meetings are open to the general public and are an opportunity to:

- 'Get items which are important to them on the agenda;
- Discuss local issues and get information from other public organisations such as the police or primary care [health] trust;
- See local decisions taken in an open and transparent way<sup>20</sup>.'

Ludlow itself has an elected Town Council, with a range of responsibilities including the market, some street lighting, public toilets cleaning and maintenance, the town cemetery, public parks provision and maintenance, and the promotion of tourism, for example through the provision of tourist literature and support for local events. The Council is also consulted on all planning applications and it works with Shropshire Council to improve Ludlow Town Centre. A *Ludlow Town Plan* has been prepared [Ludlow's Future: Ludlow's Plan for 2010 - 2015] and is revised twice a year. One of the aims of the town plan is 'to enable local people to express their ambitions, needs and priorities' and in preparing it, consultation meetings

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<sup>20</sup> <http://www.shropshireljcs.com/local-joint-committees/ludlow-and-clee-area-ljc/about-your-ljc>

were held with community groups and the general public. For many people the opportunity to communicate electronically with local governance organizations has widened the scope of public participation in a positive way. Both Shropshire Council and the Town Council also consult extensively with representative organizations such as the Ludlow Chamber of Trade and Commerce and other local groups.

Despite these and many other attempts to bring people and organizations together to discuss matters of local interest and importance, the meetings and consultations in themselves will seldom 'solve' anything: rather, they are an opportunity for everyone to 'have their say' and perhaps to look at problems and proposals from different perspectives. There can be complaints, too, when people, perhaps because of their work or family commitments, cannot take part in public consultations and this is one area where modern forms of communication can be helpful. Among most of the managers, there was a feeling that the public authorities 'do their best' to engage in partnership and participation but are often frustrated by the lack of resources available for what, ideally, might be done to further improve the town.

One of the managers said that it was often impossible to take part in the meetings of their representative body because they took place at a time when the manager was not free to attend. This was frustrating but was partly compensated for by the fact that communication outside the meeting was good.

Managers generally said that relations between the local councils and other organisations were good and that every effort was made to engage as fully as possible with local people. The private and voluntary organizations also were commended for the help they give their members, for example, in assisting local businesses with advertising opportunities, including

e-shop browsing; and contributing to the production of maps showing the location of particular businesses.

## 8.5 In Conclusion

This is the third of three chapters that have reported on the case study of Ludlow. The first (Chapter 6) set the case study in its policy and historical context. The second (Chapter 7) presented the findings of the first and second phases of the fieldwork in Ludlow, including the results of the questionnaire surveys of visitors and business providers. The present chapter (Chapter 8) has explained the findings of the third phase of the fieldwork, the interviews with the managers of tourism and related services, structured around the themes of heritage tourism and management; the built environmental impacts of tourism; and sustainability.

In this chapter, information from the ‘managers’ survey has been linked with findings from the questionnaire surveys, and with other information from official documentation in reports and websites; and is the first step in beginning to draw conclusions from the research. The next chapter continues the process by discussing the findings in relation to previous work, using as a framework the five research objectives developed from the literature review.

## 9.0 CONCLUSION

### 9.1 Research Summary

The aims of this study have been to examine and explore perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements; to explore the practice of heritage tourism management; and to examine the consequences of both for the sustainability of the heritage environment.

A five stage process was adopted to achieve these aims, beginning with a *review of relevant literature*, which identified issues for the research and enabled the definition of objectives, or research questions, for investigation. A *methodology* was developed to enable these objectives to be pursued, followed by an extensive period of *field work* in Ludlow, Shropshire, which included observation, questionnaire surveys of visitors and business providers, and open-ended discussions with a small but important group of managers of tourism and related services. Throughout the timescale of the research, much work was done to become familiar with the public policy framework for planning and the environment, and the protection and management of heritage resources, especially in England since it was in this part of the United Kingdom that the research was primarily based. The fourth stage was one of *analysis and interpretation* of the data collected both in the field work and more generally throughout the study. The process of analysis was begun in the preceding chapters and will be brought to a conclusion in the present chapter with its discussion of the *findings* of the research, especially relating to the objectives that were determined through the review of previous literature,

including research on the environmental impacts of tourism; carrying capacity and sustainability; perceptions of the environmental impacts of tourism; and heritage management.

## 9.2 The Importance of the Subject

Heritage is of intrinsic importance to everyone. It connects us with our past – physically, historically, emotionally and in many other ways. In Britain, for more than a century, there has been a public recognition of the value of heritage through the establishment of the Royal Commissions on historic monuments and their successor organizations; and through the work of voluntary bodies, notably the National Trust. Many private owners, too, as in the case of Ludlow Castle, have sought to preserve and maintain the historic buildings and landscapes in their charge.

The value of the location, or the setting of heritage is important, too and with the growth of private transport from the 1920s and 1930s onwards, the appeal of historic towns and cities grew among the increasingly mobile population of the UK, as was shown in Chapter 6.

A consequence of these trends is the high value now placed on the national heritage both in public policy and in the popular imagination; and the emphasis given to the protection of heritage for the benefit of present and future generations. The historic environment is also seen as an asset in revitalising towns and cities, especially in the UK and other parts of Europe. This is due to the popularity of heritage as one of the main attractions for tourists. As noted in Chapter 1, tourism is one of the UK's largest industries. History and built heritage is the strongest product driver in most overseas markets, and is the highest rated attribute

when perceiving Britain as a tourist destination. Over 10 million holiday trips are made each year by overseas visitors to the UK, with 4 in 10 leisure visitors citing heritage as the main reason for their trip (Heritage Lottery Fund, 2010). The DCMS studies on *'Taking Part: England's Survey of Culture, Leisure and Sport'* in 2008 revealed that 53 per cent of the population make a trip at least once a year to experience the atmosphere of an historic town or city. Over 80 per cent of potential tourists would choose to visit historic monuments and buildings in Britain, making it the highest ranked potential tourist activity<sup>21</sup>. For these and other reasons, heritage tourism is an industry worth £12.4 billion a year to the UK<sup>22</sup>.

According to Swarbrooke (2002), heritage is vital to the UK tourism industry. It is a major attraction for foreign visitors and consequently provides jobs and earns foreign exchange; it provides leisure opportunities for day trips especially for the domestic market; it provides revenue for the conservation of many historic buildings and sites; and it provides an up-market image and identity for the UK which differentiates it from many other competitor destinations.

Responsibility for the management of heritage sites is increasingly problematic in the UK. The mixed economy of access to heritage that has developed over the last century has resulted in a selective presentation of sites based essentially on their qualities as visitor attractions or their importance as determined by experts and professionals in archaeology, conservation, architectural history and related disciplines. This has led to the notion of 'heritage' receiving considerable attention from researchers, ranging from practical matters such as heritage management; to more theoretical considerations of heritage as a changing or

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<sup>21</sup> ANHOLT-GMI Nation Brand Index, Visit Britain Nov 2007

<sup>22</sup> Economic Impact of Heritage Tourism, Oxford Economics, 2009. This includes museums and green heritage sites as well as visits to the built historic environment

evolving commodity, the definition of which is influenced by the views of its stakeholders. For example, the heritage production model offers an explanation of the influence of demand on heritage products, and the use of criteria determined by ‘experts’ and ‘professionals’. Hence, understanding *stakeholders’ perceptions* of the built environmental impacts of tourism in historic settlements or towns provides empirical evidence that can contribute a new dimension to these definitional debates; and is one of the contributions it is hoped to make through this thesis.

A major issue for the research was the limited nature of existing studies on the built environmental impacts of tourism in urban settlements, due partly to the lack of relevant studies, which is itself due partly to the practical difficulties of assessing or singling-out the factors attributable to tourism. This is shown clearly in the concept of the tourist-historic city, where the overlap or multi-functional nature of activities and users in the urban area makes it difficult to distinguish between the activities of tourists and host population, and thus to assess their respective contribution to environmental impacts in the historic town. This study has tried to fill a relative gap in previous research by exploring the perceptions of stakeholders on the factors and conditions affecting the physical impact of tourism in an historic town; and the implications of these for effective heritage management by players involved in the conservation and management of the historic environment. This was done through observation and surveys with a view to establishing a baseline of the built environmental impacts of tourism in heritage towns.



### 9.3 The Research Objectives

From the review of literature and previous research, five objectives were identified for the present study. Each will be considered in turn, to provide the principal conclusions from the research.

1. To explore the nature of the built environmental impacts of urban heritage tourism and their typology

Chapter 2 discussed the literature on heritage, the heritage production model, heritage tourism, the concept of the tourist-historic city, and the issues and challenges around heritage management. These are the gist of the research themes in this study. The literature review in Chapter 3 provided a basic understanding of the nature of the built environmental impacts of urban heritage tourism. The typology of these impacts, as suggested by Hunter and Green (1995), is the foundation for the field research in Ludlow that examined *in practice* the theoretical formulation put forward by Hunter and Green. Their typology was developed using a Delphi technique with a panel of experts, while the present study has taken the development a stage further through interviews with a range of stakeholders in which they were asked for their perceptions on the physical impacts of tourism in the historic case study town. However, in designing the present study, the author omitted two elements in the Hunter and Green built environment typology, namely erosion and pollution. Thus, the impacts explored in this study are the four aspects of urban forms/morphology; infrastructure; visual impacts; and restoration, rather than the six aspects in Hunter and Green's formulation. An examination of these four types of impacts in the real world situation of the case study helped

to form an understanding of the notion of ‘built environmental impacts’. The simplification of the approach, which was adopted for practical reasons, may make it viable for use in future studies; moreover, it acknowledges the limitations of previous methods used in assessing the built environment impact of tourism in urban settlements.

In the literature review, the relationship between heritage and tourism was looked at in terms of the reproduction of heritage consumption in tourism, and in the contradiction and conflicts between ‘heritage’ and ‘tourism’ (Nuryanti, 1996; Hall and McArthur, 1993; Hewison, 1987; Fowler, 1989; Cohen, 1995; Pretes, 1995). The meaning of built heritage was also discussed, for example in relation to the conservation of monuments and historic buildings which are used in tourism. Conservation was seen as a potential impact on the urban form, as suggested in the built environment typology, and was included in the Ludlow surveys’ examination of the ‘actions in response to decay’, suggested by Ashworth and Tunbridge (see Figure 3.3).

According to Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000), three common justifications for the conservation of historic or heritage resources are: socio-psychological, political-ideological and economic. First, the socio-psychological justification relates to the importance of preservation for the wellbeing of individuals and society (Lowenthal and Binney, 1981; Hubbard, 1993); it provides visible clues as to where we have been and where we are going (Ford, 1978); and it supports or strengthens ‘collective memory’ which has been described as dominantly place-bound and expressed through the physical attributes of places (Foucault, 1969). Second, the political-ideological justification has been seen by some writers as a way of conveying a message from an existing power elite intended to legitimatise an existing

regime, or in support of an opposition group (Habermas, 1971; Abercrombie, 1980). Third, the economic justification, which may not have been important in the past has become a very strong argument in many places, in recent times (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000). Interestingly, in almost all countries, the responsibility for the conservation of the built environment rests with Ministries of Culture and not Economic Affairs, yet it is the economic Ministries that determine the funding available for conservation work.

Ashworth and Tunbridge's three justifications for heritage conservation are borne out by the findings of the present study. Firstly, from a socio-psychological point of view, a high proportion of visitors to Ludlow said they valued and appreciated the heritage of the town (Figure 7.27) and wished to see it conserved. Seventy-three per cent wanted to see the older buildings maintained in their present condition (Figure 7.33). Similarly, the business providers expressed overwhelming support for the maintenance and conservation of the town's older buildings (Figure 7.48), though there may be an 'economic' as well as a socio-psychological motivation for their response. From all parts of the study, however, it was clear that the distinctiveness of Ludlow and its heritage buildings, representing such a long period of history, are very attractive to visitors and local people alike.

Looking at the benefits of conservation from an economic perspective, 90 per cent of business providers said that tourism benefits the local economy and 53 per cent of visitors agreed. The managers of tourism and related services also agreed that tourism boosts the economy locally and regionally. The South Shropshire Tourism Strategy (2008: 4) noted that in 2006, 29.7 per cent of economically active people in the District were employed in the tourism sector, compared to 5.7 per cent in agriculture and agricultural related occupations.

Thus, it was claimed that ‘tourism benefits local people as well as visitors’, which is one of the reasons why tourism is recognized as a major contributor to local economic activity and development. In the business providers’ survey (Figure 7.41) 90 per cent said their business benefited from tourists coming to Ludlow.

Given these benefits and the recognition of the economic importance of tourism, it is ironic that at national level, the funding to support tourism has been drastically reduced: Visit Britain’s funding, for example, has been cut by over 20 per cent for the period 2009 to 2011 (British Tourism Framework, 2010), while a recent survey of councillors in England found that museums and galleries, tourism and leisure were seen as the areas most ripe for cuts (Blackman, 2009). Such reductions or targeting of cuts are despite the fact that DCMS (2010) suggested that government investment in tourism is justified, in part, by the need to recognise that out of approximately 20,000 businesses involved in the sector, 80 per cent are SMEs with severe limitations on the extent to which they can be expected to co-ordinate their marketing efforts. Small businesses dominate the tourism sector and the wider economy in small heritage towns such as Ludlow.

Heritage conservation for contemporary political-ideological reasons would not be a justification for conservation in Britain. However, the present significance of heritage owes much to the history it represents, the stories that can be told, and the pride that many people have in the political evolution of the place they belong to. Even today in parts of the British Isles where there has been conflict, not all heritage will be admired or respected by those who associate it with the politics or ideology of the past. In most cases, however, looking at it from the point of view of a heritage manager, for example, most English towns can benefit

from the promotion of their history, especially where there is built heritage to support or anchor the promotion. In Ludlow, the fortifications, the town wall and the castle are symbols of pride in the town's history, with the negative aspects of what this heritage stood for or symbolises being conveniently set aside. But heritage tourism cannot always be 'soft' and as suggested by Swarbrooke (2002), the industry needs to be prepared to tackle 'hard' issues such as the slave trade and its role in the development of ports such as Bristol and Liverpool; racism and the oppression of minority groups; hunting and its role in the traditional rural economy; the colonial era and the British Empire. And what applies to Britain applies equally to any country in presenting a rounded account of its history and heritage. The value of a heritage place is achieved not only by conserving it but by giving the place meaning within the life of contemporary communities. In the words of the UNESCO (1972) Article 5, World Heritage Convention each state which is party to the convention is required to adopt 'a general policy which aims to give the cultural and natural heritage a function in the life of the community'.

The difficulties of investigating the concept of the tourist-historic city have been referred to previously in this chapter. Because of the complexity in distinguishing the activities of visitors and local people, which might be magnified greatly in large tourist towns, there have been advantages in selecting for this research a small heritage town, especially one that is not dominated by tourists, except perhaps on some of the major festival days described in previous chapters. This choice also has enabled the study to explore the nature of small English towns, using Ludlow as an example. Small English towns normally were fortified and built for defence, they became market towns, and important trading and agricultural centres; and their urban fabric often dates from the relatively wealthy Tudor and Georgian

periods. Each town has its own characteristics and history but in most cases the castle is the key historic feature, offering safety and protection to the local area. It is not, however, the castle alone that people come to see but rather the castle as part of the heritage town which the castle's presence enabled to develop. Indeed, in Ludlow the castle was the first building of importance and the town, with its distinctive morphology, developed later.

2. To examine the perception of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism in urban settlements from the perspective of key participants or stakeholders

Although this study did not follow the approach of setting up hypotheses to be tested through the research, it could have been postulated that different stakeholders might have different perceptions of the impact of heritage tourism on the built environment. National data, for example, show that heritage tourism is associated with particular groups of visitors, namely the 'elderly' and the 'elite' (Heritage Lottery Fund, 2010) and they could be expected to view heritage differently from, say, predominantly younger groups. Similarly, professional managers of heritage attractions might have different perceptions to those of local business providers. One of the aims of the study was to see what differences in perceptions there were in practice and, where possible, to quantify them.

Of the attractions of heritage, there can be no doubt. More than 28 million adults in England (69 per cent of the population) were said by English Heritage to have visited a heritage site 'in the last 12 months' (HLF, 2010). These are striking figures.

In Ludlow in 2008, the visitors' survey showed a relatively balanced proportion of younger adults (39 per cent in the age group 25-44 years) and the middle-aged (38 per cent in the group aged 45-64 years). The elderly (65 and older) accounted for 10 per cent of visitors interviewed (Table 7.1).

As noted in Chapter 7, the factors on which visitors' perceptions were based relate to Hunter and Green's (1995) concept of a typology of the built environmental impacts of tourism, as discussed in Chapter 3. The factors selected for examination in the survey reflect the utilities and infrastructure most likely to be experienced during a visit, which can influence the visitors' impressions of the visual quality or appearance of the town (Table 7.8). Respondents were asked to rank each factor on the scale of 'very poor' to 'very good'.

On visitors' perceptions, perhaps the key findings from the survey (Table 7.8) are the very high proportions of respondents who ranked highly the conservation of old buildings (95% 'good' or 'very good'), the character of the town (96% good or very good), the landscaping of the area (93% good or very good), and the provision of benches or seating areas (90% good or very good). Other facilities such as signposting, parking and pedestrianisation scored quite highly but 25% thought the provision of public toilet facilities was 'poor' or 'very poor'; 13% criticised the parking facilities as poor or very poor; and 12% said the provision of pedestrianised streets was poor or very poor, perhaps reflecting the issues of traffic congestion and vehicle-pedestrian conflict which arose frequently during the study.

The business providers' survey looked in further detail at the perceptions of the built environmental impacts of tourism in Ludlow. The results were analysed in three areas: environmental management; infrastructure and services; and visual impacts and quality of life.

On environmental management, tourism was said by just under half the business respondents to have added to traffic congestion (37 out of 75 responses) and parking problems (57 out of 80, or 71%). But the majority disagreed that tourism had contributed to the deterioration of old buildings (50 out of 80, or 63%), or to overcrowding in the town (46 out of 80 responses) perhaps in the latter case because tourism in Ludlow is quite seasonal and is not always evident at many times of the year.

On infrastructure and services, most business respondents did not feel that tourism has created problems for basic infrastructure such as energy and water supplies. However, 19 respondents out of 61 (31% of those responding) said that tourism has had an effect on the change of use of buildings. It could be expected that such changes of use are beneficial if they contribute to the viability of a building that might otherwise fall into disuse; on the other hand, changes of use can be controversial. As noted in Chapter 7, the survey did not explore this further.

On visual impacts and quality of life, the general response of businesses was positive: for example, 58 respondents [out of 80] agreed that tourism developments have contributed to the 'restoration and preservation of historic buildings and sites'. Sixty-one respondents said that tourism developments have enhanced the 'character of the historic town' and 58 said that they have brought 'an improved quality of life to Ludlow'. Sixty respondents agreed with the



statement that one of the impacts of tourism development has been ‘growth of the built up area of the town’.

The managers of tourism and related services discussed individually with the researcher the summarised findings of the visitors’ and business providers’ surveys. On the question of the impact of heritage tourism on the built environment in Ludlow, the managers’ saw the town as a popular tourist destination, with a good mix of visitors and local people, and seldom overcrowded – except perhaps at festival times. All recognised that most tourists were attracted by Ludlow’s heritage and by its character and function as a small heritage town.

Among the managers, specific perceptions of the built environmental impacts of heritage tourism related mainly to the infrastructure: traffic and parking, pedestrianisation, and the festivals and events in which most of the managers were directly involved. On these subjects, there were differences of perception between different managers. The differences were predictable in the sense that each manager was coming to the discussion from a particular starting point or area of responsibility; but some were unexpected, especially in their concern about parking arrangements and pedestrianisation.

The overwhelming impression, however, from all three surveys was of the generally positive perceptions that visitors, business providers and managers have about Ludlow as a heritage destination; the quality of its built environment; and the ability of the environment, through careful management, to withstand the pressures that visitor numbers can bring. The points of disagreement tended to be the same as they might be in any town, especially around traffic and parking, though the problems are almost certainly amplified in the perceptions of

people living or working in Ludlow because of visitor numbers, especially at peak times of the year.

3. To examine how and why impacts may be perceived differently by tourists (demand side stakeholders) and business providers (supply side stakeholders)

The visitors' and business providers' surveys were designed in part to enable issues in the heritage town to be looked at from the point of view of the demand and supply sides. Visitors to any tourist destination have expectations as what they will see and the nature and quality of what they will experience. They will evaluate their visit in relation to these expectations.

There are relatively few business providers in Ludlow that depend exclusively on tourists for the success of their business. Most are supplying at least a dual market of visitors and local people; and there were very few that claimed their business had no connection at all with tourism. The importance of tourism to the local economy is a well recognised phenomenon and many business providers commented on the benefits it brings to the town.

Thus, it might be expected that visitors' and business providers' perceptions of the impact of tourism, even where they differ, will tend to be complementary in the sense of supporting tourism and accepting its consequences because it is mutually beneficial to do so. If the town is not attractive or receptive to visitors, they will not come; and if visitors, through their behaviour, their numbers, or in other ways, disrupt the well-being of the town or

adversely affect its character, they will not be welcomed. If these paths are followed, no-one benefits.

A fundamental difference between visitors and business providers is that the visitors are temporary and the businesses are usually permanent. A previous survey, for example, showed that the average length of time spent by a visitor to Ludlow was three hours; whereas in the business providers' survey, it was found that eleven businesses [out of 80] had been running at the same premises for more than 40 years and thirty-seven for more than 10 years (Figure 7.40). Perceptions are bound to be affected by these differences of perspective.

Another point of difference relates to the factors that influence the decision to visit a heritage town. Previous work has shown that this is often determined by factors such as motivation, values and socio-demographic attributes; while the visitors' survey in Ludlow found that a very high proportion of respondents (75 per cent) had been educated at college or university. It might be expected that their level of education was a factor influencing both their decision to visit and their perceptions of the heritage town.

Far from highlighting differences in the perceptions of visitors and business providers, this objective has contributed to an understanding of the complementarities between the demand and supply sides of tourism in Ludlow. It is more appropriate, therefore, to highlight areas where perceptions are in agreement rather than disagreement. For example, regarding the conservation and maintenance of the town's older buildings (Figure 7.48) ninety-six per cent of business respondents favoured either maintaining older buildings in their original condition or conserving them through restoration and repair. In the visitors' survey (Figure

7.33) seventy-three per cent said that old buildings should be ‘maintained in their original condition’ while 11 per cent said they could be restored ‘with modification’. Relating this to Ashworth and Tunbridge’s (2000) range of actions that can be taken in response to the decay of old buildings (Chapter 3, Figure 3.3), it is notable that no business provider in Ludlow suggested the acceptance of decay, rather than its prevention through restoration, conservation or rebuilding in an original style. These responses show that business providers perceive the built heritage as a key contributor to the success of business activity in the town; while visitors value the built heritage, probably as the main factor that draws them there.

#### 4. To explore the role of appointed officials and others in managing/promoting heritage tourism

Chapter 8 (section 8.2) contains a brief introduction to the roles and responsibilities of the managers of tourism and related services that were interviewed as part of the research. There is not much that can be added to this by way of conclusions. Each ‘manager’ has clearly defined responsibilities for the job or the official position they hold and their perspectives on the study reflect the experience and knowledge they have gained in those positions, in some cases over many years. All of them recognised the appeal of Ludlow as a heritage tourism destination, and some were actively working, as part of their jobs, to manage, promote and protect the town and to create, support and sometimes challenge the strategic framework within which this is done.

Their approach was anything but theoretical. They showed vision for the future but many of their concerns were grounded in the practical issues of planning, management and business

activity within the context of a historic town that is seen as important not only to the people who live and work there but also nationally and internationally. The managers showed a good deal of satisfaction with the findings of the visitors' and business providers' surveys, especially where positive views were expressed about the visitor or business experience in the town. The more negative views or complaints voiced in the surveys were recognised, among them the issues of parking, public toilets, pedestrianisation and signing.

What emerged strongly from the interviews was the role played, particularly by the public officials and their colleagues, in seeking to resolve and achieve consensus on policy and practice affecting everyday matters and longer-term strategies for the town. This involves extensive liaison with managers in, or representatives of, other sectors and a significant level of consultation with the general public, through a variety of means.

5. To explore the implications of heritage tourism perceptions and management for the sustainability of the heritage environment

Among the main findings of the study are the importance placed by all stakeholders on the quality of the heritage environment; the desire that this should be protected in a sustainable way, for the benefit of present and future generations; and the fact that some people would like to be involved (or more involved) in decisions affecting the historic environment and its management. These findings are very similar to those of the review co-ordinated by English Heritage *'Power of Place: the future of the historic environment'* (English Heritage, 2000) and despite the changes in government, policy and resources for heritage that have occurred since the review was published, the broad (survey-based) findings of *'Power of Place'* are

unaffected by them: for example, the review shows that people see the historic environment as a totality, not as individual sites and buildings; that cultural and physical heritage are two sides of the same coin; that partnership working is important in heritage policy and management; and that education, understanding, commitment, leadership and adequate resources are essential in getting things done.

South Shropshire did not have a formal tourism strategy until 2004 but the absence of a document did not mean that, until then, there were no policies, or no heritage tourism, or that local people were not involved in trying to protect and promote the historic environment of the town. The evidence suggests they were very effective in doing all those things; and that there was collaboration between key tourism stakeholders in the district (including Ludlow), in the same way as Maitland (2006) described from his research on 25 years experience of tourism strategy in Cambridge. In Ludlow, the interviews with managers reinforced the impression gained, especially from policy documents and from informal discussions with local residents, that extensive consultation took place locally on heritage policy and management and although some people who wanted to take part were unable to do so because of work or other commitments, this participatory approach was well established, enabling local views and community values to be taken into account in developing and implementing policy. This process, described in Chapter 3 (after Maitland) as eco-centrism - or a bottom-up approach to policy and management – exemplifies the importance of consultation and partnership in the approach followed in Ludlow.

## 9.4 The Contribution of the Research

Within the inevitable limitations of time and resources, this research has achieved its aims and has drawn conclusions on the research objectives identified from the review of previous literature. The study of Ludlow is unusual in that it included three surveys (of visitors, business providers and managers of tourism and related services). The questionnaire surveys were deliberately short and this was rewarded by quite high response rates. There were no problems in achieving the sample numbers required. As a consequence, however, it was not possible to explore some issues in as much depth as might have been preferred and the limitations of this are acknowledged.

A number of other surveys were conducted in Ludlow during the 2000s, mostly commissioned by the local authorities as a basis for policy in the area of local economic development. They were a useful guide when developing the questionnaires for the present study but (because of their different purposes) were not used very much in this study for comparative purposes. What was different about the surveys for this thesis was that they were planned and designed as a sequence, with the results of the first two providing a background for the third: the informal interviews with managers of tourism and related services. This was a useful technique which could be applied in future studies.

Three main conclusions from this study are suggested as evidence of an original contribution to knowledge: first, it has established that the concept of ‘perceived impacts’ of heritage tourism on the built environment is a stronger analytical and management tool than the concept of carrying capacity, which though it can indicate an ‘ideal’ level of usage for a

site, can seldom implement a policy to achieve it. Second, it has been shown that understanding stakeholders' perceptions of the built environmental impacts of tourism in historic settlements or towns provides empirical evidence that can contribute a new dimension to definitional debates, for example, on what is 'heritage' and what does it mean. Third, the study has taken forward the typology of the built environmental impacts of tourism as developed by Hunter and Green, using empirical data to show what different stakeholders feel about the relative importance of different aspects of heritage.

## 9.5 Personal reflections

My personal perspective on carrying out this research has given me some good insights into the research process and the circumstances in which I have worked.

When I began this study, I do not think I fully appreciated the scale of the challenge for an international student to embark on a topic that would require me to gain an understanding of British history and its effects on urban development; the nature of the small English heritage town and the special place it has in the British imagination and sense of history; the planning system in England and other parts of the UK; the history of heritage protection; the seemingly unending process of local government reorganization; and the extent to which national policy can change dramatically as the result of a change of government from Labour to the present Conservative/Liberal Democrat coalition.

Another thing I have learnt is through the hands-on and practical experience of conducting the fieldwork over a period of several years. This has given me many insights



into the real world as compared to the world of theory, through both are highly interdependent. The opportunity to select a small heritage town as a case study led me to experience the journey both as a researcher and as a tourist. I could engage with local activity and events and I often felt part of an inclusive community: this was a great benefit for a researcher working alone. Furthermore, it was my good fortune to be in a tourist destination that is less promoted and less busy than many others on the standard 'tourist track'. I met visitors who are really keen on heritage, business people who were happy to share their perceptions and ideas for enhancing their business and their town; and I received great cooperation from the managers in contributing their knowledge and experience as a valued input to this research.

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# APPENDICES

- A QUESTIONNAIRES (VISITORS SURVEY)
- B QUESTIONNAIRES (BUSINESS PROVIDERS SURVEY)
- C TOPIC GUIDES



ID :

Area :

## (A) VISITORS QUESTIONNAIRE

### Introduction

Good afternoon/evening. I am a research student at Birmingham University. I am making a study of how people feel about Ludlow as a place to visit. Do you mind if I ask you a few questions? First of all, are you a visitor or do you live in or near the town (local resident)?

If you are VISITOR, continue the survey. If you are local resident, thank you very much, I just need to ask visitors (close interview).

The aim of this research is to **examine the perception of visitors on Ludlow as place to visit**. All information obtained will be kept confidential and fused for research purposes only. Thank you for your time.

If you have any hesitation or questions, please contact me or my supervisors;

Mrs Suraiyati Rahman (Research Student) : [sxr533@bham.ac.uk](mailto:sxr533@bham.ac.uk),

Chris Watson : [c.j.watson@bham.ac.uk](mailto:c.j.watson@bham.ac.uk) &

(Please tick your answer in the appropriate box)

1. Is this your first visit to Ludlow?

Yes		No	
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2. If **NO**, how many times have you visited Ludlow in the last 12 months? \_\_\_\_\_

3. On this visit, are you travelling :

Alone		With friends	
With family		With a group	

4. What is your **MAIN** reason for visiting Ludlow today? (please choose one only)

Leisure/Sightseeing		Visiting friends/relatives	
Shopping		Other (please specify)	
Business			

5. How long will you be staying in Ludlow?

One day or less		2 days or more	
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6. How did you travel here (main method)? (please chose one only)

Car		Train	
Service bus		Other _____	
Tour bus/Coach			

7. What activities have you been doing (or expect to do) on this visit to Ludlow? (Please tick all that apply)

Sightseeing		Visiting historic places	
Shopping		Cultural activities (attending/taking part)	
Having a meal in a pub/café/restaurant		Other (please specify) _____	

(Please tick your answer based on the scale below)

8. Thinking about why you decided to visit Ludlow today, which of the following factors influenced your decision?

	Factors	Not Important/ Not Relevant	Important	Very Important
A	It is easy to get here	1	2	3
B	It is an attractive place	1	2	3
C	Interesting historic buildings	1	2	3
D	There are good places to eat	1	2	3
E	There is good local produce (at market/shops)	1	2	3
F	There are good cultural activities	1	2	3
G	There are plenty of facilities here for visitors	1	2	3
H	Any other reason? (please specify )	1	2	3

9. Can you please tell me if you agree or disagree with the following statements ;

	Factors	Agree	Disagree
A	I am attracted by the architecture of historic buildings	1	2
B	I am attracted by the history of Ludlow	1	2
C	I am attracted by the local culture/cultural events	1	2
D	It is good to see older buildings being preserved	1	2
E	Pedestrianised areas (traffic free) may preserve the condition of old buildings	1	2

10. How do you rate the quality of the built environment in Ludlow?

	Factors	Very Poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very Good	Don't Know
A	Conservation of old buildings	1	2	3	4	5	6
B	The character of the town	1	2	3	4	5	6
C	Landscaping of the area	1	2	3	4	5	6
D	Provision of sufficient rubbish bins	1	2	3	4	5	6
E	Provision of public toilet facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
F	Provision of benches/sitting areas	1	2	3	4	5	6
G	Tourist information centre services	1	2	3	4	5	6
H	Signposting (for cars)	1	2	3	4	5	6
I	Signposting (for pedestrians)	1	2	3	4	5	6
J	Parking facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
K	Pedestrianised streets	1	2	3	4	5	6
L	Provision of park and ride	1	2	3	4	5	6
M	Public transportation system (buses and train)	1	2	3	4	5	6

11. Thinking generally about the effect of tourism in historic towns, what are the advantages and disadvantages of encouraging tourists?

Advantages	Disadvantages

12. In your opinion, what are the 3 most attractive buildings in Ludlow?

i- \_\_\_\_\_ ii- \_\_\_\_\_ iii- \_\_\_\_\_

13. What do you like and dislike about these buildings?

	Like/Positive	Dislike/Negative
i		
ii		
iii		

14. In your opinion, what is the best way to look after the old buildings in Ludlow? (Select one only)

Maintain them in their original condition		Re-use the old building	
Restore them with modification		Others (please specify)	

15. Do you have any suggestions for improving Ludlow to make it more attractive to visitors?

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16. How do you rate Ludlow as a place to visit?

Very poor	Poor	Average	Interesting	Very Interesting
1	2	3	4	5

17. Would you visit here again in future?

Yes	
No	

18. Which is your home country (the place you live) ?

UK		Other (please specify)	
----	--	------------------------	--

19. Gender

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

20. Which age group you belong to?

Under 25 years old		45-64 years old	
25 – 44 years old		65 years old and above	

21. What is your highest level of education?

Secondary (school – GCSE)	
College (including sixth form college/ A Level)	
University (diploma/degree/Master/Ph.D)	

**T H A N K Y O U F O R Y O U R T I M E**



## (B) SERVICE PROVIDERS (BUSINESS) QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a research student at Birmingham University. I am doing a survey to find out how local businesses see Ludlow as an historic and market town. I'm particularly interested in **your views on some of the local services and the physical environment in the town**. I'd like to ask you some questions. It won't take long, if you can possibly spare 10-15 minutes. All your answers will be confidential and just used for the purposes of my research at the University.

If you have any hesitation or questions, please contact me or my supervisors.

Mrs Suraiyati Rahman, PhD student, University of Birmingham: [sxr533@bham.ac.uk](mailto:sxr533@bham.ac.uk)

Mr Chris Watson: [c.j.watson@bham.ac.uk](mailto:c.j.watson@bham.ac.uk) (tel 0121 414 5026); Mrs Jane Lutz: [j.lutz@bham.ac.uk](mailto:j.lutz@bham.ac.uk)

### Respondent's Profile

Please tick ✓ in the box or answers the blank space

1. Do you live in Ludlow town?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

2. If **NO**, where do you live? \_\_\_\_\_ (please specify your town and village)

3. What is the title of your job? \_\_\_\_\_

4. How would you describe your business? Please tick your answer

Services		Tourist attraction	
Food and drinks		Hotel/ B&B/ Accommodation	
Retail		Multiple business	
Other (Please specify)		(Please specify)	

5. Do you own or rent these premises?

Own		Rent		Other (please specify)	
-----	--	------	--	------------------------	--

6. Are the premises [or the building] categorised as a listed building? [i.e as a building of architectural or historic importance]

Yes		No		Don't know	
-----	--	----	--	------------	--

7. How long has the business been running in these premises? \_\_\_\_\_ months / \_\_\_\_\_ years

8. Does the business benefit from tourists coming to Ludlow?

Yes		No		Don't know	
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9. Taking the year as a whole, please rank your main customers (1,2,3) according to the amount of business they bring

Local residents		Domestic visitors (local)		International tourists		Other	
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10. Which month is best for your business in terms of highest profit? Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

11. How would you rate the traffic in Ludlow?

Too Much ☐

Acceptable ☐

Don't know ☐

12. If **TOO MUCH**, what are the names of the roads with the **most traffic problems** and **how could they be improved**?

Name of the road	How to improve?

13. Is car parking a problem for your customers?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Don't know ☐

14. If **YES**, do you think the location of existing parking spaces is **sufficient** for your customers and is it **accessible** to your premises?

Parking  
Sufficient

Yes ☐

No ☐

Don't know ☐

Accessible

Yes ☐

No ☐

Don't know ☐

15. A lot of work seems to have been done recently to improve the town centre. Has this had a good impact on your business?

Good ☐

Not so good ☐

Not affected me ☐

Don't know ☐

16. How do you feel about the policies of the local council towards the improvement of Ludlow?

Satisfied ☐

Not satisfied ☐

Not affected ☐

Don't know ☐

If **NOT SATISFIED**, what improvements do you think should be made?

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17. Do you think public events held in Ludlow (e.g. Ludlow Marches Transport, Food Festival) are helpful to your business?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Why do you say that ?

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## Perception of Built Environmental Impacts of Tourism

(For each factor, **please tick one** of the columns 1,2, 3 or 4)

18. The presence of tourism in this area has created (or added to)

	Factors	Agree	Disagree	Not relevant	Don't know
A	Traffic congestion	1	2	3	3
B	Litter	1	2	3	3
C	Overcrowding in the town	1	2	3	3
D	Parking problems	1	2	3	3
E	Deterioration of old buildings	1	2	3	3
F	Good opportunities for local businesses	1	2	3	3

19. Do you think the following have improved or got worse recently as a result of tourism development?

	Factors	Improved	Not Affected	Got worse	Don't know
A	Gas supply system	1	2	3	4
B	Electricity supply system	1	2	3	4
C	Water supply system	1	2	3	4
D	Sewerage system	1	2	3	4
E	Telecommunication system	1	2	3	4
F	Rubbish collection	1	2	3	4
G	Changes of use of buildings (eg from private homes to B&B)	1	2	3	4
H	Parking facilities	1	2	3	4
I	The traffic system	1	2	3	4

20. Would you agree or disagree that tourism developments have had the following impacts?

	Factors	Agree	Disagree	Not relevant	Don't know
A	Pedestrianised areas (traffic free) have been good for my business	1	2	3	3
B	The re-use of disused buildings	1	2	3	3
C	Restoration and preservation of historic buildings and sites	1	2	3	3
D	Introduction of new architectural design	1	2	3	3
E	Growth of built-up area of the town	1	2	3	3
F	New people coming to live in the area	1	2	3	3
G	Enhancement of the character of the historic town	1	2	3	3
H	An improved quality of life in Ludlow	1	2	3	3

21. Thinking generally about the effect of tourism in historic towns, what are the advantages and disadvantages of encouraging tourists?

Advantages	Disadvantages

22. In your opinion, what is the best way to look after the old buildings in Ludlow? (Select one only)

Maintain them in their original condition (restoration)		Rebuilding (copy)	
Conserve them with modification (protection)		Others	
Conserve them (repair)		(please specify) _____	

23. Do you have any (other) suggestions for improving the environment of the Ludlow town?

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Thank you for your time

## (C) TOPIC GUIDES

Topic guides were prepared for the interviews with the managers of tourism and related services in Ludlow. They were designed as a checklist of questions or issues on which to base an informal, open-ended conversation between the researcher and the person being interviewed. The aim was to encourage interviewees to respond freely to the questions being raised. Interviews were recorded and notes taken where possible.

Three topic guides were used for the six interviews undertaken. Many of the questions and other points raised are exactly the same in each topic guide but Section 2 was phrased specifically in relation to the job or role of the person being interviewed.

The full topic guide for the interviews with local government officers is presented below. This is followed by the Section 2 questions for heritage managers and representatives of private and voluntary sector organisations.

Every interviewee was contacted in advance and the interview was arranged by appointment. A written explanation of the research, its aims and objectives, and a summary of the main findings from the visitors' and business providers' surveys was sent to each interviewee about a week in advance of their interview.

### Topic Guide for Local Government Officers

#### 1. Start the interview:

- Greeting; thank you for your time; the interview will take up to one hour.
- Explain and clarify as necessary the purpose of the research.
- Explain that the interview will be confidential and that any quotes used in the thesis will not be attributed to the interviewee by name or job title.
- Ask permission to take notes and to record the conversation. Confirm that the recording(s) will remain confidential to the researcher.

2. Your role/job in relation to heritage tourism:

- When did you start in your present position/job and what are your responsibilities?
- What are the main strategies and policies [in Ludlow] for heritage tourism and the conservation of old buildings?
- What are the main aspects/characteristics of the built environment that are valued [in Ludlow]?
- What actions have been taken to sustain the heritage town?
- What actions have been taken to minimize any adverse built environmental impacts of tourism?

3. Views on the case study town and the results of the visitors' and business providers' surveys:

- What are your views on the current situation of tourism activity in Ludlow?
- What are your views on the main impacts of tourism activity on the built environment? Any other concerns about this?
- [Interviewer to] clarify if necessary the main findings of the visitors' and business providers' surveys.
- What is your opinion about collaboration or partnership between the users of the town (residents and visitors), suppliers of services (business providers) and public bodies (local authorities) in managing the town and minimising any adverse impacts on it?
- To what extent does such collaboration take place in Ludlow between stakeholders? Do you think the current strategy and policies can succeed in sustaining the quality of Ludlow as a tourism destination?

4. Views on sustainable development:

- What do you think about sustainable development?
- Is sustainability an issue for tourism policy and management in Ludlow?

- Do you think the current tourism activities and developments in Ludlow are sustainable? If so, why? If not, why?
- To what extent are public perceptions of the impact of tourism taken into consideration in developing local tourism strategies and policies?

5. Final thoughts:

- Is there anything else you would like to add or comment on?
- Thanks and close.

### Variations for other interviewees

The same topic guide was used for all interviews, with the exception of some questions in Section 2 which, for the local government officers, asked ‘What are the main strategies and policies [in Ludlow] for heritage tourism and the conservation of old buildings?’

In the topic guide for *heritage managers in the private sector*, the question asked was:

‘What are the main motivations and strategies for the management of heritage buildings in Ludlow?’

In the topic guide for *representatives of private and voluntary sector organisations*, the questions asked were:

- When did you start in your present position/job and what are your responsibilities?
- What are the main aims and motivations of [your organisation]
- What do you think about Ludlow as a tourism destination?
- To what extent do local businesses in Ludlow depend on tourism?
- How does [your organisation] help local businesses in promoting their products and services and boosting their trade?
- What are the main aspects/characteristics of the built environment that are valued [in Ludlow]?

