



Edited by
ALAIN A. GRENIER
and **DIETER K. MÜLLER**

Polar Tourism

A Tool for Regional Development



Presses de l'Université du Québec

Extrait de la publication

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Polar Tourism

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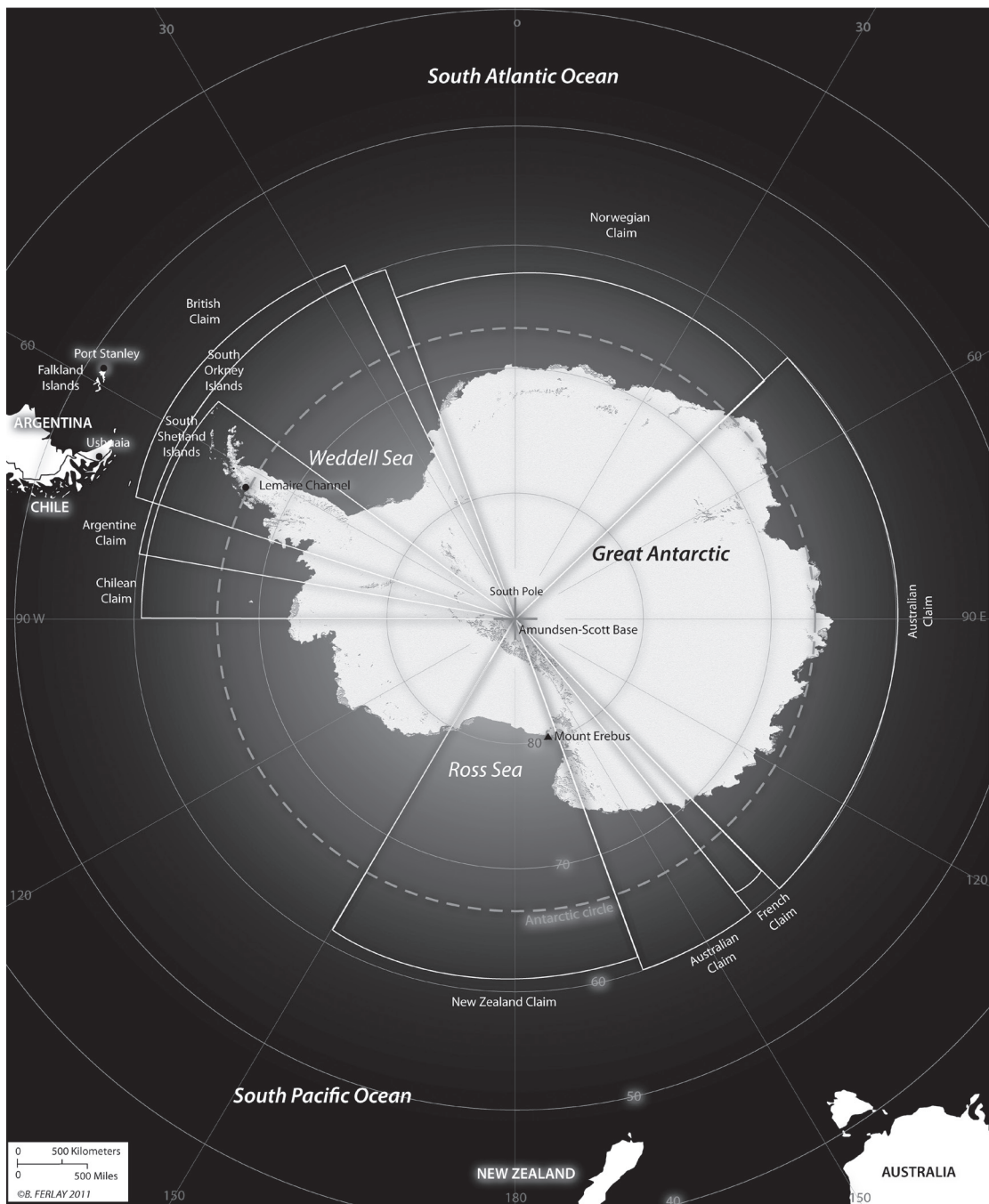
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Circumpolar Antarctic



Circumpolar Arctic



INTRODUCTION

Alain A. Grenier
*Department of Urban
Studies and Tourism,
École des sciences
de la gestion,
Université du Québec
à Montréal,
QC, Canada*

From the skies, Nunavik – the northernmost region of Québec – seems like a vast, relatively flat but rocky landmass only coloured by thousands of lakes and rings of lichens (Figure I.1). This remote area of tundra – remote from an outsider point of view – appears endless and uninhabited (Figure I.2). There are no skyscrapers here, no street lights, no highways, and few infrastructures to be seen from the air. This area, as large as Spain, stretches north of the 55th parallel all the way to the Hudson Strait. It includes large rivers, lakes, plateaus, and mountains. Treeless for the most part, the land is exposed to strong winds, with mean temperatures reaching 12°C in summer and minus 25°C in winter. Yet, visitors should not let appearances mislead them. In spite of these conditions, Nunavik is home to 11,300 Inuit spread over 14 villages along the coasts of the Hudson Bay and around the Ungava Bay. Only four of these villages, however, count more than

a thousand inhabitants (Kuujjuaq, Puvirnituk, Inukjuak, and Salluit). The Inuit share this land with abundant wildlife (Figures I.3 and I.4). Besides polar bears, more than 2,000 musk-ox and two herds of caribou, representing some 703,000 head, roam this vast region (MRNF 2011). Flora, although sparse, is nevertheless relatively rich for such climate (Figure I.5). Any nature enthusiast will see a potential paradise in this land. The hard reality may yet be different.

FIGURE I.1

*The vastness
of Nunavik*

Photo: Alain A. Grenier



FIGURE I.2

*A road crossing
on the way
to Kangiqsujuaq,
Nunavik*

Photo: Alain A. Grenier



FIGURE I.3



Polar bears are no strangers to Nunavik where they constitute a major attraction for foreign visitors

Photo: Alain A. Grenier

FIGURE I.4



Both small and larger wildlife abounds in Nunavik; Arctic hare and musk-ox roam this vast northern land

Photo: Alain A. Grenier

FIGURE I.5

Arctic flora, such as this Saxifraga taken in an early fall frost, is abundant in Nunavik

Photo: Alain A. Grenier



Inhabited by different indigenous groups (initially the Thulean and Dorset) for over 3,800 years, Nunavik has really come into modernity in a relatively short amount of time. Indeed, the Inuit had their first contacts with Europeans in what is now Nunavik during the 18th century, as Europeans developed a fur trade outpost. The fur trade economy reached its peak in the 19th century. Yet, in some areas of Nunavik, first contacts with Eurocanadians took place as recently as the 20th century. In all cases, these contacts with European and, later, Canadian traders and missionaries brought drastic and often irreversible changes to the Inuit way of life.

The conversion to Christianity, urbanization and the following impact of western culture on the Inuit, from dietary habits through recreational activities, in a short amount of time has had many side effects. With low education rates and few jobs available (unemployment can affect up to half of the working-age population), the North faces many problems, including unemployment and welfare, teenage pregnancy, loss of identity, lack of hope for a future, and suicide (AHDR 2004: 144). Nunavik's population has more than tripled since 1951. Nearly 35% of the population is under 15 years of age. With such a population boom, Nunavik faces major short-term challenges in regard with housing, labour, education and training, and employment. Traditionally, the solutions to the Aboriginals' problems came from the South. But colonization was hardly a salvation for these people.

The Province of Québec claimed and got an extension of its border to the North in 1898 and 1912. These extensions North and the presence of Inuit people in Québec would eventually and will continue to have a great influence on the history of the province and its future. First considered for its resource potential (minerals and hydropower), the North plays a much larger role (though still underestimated by the southern population) in this province where nationalism remains a part of the cultural and political identity of the Québec nation. Long time forgotten as a distant frontier, the northernmost part of Québec (referred to as "Nouveau-Québec"/New Quebec in the 1970s) has been going through a period of integration since the signing of the James Bay and Northern Quebec Agreement in 1975 (since then modified nearly 20 times by additional agreements). An intensive period of development aspirations by the Québec government, especially in the hydro-power potential of the province, met with opposition from the Cree and Inuit populations who demanded to have their say in the management of the North. Since the development of the Province of Québec cannot be done without that of the North,

decades of negotiations led to major land claim settlements.¹ These negotiations were the result, among other factors, of the emancipation of Aboriginal peoples all over the world but especially in the circumpolar Arctic. This emancipation, in the Canadian Arctic, led to a process of devolution – where administrative powers are increasingly transferred to local and regional jurisdictions and governments (AHDR 2004: 129). Although the Sami people of Scandinavia have achieved a certain level of recognition and protection, through the Sami Parliament, nothing compares to the territorialization and management gains achieved by the Inuit of Canada and Groenland (Canobbio 2009: 320). These settlements included the designation of the ownership of the land and resources, measures on environmental and social protection, education, health and social services, and economic development.

In the Québec context, the devolution process led to the creation of public organizations specific to the region, including the Makivik Corporation and the Kativik Regional Government (KRG), whose responsibilities include the management of the Kativik region (Nunavik since 1986). These authorities should eventually be merged to form one Nunavik Regional Government. Although the project was rejected by the Inuit in May 2011, it is only a matter of time before the Nunavik government becomes a reality, considering the importance of regional management in northern affairs.

The creation of Nunavik is a major step forward, both for the Province of Québec and its Inuit population. It is the result of 30 years of negotiations that benefited from an important period of questioning and change for Québec and the Canadian federation, in the light of the nationalistic (not to be equated with separatist) aspirations of the only French-speaking province of the country. The creation of Nunavut (1999) in Canada and Nunavik in Québec underline not only the recognition of the Inuit identity but also the discussion on some fundamental issues regarding the emancipation of the Aboriginal people, their empowerment, the development and management of the northern resources of both Canada and Québec, and the protection and conservation of their fragile ecosystems (Canobbio 2009: 13).

■ NUNAVIK AND TOURISM

Nunavik includes one-third of the Province of Québec (see Figure I.6). Its underdeveloped economy rests mainly on mining and subsidies from both federal and provincial states. To help develop the regional economy,

1. For a thorough account of the emancipation of Québec's North and Nunavik, see Canobbio (2009).



Nunavik, Québec

Map: Benjamin Ferlay.

FIGURE I.6

KRG has identified tourism as one of the main and best-suited avenues. In parallel, the creation of three national parks² within Nunavik by the Québec Government provided the natural attractions needed to generate media attention and a certain tourism demand. With the establishment of the Kuururjuaq, Tursujuq, and Pingualuit parks, funding has also been injected in the training required to prepare the personnel who will find employment in tourism operations. How exactly will these efforts translate into economic impacts for Nunavik? It is too early to tell. Figures are not yet available because they do not really exist (at the time of this book's publication, the Québec Ministry of Tourism and this author are both conducting separate studies about the state of tourism in Northern Québec). These studies are expected to provide figures and a picture of the reality of tourism development in Northern Québec. The research conducted by this author has already allowed to highlight a shift from hunting to adventure tourism (Figure I.7). Indeed, visitors attracted by the hunting and fishing potential of Nunavik have been abundant in the past. In the last decade, however, they appear to have declined in numbers, being slowly but progressively replaced by photo-hunters and nature-lovers, coming to experience a less consuming yet more demanding experience: nature-based tourism.

Of all the motivation factors which explain tourism, perhaps the number one is distinction (Boyer 1995; based on Bourdieu 1979). People travel to acquire personal and cultural capital. For a destination such as Nunavik, which faces strong competition, the destination's weaknesses can be its prime attraction: an original, distant, and remote location visited by few.

Before Nunavik can truly enjoy the benefits of a well established tourism "industry," many challenges will need to be met. Hunting and fishing tourism required a more rustic and basic approach of the tourism services. The current age of nature-based tourism, however, requires more services, comfort and even luxury. Hence, the development of proper quality infrastructures are necessary to support a reliable tourism cycle. Yet that development cannot occur without basic guarantees that tourists will indeed follow. It is kind of a chicken-and-egg dilemma. Tourists are in constant demand for novelty destinations, yet at an appropriate price. In spite of its novelty aspects, Nunavik faces here a strong competition and strong obstacles.

2. In 2001, the Province of Québec changed its own parks law to adopt the classification proposed in the IUCN Protected Areas Management Categories. Since then, the parks under Québec's jurisdiction have become "National Parks."

FIGURE I.7



Traveling North can be an adventure. A Northern Québec pilot instructs his passengers, before departure to Kangiqsujaq

Photo: Alain A. Grenier

Among the most important, its geographical remoteness leads to enormous transportation costs (for people and goods), a fair price range for the experience with financial benefits for Nunavik and its people, while remaining competitive with cheaper and more developed destinations, including neighbouring Nunavut Territory (which offers similar natural and cultural resources). Needless to say, the development of tourism requires the development of both services and infrastructures. Nunavik is relatively well equipped in airports. Accommodation is more challenging. For instance, the two main hotels in Puvirnituk and Kuujuaq usually fill up quickly when a festival or public event occurs, leaving little or no place to visitors. Building more hotels is unrealistic until tourism (or other economic sectors) can provide enough people to fill them up on a yearly basis.

Hence, the development of tourism in a new destination is not only challenging but requires human efforts as well as political and economic will over a large amount of time without much guarantees as to what will work or not. It is in this context that in August 2008, the newly created International Polar Tourism Research Network came to Kangiqsujaq, Nunavik, to discuss how tourism can play a role in regional development.

The novelty of the location – new to most national and international participants at the conference – provided the ideal context to study a new aspect of polar tourism. Up to then, most researchers had focused on how tourism should be managed. We had yet to look at how tourism could play its role in the development of a region.

■ POLAR TOURISM: A TOOL FOR REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Polar tourism – tourism in the polar regions – is not a new phenomenon. It is well developed in many sectors of the Arctic and Antarctic regions. In the process, the development of polar tourism has attracted an increasing amount of attention from academics in the last decade. Tourism has the reputation of leading to major impacts – good or bad – wherever it develops. As tourism increases rapidly, both in the Arctic and Antarctic, it is only normal to see more attention being given to this phenomenon.

Modern tourists have been attracted to the Arctic and Antarctica even since ships, planes, or roads have made the voyage possible. The lack of travel infrastructures was often among the strongest motivations for the travelers, looking for a way to break away from the well-traveled paths. The somewhat difficult travel conditions and the poor images people built of these regions prevented fast tourism development in the polar regions. In recent decades, however, the recurrent use of polar images to translate the abstract concept of climate change has not only brought a wide media attention to these forbidden regions but also allowed the drawing of a better understanding of these distant worlds. Today, both the Arctic and Antarctic are the focus of a growing tourism industry – in some areas, mass tourism is a more efficient label, as tourism operates on a regular and constant basis, in a well-choreographed ballet of plane, bus, or train arrivals and departures, serving loads of tourists with scenic tours and cultural events.

The recent boost in polar tourism is not accidental. It is linked to many factors whose interrelations created the ideal circumstances for travel to these regions long ignored by the masses. Namely, these circumstances include:

- the political shifts (especially in the Soviet Union) and the end of the Cold War;
- the emancipation of the Aboriginal peoples around the world, especially in the circumpolar regions;
- the devolution that resulted from this emancipation and the empowerment that Aboriginal peoples fought for;
- the emergence of the polar regions as entities of their own (the Barents Region, Nunavut, Nunavik, and Nunatsiavut in particular);
- developing economies that diversify from resource extraction to service development; the construction of new and modern infrastructures (roads, airports, hotels, etc.);
- the rise of the green movement (and the valuation of “frontier” and “wilderness” destinations);

- changes in the tourists themselves, from more passive travel consumers to more active-oriented tours;
- the saturation of mass tourism destinations and the visitors' need for alternate locations;
- terrorism and violence issues related to specific nationalities that avoid politically sensitive areas; and
- the emergence of polar regions in the media in relation with the focus on climate change and the fear of the "disappearing North."

With air facilities and road access in many communities, and the renewed interest of the public for nature and wilderness, polar regions are increasingly turning to tourism for economic development. Yet, tourists do not necessarily follow. Regions such as the Antarctic Peninsula, Alaska, and Finnish Lapland, for instance, receive great numbers of visitors. Other Arctic regions have a more modest tourism industry while some are still in their infancy. How can we explain the success of some destinations, while the efforts elsewhere seem to take forever to get rewarded? There are no simple answers.

Times and the context of the development are key elements. No tourism destination develops overnight. Today's successful destinations also had a humble and slow start. The context must also be there for tourists to choose a specific region. Tourism is a sensitive and often unpredictable industry. In a global world, distant, seemingly unrelated events can clash. The Arab Spring and the following crash of the tourism industry in Tunisia, in the early months of 2011, impacted as far as Lapland. Following the political changes in Tunisia, that country's tourism industry took extreme measures to regain the tourism markets that had been lost. With a campaign of cheap flights and hotel packages, European (especially French) tourists opted for Tunisia for their vacations, leaving some operators in other destinations such as Lapland incapable to compete.

Host communities also have to want tourism development to occur in their region. They have to be willing to play an active role in this development, not just in the sharing of benefits. Tourists must also feel wanted and welcomed by the host communities, not only for the income they may generate, but for the dynamism they inevitably bring in a destination. Already here lays a major challenge of tourism: bringing satisfaction to both hosts and visitors, respecting one another's culture while maintaining the integrity of the natural environments at the centre of the polar tourism gaze. Understandably, building a tourism industry is no easy task for any want-to-be destination.

Although tourism has been identified by many governments and communities around the world for its potential to help boost the economy, it is, at the same time, a double-sided issue. Tourism is made of both generating and host areas, but it also includes all the services encountered in a transit zone (Leiper 1979: 397). Hence, the benefits of tourism first start in the generating area (at home), not at the destination. If tourism can indeed generate income in a host region, it also leaks an important share, most notably on the transportation of passengers and goods. More sustainable approaches to tourism have been developed in recent years to help bring more revenues to the host communities. These include equity and community-based tourism.

In short, the aim of these new approaches to tourism is to get the local actors to run and take a greater control in the tourism services and activities, rather than having them in the hands of outsiders. This way, a larger share of the income generated by tourism stays in the communities. Local control should also be more favourable for the conservation of the environment (although numerous examples from around the world have contradict this).

The notions of control and management, in tourism development, are fundamental. As mentioned above, tourism is too often perceived at the earlier stages as a “magic tool” for development. Yet, when it fails to deliver the income or jobs expected, or leaves larger-than-expected negative impacts on the culture and natural environment, tourism becomes the object of much criticism. Is it all deserved? No. Tourists are not anthropologists. They are in a dynamics of their own. Jafari (1987) refers to this dynamics as the “tourism culture.” He underlines that when individuals engage in tourism, they undergo a transformation. In other words, “the ordinary temporal, spatial, and cultural dimensions [of the tourist] are ‘distanced’ into a past, and the nonordinary of here and now become the new reality” (Jafari 1987: 153). Hence, being outside one’s domestic region allows for a relaxation of the self-discipline and respect of rules, creating a sense of “detachment, disengagement, or disconnectedness” (*ibid.*). For the visitor, the time given to travel is often first and foremost meant to rejuvenate oneself. Only after these needs are met (rejuvenation, relaxation, disengagement) can there be some deeper interest manifested for the host community. The development of any tourism destination hence requires the hosts to fully understand the dynamics of the “tourism culture.” Without this understanding, tourism is doomed to create social and cultural clashes. This example aims to underline the importance of tourism training and research. It is especially vital for new destinations such as Nunavik.

Using different case studies, this book seeks to understand how tourism can become a tool for regional development. The collection of articles presented here is the result of the coming together of a group of polar tourism researchers from around the world, who met in Nunavik – the northernmost part of Québec – to discuss polar tourism as a tool for regional development. The idea for that meeting originated in yet another event: the creation of an international network of polar tourism specialists.

■ THE INTERNATIONAL POLAR TOURISM RESEARCH NETWORK (IPTRN)

In the spring of 2007, the annual conference of the Canadian Association of Geographers held at Lakehead University was the opportunity for a group of researchers with a common interest in tourism in the polar regions to meet. Though many of us knew each other by name, not all had had the opportunity to meet (it is difficult today to remember what the world of communications was like before the Internet). For researchers studying polar regions, the distances between their academic institutions, their fields of research, and fellow researchers could be and still remain enormous. There was no virtual forum to meet or discuss common issues. Though it was not planned, the 2007 CAG annual meeting allowed half a dozen researchers (students and professors alike) to meet outside the context of the official program. The group discussed the need to have their own forum and discussions on polar tourism: a place to share concerns, advice, interests, and research projects. A mandate was given to Alain A. Grenier, who had initiated the idea, to build the network. With funding from the Université du Québec à Montréal, the International Polar Tourism Research Network / *Réseau international de recherche en tourisme polaire* was online, with its first draft for a Montreal conference within the year.

At the same time, the Kativik Regional Government, in Nunavik, had begun to fund and develop infrastructures and services for tourism development in Northern Québec. With a national park to be opened (Parc national des Pingualuit) and one hotel in construction in Kangiqsujuuaq, setting the first conference of the International Polar Tourism Research Network in Kangiqsujuuaq, Nunavik, felt natural. Networking being on its toes, the Kativik Regional Government was soon inviting the newly created International Polar Tourism Research Network to hold its first conference in Nunavik. The meeting would take place in mid-August 2008, in Kangiqsujuuaq (Figures I.8 and I.9). The remoteness of the location, and costs associated with reaching it, unfortunately prevented a larger group of participants to reach the conference's location (a working session was

FIGURE I.8

Maggie Jaaka, Qisiiq Editlouie, and Uttuqie Qisiiq perform a special Inuit tradition for the opening of the First Conference of the International Polar Tourism Research Network

Photo: Alain A. Grenier



held in Montreal on the eve of the departure with more delegates). There was however a point at bringing researchers from around the world to Kangiqsujaq, Nunavik: researchers and other participants (many of whom were geographers) would learn that in Québec, the Far North extends much further south than in the rest of the Arctic world.

Québec's North had indeed been excluded, for the most part, of the discussions on polar tourism, associated informally with the polar circles. Being located south of the Arctic Circle, Québec's Far North was in many ways "off" the polar tourism radar. In 2008, more than 16 researchers from English Canada, France, Norway, the United Kingdom, Québec, and Sweden met in Northern Québec. They were joined by consultants and delegates from the Government of Québec, who took a week to discuss (and experience) some of the most challenging issues facing the communities who choose tourism development in the circumpolar world and Antarctica.

The discussions held in Kangiqsujaq helped foster a specialized forum where the different actors involved in polar tourism can become acquainted with the research and development made in the industry around the world. Since the initial meeting in Kangiqsujaq and the founding of the International Polar Tourism Research Network, a second conference was held in 2010 in Abisko, Sweden, at the initiative of professor

FIGURE I.9



The delegates of the first conference of the International Polar Tourism Research Network (IPTRN) in session, at the community centre, in Kangiqsujuag in 2008

Photo: Alain A. Grenier

Dieter K. Müller, co-editor of this book. More conferences are also being planned (visit our website at <www.polartourismnetwork.uqam.ca for updated information>).

This book is the result of the main presentations and discussions made in Kangiqsujuag. Such a book does not claim to address all issues facing polar destinations. It is nevertheless a base for reflection. For the 2008 meeting, the theme selected – “A Tool for Regional Development” – coincided with the birth of the network and of a new destination, Kangiqsujuag, in the Nunavik.

As this book is being published, the Government of Québec has made public its *Plan Nord* – a major plan to develop its northernmost region. It is described by the government as “one of the biggest economic, social and environmental projects in our time,” adding that it will lead to over \$80 billion in investments over the next 25 years, creating or consolidating an average of 20,000 jobs a year (Gouvernement du Québec, 2011).

Tourism is one of the areas of economic activity the Québec Government wishes to develop. The Province’s Premier, Jean Charest, wants to make the North a “world class sustainable destination” (PC, 2011). While “sustainable tourism” remains to be defined in the context of a region like Nunavik located far from the markets, the challenges that lay ahead will no doubt occupy tourism developers and promoters in those communities and outside for years. With its expertise, the International Polar

Tourism Research Network (IPTRN) can bring substantial assistance to such projects. The conferences and publications put together by the IPTRN constitute a unique forum to discuss and share expertise on various initiatives brought forward to help make tourism a tool for regional development.

■ ORGANIZATION OF THE BOOK

The collection of articles in this book does not claim to provide a magic recipe as to how to build polar tourism from scratch. Using case studies from experts from around the world, the book brings however examples as to how tourism can be developed and how to face the issues that the development of tourism in culturally and environmentally sensitive areas inevitably bring.

In Chapter 1, “Polar Tourism Development: Who Benefits?,” Debra J. Enzenbacher answers a very basic but fundamental question that had never really been tackled before. Using a descriptive analysis of the potential benefits of polar tourism development in relation to tourism sectors and stakeholders, Enzenbacher attempts to address a gap in polar tourism research identified by Stewart *et al.* (2005: 389). Her focus is on human and economic benefits of polar tourism development, since they are the core driver of the industry. As she underlines, different stakeholders may have different hopes in developing tourism in the polar regions. The benefits will then raise ethical as well as practical concerns. Enzenbacher stresses that in the case of new destinations, the unknown value of the benefits and their distribution require careful management.

Having established the importance of polar tourism for a destination, I propose in Chapter 2 to focus on the concept of polar tourism itself. Indeed, the discussion surrounding polar tourism has occurred for over two decades without anyone trying to understand what the experience is about.

In parallel, the criticism of tourism raised by visitor impacts feeds another discussion on the proper management of both natural and cultural resources involved in (polar) tourism. Although management tools have been developed and implemented, the same tourism impacts remain. Hence the question: is it possible to manage the resources on which a social phenomenon is based if its fundamental concept is misunderstood? Agreeing on concepts and definitions allows for a better understanding of the phenomenon studied and makes its management more efficient. Agreeing on concepts and definitions will also help to build common models for planning and forecasts. It is the lack of common understanding that often leads to resource mismanagement.

Based on participating observations made both in the Arctic and Antarctic regions during previous studies (Grenier, 1998; 2004), field work (2010), and a review of polar tourism activities, Chapter 2, entitled “Conceptualization of Polar Tourism: Mapping an Experience in the Far Reaches of Imaginary” attempts to comprehend the real essence of polar tourism in order to outline its concept. It starts with the presentation of the geographical framework currently used to analyse polar tourism and understand its physical boundaries. After emphasizing the limits of this type of approach, the chapter demonstrates the necessity to use a complementary sociological analysis to understand the origin and motivations of polar tourism. The conceptual framework being established, it will be possible in subsequent research to define the expressions (activities) of polar tourism in order to better control touristic practices, but also to better protect resources – both natural and cultural.

Bryan S.R. Grimwood and David A. Fennell take over with a first chapter dedicated to polar tourism management. In Chapter 3, “Meditative Thinking for Polar Tourism Research and Codes of Ethics,” they introduce theoretical tools for polar tourism researchers, particularly in the context of tourism ethics. In meditatively thinking about Arctic tourism codes of conduct/ethics, the authors draw out some of the deeper meanings of human social behaviour. Grimwood and Fennell link challenges associated with Arctic tourism visitor management with elements of existentialism to point out that self-regulatory strategies may guard against the placelessness of Arctic tourism destinations. Next, they negotiate relativism, a discussion that culminates in the point that higher order moral constructs (*e.g.*, cooperation), irreducible to culture only, are fundamental to functional societies. The sociobiological theory of reciprocal altruism is used to illustrate the human nature of cooperation in tourism contexts. These meditative excavations are deemed crucial to Arctic tourism codes because they demonstrate why and how codes may service opportunities for “Successive RA” (Fennell 2006); that ethics are part of who we are as human species; and that heterogeneous ways of being exist within a shared evolutionary heritage.

Continuing on the theme of heritage, Annie d’Amours, in Chapter 4, brings us back to Nunavik for a case study on tourism and Inuit heritage. “Must We Put Dogsleds on Wheels for Tourist Season? Inuit Heritage, Tourism, and Respecting the Community in Kangiqsujaq” deals with patrimonialization, sustainable development, and ethical tourism through the study of the context of the Kangiqsujaq Interpretation Centre.

D’Amours begins by briefly presenting the history of the development of museum-type institutions in Arctic Canada. She is particularly concerned about how, in the face of change, Inuit people demonstrate

resilience in attempting to maintain, if not recover, the various aspects of their culture which are under threat, through adapting ancestral know-how to new institutions, sometimes making use of social and cultural programs – the development of modern Inuit sculpture –, economic and legislative measures put at their disposal by federal and provincial governments. In her chapter, D'Amours stresses that heritage “is indeed affected by the general trend towards cultural assertiveness and renewed recognition of culture, despite the fact that the establishment of museum institutions has been mostly based on conceptions coming from the South.” She then studies the common or divergent objectives of the various actors who will have to work together for the protection, management, and promotion of the natural and cultural heritage of the Canadian Arctic (Inuit communities, cultural organizations, regional administrations, governmental departments, etc.). She also puts emphasis on the strategies adopted by institutions to reconcile the needs of local communities (cultural assertiveness, social, economic, and touristic development) and the expectations of outsider visitors (sociocultural experience, recreational and educational activities, etc.).

As mentioned earlier, if Inuit and indigenous cultures make up one major assets of the northern regions attracting visitors, so are the vast open landscapes. Dieter K. Müller, co-editor of this publication, takes us to Swedish Lapland where the locals have also turned to tourism in the hope of stimulating their economy. In chapter 5, “Tourism Development in Europe’s ‘Last Wilderness’: An Assessment of Nature-Based Tourism in Swedish Lapland,” Müller looks at tourism development as a solution to economic decline in northern peripheries caused by economic restructuring. His chapter assesses this public vision for development with regards to its viability and applicability in a time of global change. Theoretically, the chapter departs from the concept of the pleasure periphery as a place for recreation and tourism for an inbound demand. However, global change is challenging this position in various ways: (i) the re-structuring of peripheral economies challenges the emerging pleasure periphery; (ii) climate change implies a threat to destinations at the bottom of the destination hierarchy. Empirically, Müller’s chapter presents data on supply and demand for nature-based tourism in the area. The author concludes that demand for nature-based tourism may not always be as promising as initially thought. Hence support for nature-based tourism development should be planned with more caution.

Focusing on Aboriginal tourism, Randy Kapashesit, Harvey Lemelin, Nathan Bennett, and Greg Williams make a similar observation: Aboriginal tourism initiatives in remote regions of Canada and elsewhere remain somewhat of an enigma. In Chapter 6, “The Cree Village Ecolodge: Success through Community Empowerment,” the authors examine the

history of the Cree Village Ecolodge, located in the Canadian sub-Arctic, and describe the key factors resulting in the lodge's continuity and success. The Cree Village Ecolodge was designed by the MoCreebec First Nation as a means of seeking local development and interconnecting traditional Cree values and modern technology in a state-of-the-art ecotourism facility. The results were a 1,500-m² facility opened in 2000, made up of 20 guestrooms, a commercial kitchen, and the great hall, providing a dining experience for 66 people. Sustainability, energy-efficiency, durability, and low environmental impacts were guiding elements for the selection of materials chosen for the construction and furnishings of the lodge. Owned by the MoCreebec people, this non-profit tourism enterprise also functions as a local employer, a place of healing, and a meeting place for community members and visitors. Through the application of an expanded version of Scheyven's (1999) ecotourism empowerment framework, this case study provides an illustration of how traditional philosophies and modern technologies can be incorporated into a tourism facility, and how such a facility can support community development and empowerment while providing the impetus for local and regional tourism strategies in Northern Ontario, Canada.

As demonstrated in Chapter 6, tourism can have tremendous impacts for the Aboriginals. Arvid Viken provides another example in Chapter 7, entitled "Reinventing Ethnic Identity: A Local Festival as a National Institution on a Global Scene." In this chapter, Viken focuses on identity changes related to a festival and tourism in Northern Troms, a coastal Sami area. The festival, called "Riddu Riddu," takes place every year since the early 1990s. In Viken's own words, the festival "has been central to a revitalization process concerning the Sami identity of local people." Starting from the suppression the coastal Sami experience at the hands of Norwegian politics, Viken shows how initiatives such as the Riddu Riddu festival have played a role in the fast-going revitalization process taking place in Norway.

"However," Viken writes, "such changes do not take place without controversies. Among those who have tried to revitalize the Sami identity, many have tried to avoid antagonisms. However, their efforts have provoked others, and the ethno-political discourse has continually been part of the local public agenda." Based on observations, interviews, and written accounts, Viken illustrates how a group of young people, transformed by politics, led to the creation of an Aboriginal festival and how this festival was sued as a revolt against an existing ethnic order.

Up to this point, our study of polar tourism as a tool for regional development stands most importantly from the social, cultural, and economic viewpoints. We have yet to look at the sustainable dimension,

especially as regards the management of the natural resources that are so important to polar tourism. Machiel Lamers makes this bridge. In Chapter 8, “Sustainable Tourism Development in Antarctica: Conceptualization, Perspectives, and Ways Forward,” Machiel Lamers and Bas Amelung discuss the difficulty of applying the concept of sustainable tourism in the Antarctic region, since it has no sovereign state owner nor permanent population. They underline that the characteristics of Antarctica make it a prime candidate for fleshing out a number of latent problems surrounding the concept of sustainable development. The starting point of their reflections is the number of visitors, which has more than twelve-folded in the past 15 years. Lamers and Amelung point out the types of development that would not be proper for Antarctica. Their observations can be put into perspective with Arctic regions as well: is all tourism development good for the environment? Can development be good for the people without being appropriate for the natural environment?

In this chapter, the authors explore a variety of theoretical perspectives on sustainable development and link them with the views of stakeholders. Different insights and governance strategies are presented that may contribute to a better understanding of sustainable tourism in Antarctica and steering the development in this direction.

Having literally taken a tour through case studies from both the North and the Antarctic, Hans Gelter proposes in chapter 9 another look at polar tourist experiences. In “Polar Tourist Experiences: Challenges and Possibilities for Transmodern Tourism,” Gelter contributes to the new area of polar tourism research by conceptually discussing different approaches to study tourist experiences. These frameworks are integrated with the emerging concept of transmodern tourism and its implications for the polar travel industry and future empirical research on polar tourism.

Dieter K. Müller returns for the conclusion and some final thoughts.

Such a book cannot find all the answers, neither does it pretend to. The last International Polar Year (IPY) saw many other initiatives set around tourism in both polar regions. What makes this initiative unique is that through the creation of the International Polar Tourism Research Network, a forum is slowly being established for people who share interests in the issues and problems that tourism generates in the remote communities and environments of the poles. Through this forum, all actors involved in polar tourism are invited to share ideas and experiences in order to identify and apply the best solutions to help develop a prosperous yet sustainable industry.

Throughout this book, a common theme transpires: tourism is changing forever the way the polar world is being perceived, understood, and experienced. The Arctic is not longer an empty space at the end of

geography, isolated from the rest of the world. In this global world, where individuals are increasingly interconnected, the emancipation of the people of the North has led to a geographical fragmentation of the North while at the same time creating a circumpolar region. Many of the new emerging regions of the circumpolar world, like the Nunavik, are experimenting with new powers and responsibilities.

In May 2011, 66% of the population of the Nunavik said “no” in a referendum on the formation of a Nunavik government. The strong rejection of the proposal does not mean the end of the autonomy project for Northern Québec. It is rather a cautious decision by the population who has moved so rapidly into the front seat of its management in less than a few decades. It also points out the need for this society to earn more experience and self-confidence before taking full command. For scientists, this is an excellent time to assist with the experiences that have been well documented from other Northern, Arctic, and polar regions. For tourism, this book is meant to offer a range of perspectives on how challenges can be met and solutions stakeholders implemented for the benefit of all local.

Tourism does hold promises for Nunavik. Tourism, however, can be not the only driving force, but rather one of many contributors to, a context of changes and improvement for and by the people of the North (Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal included). Nunavik as we see it today is the result of three decades of negotiations and planning. The development of tourism in Nunavik will also require time. The potential of a worthy future lays ahead.

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The creation of the Nunavik is a major step forward, both for the Province of Québec and its Inuit population. Not only does it underline the recognition of the Inuit people and their identity but it also stresses the importance of discussing some fundamental issues regarding the emancipation of the Inuit, their empowerment, the development and management of the northern resources of Québec, and the protection and conservation of the fragile Nordic ecosystems. Rich in culture and scenery, Nunavik has identified tourism as one of the main and best suited avenue for economic development. But before Nunavik can truly enjoy the benefits of a well established tourism “industry”, many challenges need to be met. The development of tourism in a new destination is not only challenging but it requires human efforts, political and economic will over a large amount of time without much guaranties as to what will work or not.

It is in this context that in August 2008, the members of the newly created International Polar Tourism Research Network (IPTRN), including researchers from around the world, came to Kangiqsujuaq, Nunavik – the northernmost part of Québec, to discuss how tourism can play a role in regional development. The collection of articles presented here is the result of the coming together of these polar tourism researchers. Such a book does not claim to address all issues facing the polar destinations. It is nevertheless a base for reflection.

Like Nunavik, many of the new emerging regions of the circumpolar world are experimenting with new powers and responsibilities. For scientists, this is an excellent time to assist with the experiences that have been well documented from other Northern, Arctic and polar regions. For the tourism industry, including officials, this book is meant to offer a range of perspectives on how challenges can be met and how solutions can be implemented for the benefit of all local interests.

ALAIN A. GRENIER is a professor of nature-based tourism and sustainable development and head of the Masters degree programme in tourism development at the Department of Urban Studies and Tourism, Université du Québec à Montréal (ESG-UQAM). He is one of the founders of the International Polar Tourism Research Network (IPTRN) and current editor of the academic journal of tourism, Téoros.

DIETER K. MÜLLER is a professor of cultural geography at the University of Umeå (Sweden). He is also a board member of International Geographical Union's Commission on Tourism, Leisure and Global Change and of the International Polar Tourism Research Network (IPTRN). Moreover he is a member of the Nordic Society for Tourism and Hospitality Research (NORTHORS).

WITH CONTRIBUTIONS FROM

BAS AMELUNG • NATHAN BENNETT • ANNIE D'AMOURS
DEBRA J. ENZENBACHER • DAVID A. FENNELL • HANS GELTER
ALAIN A. GRENIER • BRYAN S.R. GRIMWOOD • RANDY KAPASHESIT
MACHIEL LAMERS • RAYNALD HARVEY LEMELIN
DIETER K. MÜLLER • ARVID VIKEN • GREG WILLIAMS

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