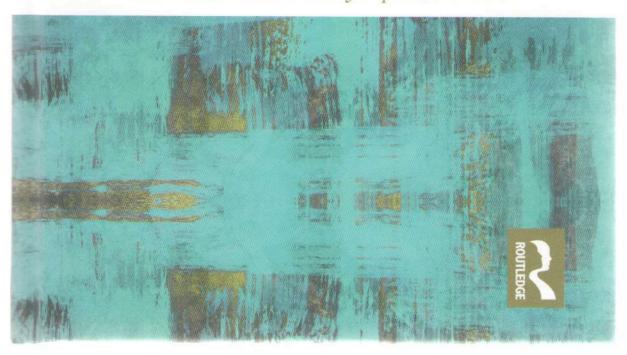


CREATING HERITAGE FOR TOURISM

Edited by Catherine Palmer and Jacqueline Tivers



Creating Heritage for Tourism

What does 'heritage' mean in the twenty-first century? Traditional ideas of heritage involve places where objects, landscapes, people and ideas are venerated and reproduced over time as an inheritance for future generations. To speak of heritage is to speak of a relationship between the past, the present and the future. However, it is a past recreated for economic gain, hence sectors such as culinary tourism, ecotourism, cultural tourism and film tourism have employed the heritage label to attract visitors.

This interdisciplinary book furthers understanding on how heritage is socially constructed, interpreted and experienced within different geographic and cultural contexts, in both Western and non-Western settings. Subjects discussed include Welsh linguistic heritage, tango, mushroom tourism, Turkish coffee, literary tourism and the techniques employed to construct tourist accommodation. By focusing upon heritage *creation* in the context of tourism, the book moves beyond traditional debates about 'authentic heritage' to focus on how something *becomes* heritage for use in the present.

This timely volume will be of interest to students and researchers in tourism, heritage studies, geography, museum studies and cultural studies.

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Edited by Catherine Palmer and Jacqueline Tivers



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The case of mycological tourism in Central Mexico

Humberto Thomé-Ortiz

Introduction

Biocultural heritage is a social-historical construction, housing the biological and cultural memory of human groups (Toledo 2012) through a legacy that contains the natural wealth and variety of languages, cultures and products (Toledo and Barrera Bassols 2008), including foods such as wild edible mushrooms. It is a collectively constructed heritage, which is fundamental to peasant economies and is transmitted from generation to generation. The gathering of wild foods is part of the cultural tradition of different social groups around the world (Cunningham 2001), enabling the survival of populations in many different regions (Fernández 2006). At the same time, the practice illustrates the processes of co-evolution between humans and nature, based on a relationship between ecological and cultural factors (Berkes et al. 2000).

Lévi-Strauss (2004) has explored the cultural role of mushrooms, following on from the work of Wasson and Wasson (1957) on social attitudes towards mushrooms. From his study are derived the notions of 'mycophilic' and 'mycophobic' peoples. His main finding is the identification of the fundamental role that mushrooms have played in civilisations. Primitive forms of worship of mushrooms, and the use of hallucinogenic mushrooms, have been identified in almost all mycophilic peoples (Lévi-Strauss 2004). According to Anna Lowenhaupt (2015), mushroom gathering today shows the persistence of pre-capitalist ways of life, alongside the importance of new activities such as tourism and the gourmet food trade. Thus, two forms of economic logic overlap, based on interactions between the global and the local.

The reasons for identifying wild edible mushrooms as an example of biocultural heritage are several, but a key aspect is their contribution to the family economy and the food security of gatherers (Mariaca et al. 2001). In addition, there are other important heritage markers: the traditional ecological knowledge developed around the mushrooms (Pacheco et al. 2015), their presence in traditional cuisines (Santiago et al. 2016) and the reproduction of mushroom gathering practices, through collective and intergenerational learning (Knight 2014).

Mycological tourism is a form of rural tourism in which nature and culture converge, based on collecting, tasting and learning about wild edible mushrooms. In the case of Spain this activity is a tool for rural development and

a regulatory mechanism for non-timber forest resources (Thomé-Ortiz 2015). Different case studies of mycological tourism throughout the world (De Castro 2009, De Frutos, Martínez and Esteban 2011, Knight 2014, Thomé-Ortiz 2015, Thomé-Ortiz 2016, Jimenez-Ruiz et al. 2016) reveal a contemporary expression of mycophilic societies, based on the reinterpretation of mushrooms as tourist capital in the context of globalisation (Beck 1998). These examples illustrate how mycological resources are constructed as biocultural heritage and are then commoditised to encourage exchanges of capital through tourism. In order to build a coherent and unified tourism experience, this type of tourism serves as a mechanism for regulating mycological resources. In the same vein as other research (Tzanelli 2013), the present case explores the dominant discourse of capitalism, through the 'cosmopolitan spirit's' view of endogenous resources. The example of mycological tourism illustrates the ability of capital to appropriate the beliefs, knowledge and practices of mushroom gatherer communities and transform them into products that can be reproduced and consumed as objects of cultural consumption.

The aim of this chapter is to identify the social, economic and environmental implications of a link between mycological tourism and biocultural heritage. Mycological tourism illustrates the penetration of capitalist logic into rural areas through the new meanings attached to mushrooms, which were traditionally a common good, a product for self-consumption and a contributor to social cohesion. The identification of mushroom heritage as a tourist product has turned them into capitalisable resources through tourism and new social dynamics have emerged around them. The study of the relationship between traditional ecological knowledge about mushrooms, on the one hand, and tourism, on the other, opens up a new heritage perspective in terms of the creation of a biocultural heritage in response to the logic of the tourist market.

The chapter begins with a discussion of ethnoecology as a framework for mycological tourism. This is followed by a consideration of the development scenarios for this tourism mode and a case study of a Matlatzinca community in central Mexico from the perspective of local mushrooms gatherers. The creation of biocultural heritage for tourism is identified through the analysis of praxis, corpus and cosmos. Finally, conclusions are presented.

Ethnoecology and biocultural heritage: towards a framework for the analysis of mycological tourism in Mexico

Mexico is considered the third country in the world in terms of biocultural wealth (Toledo, et al. 2010). It is the cradle of Mesoamerican civilisation, where 15 per cent of the species that make up the current world food system were domesticated (CONABIO 2008). This represents a historical legacy of more than 9,000 years. In countries like Mexico the use of wild edible mushrooms (even for recreational purposes) occurs within the context of traditional ecological knowledge (Berkes et al. 2000). The latter is the knowledge that a social group develops with respect to specific resources within their environment. Normally, this knowledge

is developed around a particular resource, through a linguistic code developed to name and describe aspects such as species, habitats and seasonal appearance (Ruddle 1993). According to Toledo (2001), biocultural heritage is a set of knowledge, practices and beliefs (corpus, praxis and cosmos) that express a civilising process. In the case of mushrooms, the gathering (praxis) is associated with a body of knowledge (corpus) and beliefs (cosmos), in a system where each dimension feeds back to the others (Toledo and Barrera 2008). The theoretical perspective in which the concept of biocultural heritage is framed is ethnoecology, which explores the practices of gathering wild resources within clearly identified socioecological systems (Toledo and Barrera 2008).

Many of the territories where biocultural heritage exists fall into the category of Protected Natural Areas (Boege 2008). The objective of these areas is the preservation and care of natural resources that, despite their protected status, are often linked to tourism projects (Elizondo and Lopez-Merlin 2009). Some heritage conservationists regard biocultural resources as bastions to be preserved. However, there are also debates about the interpretation, commercialisation, planning and appropriation of biocultural heritage as a potential strategy for economic development (Nuryanti 1996). A critical perspective on the reproduction of biocultural heritage as a tourism resource is needed, through the link between heritage and capitalism. This would expose social asymmetries and ambivalences in the processes of appropriation, exploitation and interpretation of biocultural heritage as a tourist resource (Tzanelli 2013).

Since biocultural heritage is dynamic and changing (Voeks and Leony 2004), its appropriation for tourism has become one of the ways in which it has adapted to the economic restructuring of the countryside. Some writers highlight the importance of traditional ecological knowledge for the development of tourism activities in rural areas (Butler and Menzies 2007, Bennett et al. 2012). Biocultural heritage is an element that certainly affects the tourism potential of rural areas (Buhalis 2000). Mycological resources, seen as tourist capital, become attractive as they respond to needs for leisure and recreation, linked to nature and culture. The fact that mushroom gathering is a way of life that is not common to most humans is what increases their interest as a tourist attraction. Productive transformations therefore express the coexistence of prevailing traditions and processes of change within a logic of continuity and rupture (Ochoa and Ladio 2015). In countries like Mexico, where mushrooms have always been linked to gatherers and their culture (Moreno and Garibay 2014), it is necessary to approach their use in tourism from an ethnoecological perspective, since the resources are also a central element in the food security and health of rural communities, particularly in the face of climate change and concomitant economic uncertainty.

Biocultural heritage is therefore a cardinal concept that inextricably merges the biological and cultural components of mycophilic communities. As such, it is an essential element in the design of any heritage tourism proposal (McKercher and Du Cross 2002). It is fundamental to start with the biocultural axiom (Nietschmann 1992), according to which the relationship between biodiversity and culture is expressed as a symbiotic and interdependent conservation process; hence the

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The recreational use of wild edible mushrooms and local development scenarios

The marginal role of wild edible mushrooms within markets in Mexico is associated with the fact that it is a resource dependent on uncontrollable variables such as climate and inter-species collaboration. The overlapping of two divergent production logics, tourism and mushroom gathering, highlights the interaction between human and nonhuman factors (Lowenhaupt 2015) and the necessity to maintain a balance between the principles of tourism planning and the gathering of an unpredictable wild product. It should, of course, be added that mushroom gathering is not always a pecuniary activity; it is often governed by the logic of exchange and self-consumption within contexts of marginalisation and poverty. This fact justifies the importance of analysing the role that tourism may play in the conservation of biocultural heritage as well as in contributing to an improvement in living conditions for the holders of this heritage (Jolliffe 2003; Jolliffe and Mohamed 2009). The tourist appropriation of the mycological resources of the indigenous peoples of Mexico demands a meticulous analysis of the concept of development on which the heritigisation of these resources, previously used exclusively for food, is built. One of the central purposes in studying the relationship between biocultural heritage and tourism is to identify whether heritage tourism may be a tool for rural development (Butler and Menzies 2007), or whether it simply reflects a process of capitalist appropriation of local resources, previously the exclusive domain of indigenous communities.

Mycological tourism in Mexico illustrates the social construction of biocultural heritage, created (ex profeso) and recreated (ex novo) to meet the demands of new market niches. In turn, the biocultural meanings of mushrooms show ruptures and continuities between the implications they have for the daily lives of gatherers and the expectations of tourists. The logic of gathering for subsistence overlaps the logic of cultural consumption and entertainment, through the fact that some species of mushrooms have become a 'culturally colorful global commodity' (Lowenhaupt 2015: 40) while, at the same time, a high valuation has been accorded to natural landscapes of exceptional beauty where the mushrooms are collected.

A consideration of the relationship between tourism and mycological culture makes it possible to identify a set of emerging links between capitalist enterprise, agriculture, forestry, anthropology, ethnoecology, and the production of scientific knowledge and, more broadly, between wild edible mushrooms and post-consumer societies (Choy et al. 2009). Thus the study of mycological tourism affords a view of the relationships between culture, natural resources and people, which are central to debates on the use of strategic resources for food and ecological purposes. It also highlights local-global connections, in particular the question of whether it is possible to preserve biocultural heritage within the logic of capitalism (Anderson 2015).



Figure 19.1 Mushroom gathering

An interest in wild foods is not considered to contradict a philosophical and material focus on intensive agriculture (Verinis and Williams 2016), since in situations of crisis (material, spiritual or philosophical) human beings have often returned to gathering as a survival resource (Lowenhaupt 2105). Today, the recreational gathering of wild edible mushrooms has different meanings, but they converge in the pressing need for a reconnection with nature experienced by urban societies. The design of recreational activities related to mycological culture may fulfil several objectives beyond the generation of economic income, such as environmental education or the dissemination of mycological culture. The development of mycological tourism implies that the gatherers develop new knowledge, techniques and ways of organising their work, since the revaluation of wild edible mushrooms and their gatherers constitutes a particular perspective on rural life. The original meanings of gathering mushrooms must be reinterpreted in order to connect rural life and the capitalist world.

Because the use of wild edible mushrooms in Mexico is closely linked to specific ethnic groups and their traditional ecological knowledge, the present work adopts an ethnomethodological perspective, with particular emphasis on ethnomicology. To this end, a qualitative case study was developed (Stake 2000), where the aim was to identify the relationships between biocultural heritage and mycological tourism. The ethnographic method was useful in understanding how biocultural heritage, and its meanings, are transformed through being a structural component of tourism, which is itself a defining practice of contemporary life (Palmer 2009).

The case of mycological tourism in a Matlatzinca community in Central Mexico

San Francisco Oxtotilpan is a community belonging to the municipality of Temascaltepec in the State of Mexico, located at a height of 2,634m above sea level. It has a population of 1,435 inhabitants of which 671 are men and 764 are women (INEGI 2010). In this community live the last descendants of the Matlatzinca ethnic group, whose culture formed the foundation of the civilisation established in the Valley of Toluca (Central Mexico). This ethnic group was evangelised in the seventeenth century by Franciscan missionaries (García 2004). The climate here is temperate subhumid, with rains in summer and an average annual temperature of 15 degrees Celsius. The main ecosystem is abbies religiosa forest, which is the type of vegetation with the highest productivity and concentration of wild edible mushrooms in central Mexico (Burrola et al. 2013). The favourable environmental conditions for the production of these mushrooms, combined with an ethnic group that has maintained a continuous occupation of the territory since the twelfth century, have resulted in the establishment of a strong mycological culture in the area (García 2004).

Two types of land tenure predominate in the community: ejido and communal lands. The territory extends to 1,516.14 hectares, distributed among 178 owners. The community lies within the Area of Protection of Flora and Fauna of the Volcano Nevado de Toluca; consequently there are restrictions on forestry and agriculture, including animal husbandry. For this reason tourism has been actively promoted as a local development strategy, compatible with the objectives of conservation. In 2014, the Alternative Tourism Program in Indigenous Areas of the National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples invested in the construction of a complex of cabins and a restaurant to promote the development of tourism in the territory (Thomé-Ortiz 2016). However, this infrastructure

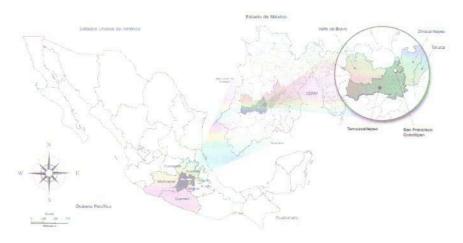


Figure 19.2 Location of San Francisco Oxtotilpan, Central Mexico

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has been under-utilised, being limited to the provision of occasional accommodation and food services, due to the lack of a comprehensive tourism strategy. The community has therefore sought alternative product-based strategies, related to endogenous resources. One of the proposed activities, mycological tourism, is a unique enterprise, taking advantage of the tourist market of the Metropolitan Zone of Mexico City, the fourth largest metropolis in the world (Ward 1998).

The case study addressed the perspective of 22 gatherers with extensive knowledge about the identification, gathering and/or preparation of mushrooms. They all belonged to the Matlatzinca ethnic group. The informants were selected using a non-probabilistic snowball technique (Goodman 1961). The saturation criterion was used, so that the number of informants was increased to the point where the incorporation of new data did not provide a significant increase in new knowledge (Eisendhardt and Graebner 2007). The aspects covered during the interviews were the social construction of wild edible mushrooms as a biocultural heritage and the perceptions of the gatherers regarding various uses of these mushrooms, including for tourism.

The praxis, corpus and cosmos of wild edible mushrooms: ruptures and continuities between tourism and biocultural heritage

Praxis

Mushroom gathering is an activity that takes place in Matlatzinca families, particularly those that live in mountain and hillside areas. Many previous studies have investigated both the regulation that mushrooms provide to the ecosystem and the food supply generated by these resources in the rainy season. However, there are few studies that consider the cultural importance of mushrooms (Millenium Ecosystem Assessment Synthesis Report 2005). For the Matlatzinca people, as for others (Knight 2014), mushroom gathering is a recreational practice as well as a source of food. It may take place alongside agricultural, forestry or livestock activities, when the advantage is seized to take some mushrooms home to eat. Alternatively, the people may make long excursions (of up to two days) with the sole purpose of gathering diverse species.

Wild edible mushrooms are part of the food landscape and culinary taste of the Matlatzincas, so the predominant use of them is for food, as evidenced by the 15 typical dishes based on mushrooms that were identified during the research. Due to the seasonal and temporary nature of the resource, it is common practice for the species that are most prized to be dried for storage and used throughout the year. According to Garibay and Ruan (2014), mushrooms make an important economic contribution to the gathering families; in the case of the Matlatzincas, however, this resource is a good of consumption and exchange as there is no sale of mushrooms in the community or in the markets of nearby cities. Recently, small mycological tourism trips have been developed as a new practice to generate income for the gatherers, but insufficient time has passed for the risks and



Figure 19.3 Preparation of mushroom soup in a traditional matlatzinca kitchen

opportunities presented by such tourism to be analysed fully. The incorporation of mycological tourism, however, generates a potential gap between the current and the traditional uses of mushrooms. The initiative lies outside the community, representing one aspect of the global trend for productive restructuring of the countryside (Woods 2007), which serves as the starting point for the commercial and touristic uses of certain species of mushrooms.

One of the reasons for promoting mycological tourism is the lack of ability to generate value around mushroom gathering, which barely reaches minimum subsistence level for the forager families. This lack of economic value also influences the abandonment of the activity by the young, leading to a loss of knowledge associated with mushroom gathering. It is believed that adding value to mushroom gathering through new practices will encourage the preservation of this biocultural heritage (Anderson 2015, Lowenhaupt 2015, Verinis 2016).

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The Matlatzincas have developed a complex system of knowledge about 25 species of wild edible mushrooms. This includes aspects such as a traditional nomenclature (referring to the morphological characteristics of the species, the ecosystems where mushrooms grow and the plant species within those ecosystems) and the location, uses, identification and abundance of mushrooms (Pacheco et al. 2015). These aspects are fundamental both to traditional gathering practices and to new activities such as tourism. The knowledge is restricted to small local groups, is transmitted from generation to generation, and comprises a form of



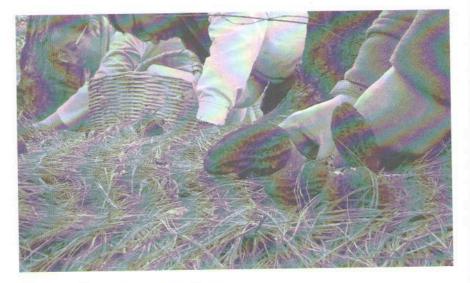


Figure 19.4 Morel gathering in the forest

cultural capital (Bourdieu 2001), acquired through the investment of time by gatherers; in no sense should mushroom gathering be considered an easy activity or one suitable for the uninitiated. Practices and knowledge are interdependent. For the continuity of gathering practices it is necessary to have a traditional ecological knowledge base, while this knowledge can only be kept alive to the extent that it is reproduced through the practices. A characteristic of this type of knowledge is that it is dynamic (Ramírez et al. 2014), which allows it to adapt to the demands of globalisation. In this case, the local knowledge can be used to develop species identification guides, to design mycological trails, to promote good gathering practices and to provide guidelines for the interpretation of mycological resources and a mushroom based cuisine.

Cosmos

The set of beliefs built around the mushrooms has a close relationship with the personal identity of the gatherers and the tourists. Many of the collected histories about mushrooms are derived from memories of Matlatzinca gatherers. There is an important relationship between the availability, abundance, distribution and quality of the mushrooms and the ways in which Matlatzincas identify the state of health of the environment; for example, a good harvest means that it was a year of good rains. Mushrooms are perceived as living beings, closely related to the land and the trees, which gives them an important place within the hierarchy of ingredients that make up traditional Matlatzinca cuisine. It is important to emphasise that the perceptions, evaluations and beliefs of the collectors about the land as a supplier of mushrooms and about the value of mushrooms as special foods, their relationship with the health of the environment and their connection with local identity, are fundamental aspects in the maintenance of the traditional practices of gathering as well as in the construction of new cultural and economic uses like tourism.

The persistence of such biocultural memory expresses the validity of the relational worldview that characterises rural communities. Certainly, this belief base should be an important reference point for tourist practices that seek to meet spiritual needs through animistic visions of nature, which may have the potential to bring added meaning to the lives of tourists (Willson et al. 2013, Sharpley and Jepson 2011). On the other hand, mycological tourism collects together those people for whom mushrooms do have a very personal meaning, evoking emotions and memories, with those for whom they are only a food product. The practice of gathering is always viewed through the individual personal experience of tourists, being a postmodern act of mycophilia for people whose only chance of having contact with the mushroom world is through tourism (Knight 2014).

Conclusion

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Biocultural heritage, based on biocultural wealth and associated knowledge, may be actively created and recreated for tourism purposes. This paper contributes to the discussion by documenting the ways in which biocultural heritage acts as a substantive input to the productive restructuring of the countryside in the context of cultural globalisation. The case study, investigated here, illustrates both the logic of capitalist appropriation of the endogenous resources of rural spaces and the processes of ambivalent change that variously induce both rupture and continuity in tradition and innovation. The tourist appropriation of the practices, knowledge and beliefs related to mushroom gathering reveals that tourism may lead to a transformation of the traditional practices, but also that the latter remain clearly based on local knowledge and beliefs about the mushrooms. Mycological tourism may therefore represent an opportunity for economic benefits (such as value added, job creation and productive diversification) while also maintaining the ancestral occupation of the gatherers. At the same time it involves risks, such as generating new social tensions around mushrooms, the potential trivialisation of mycological culture and the fragmentation of the forest. Despite this ambivalence, it is important to investigate whether mycological tourism can serve as a resilience strategy to preserve the cultural practices and wisdom needed to cope with the economic and cultural pressures faced by indigenous communities.

In a country like Mexico where there is significant biocultural wealth, the design of conservation and rural development policies requires a careful examination of the deep historical relationship between nature and culture. It is essential that tourism initiatives take into account the importance of the simultaneous preservation of natural resources and the cultural expressions that have given rise to the knowledge and sustainable use of these resources. The present study was limited to considering the perspective of mushroom gatherers concerning the creation of a biocultural heritage focused on tourism. Being limited also to one case study, the possibility of finding connections, perspectives and relationships between categories of analysis was smaller than if multi-sited ethnographic techniques had been developed (Palmer 2005). In future research it would be important to incorporate the vision of other social, institutional and economic actors, who play relevant roles in the co-production of biocultural heritage as a tourist resource, as well as to make comparisons with other cases presenting similar conditions.

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