3. Tourism in protected areas

3.1 Trends affecting the planning of tourism and protected areas

Planning is a process that involves selecting a desirable future out of a range of plausible alternatives, and implementing strategies and actions that will achieve the desired outcome. Thus, by definition, planning moves us from the present to the future. It is critical therefore that planners and tourism operatives understand social, political and economic trends, as these form the context for planning. Such understanding provides opportunities to capitalise on emerging markets, develop actions that are more efficient and effective, and ensure that strategies and actions can be adapted to changing conditions. Since the world is more dynamic than static, park planners and tourism operators need to understand how dynamic change, often non-linear in character, may affect their plans and aspirations.

The growth of interest in sustainable tourism and ecotourism reflects a rising tide of social concern about the quality of the natural environment and the effects of tourism. Activities closely associated with experiencing natural environments are very popular (Tourism Canada, 1995).

Sabi Sabi Private Game Reserve, South Africa

Conservation and ecotourism are effective partners in South Africa, both in national parks and private nature reserves. ©Paul F. J. Eagles
Some trends complement each other. Some operate at the global level, some at the local level. Many represent collisions in powerful, but countervailing values and attitudes. Thus, while the trends briefly discussed below are presented independently, one can expect them to interact in various ways, often with unanticipated consequences.

3.1.1 Rising educational levels and demand for travel

The average level of formal educational attainment is rising globally, for both males and females. Literacy is increasing too, particularly in less developed countries. Higher education levels are strongly correlated with demand for outdoor recreation activities, and lead to changes in the patterns of recreation and tourism.

As a result, there is a general trend towards appreciative activities, with more travellers seeking life-enriching travel experiences. There is growth in general interest tourism that involves learning-while-travelling (e.g. guided tours), in specific learning travel programmes (e.g. group educational tours), and generally in learning activities, such as wildlife viewing, attending festivals, cultural appreciation and nature study. The natural and cultural resources found in protected areas, lend themselves to such forms of tourism. And thus the groups most interested in visiting protected areas, such as eco-tourists, tend to be more highly educated than tourists in general (Wight, 2001).

Tourism of this kind requires explanatory materials (e.g. guides, booklets), interpretive facilities (e.g. in visitor centres) and interpretive guiding (e.g. ecotours). It increases the expectations of service quality in protected areas, and raises political pressure for greater protection of cultural and natural heritage. It can also help generate a greater personal commitment to park protection – something that protected area managers should foster and tap into.

3.1.2 Ageing population

Advances in health care mean that people are living longer. Over the last century, there has been a significant increase in the proportion of people over the age of 60 (6.9% in 1900, 8.1% in 1950, 10.0% in 2000). This proportion is expected to increase even more dramatically over the next century. UN predictions are for 22.1% of the global population to be over 60 in 2050, and 28.1% in 2100. “By mid-century, many industrial countries will have median ages of 50 or higher, including Spain (55.2), Italy (54.1), Japan (53.1), and Germany (50.9)” (Center for Strategic and International Studies, 2002). Therefore the proportion of the population which is available to visit protected areas will have an increasingly elderly profile in the future (Figure 3.1).

Older individuals are staying healthier longer. Although physical capacity decreases with age, older people are increasingly able to lead healthy, physically active lives. So, while the demand for such activities as downhill skiing or mountain climbing decreases with age, elderly people maintain, or even extend, their interest in other outdoor activities, such as walking, nature study, fly-fishing or wildlife observation. Or again, a reduced demand for camping is offset by a greater demand for more comfortable lodge accommodation.

In wealthy countries, the ageing population, early retirement and good savings create large numbers of able-bodied senior citizens with strong inclination to travel. The recreation vehicle industry in the US sells over US $6 billion worth of new vehicles each
3. Tourism in protected areas

3.1.3 Changing roles of women

In many countries, there has been a revolution in the role of women, and the process continues. More and more, men and women are adopting each other’s characteristic role in the workplace and in the household. Women are becoming more prominent, even numerically dominant, in the paid workforce. Often their earnings are increasing more rapidly than those of men; and they make a greater demand for recreation and tourism opportunities. Indeed, it is often women who determine the choice of travel destination.

There are differences between the interests of men and women at the individual activity level. While there are, of course, many exceptions, men tend to be more interested in physically challenging activities, and women tend to be interested in more appreciative activities, such as nature and culture studies and ecotourism. Many women are interested in protected area recreation opportunities. Also, women are increasingly drawn to protected area and tourism management as a career. In many countries, they are moving into key positions in the development of economic, social, environmental and protected area policy.

It is important for protected area managers to understand that the role of women in park travel is strongly influenced by their life stage. Thus single, young women are not year, much of it purchased by retirees. This kind of travel is expected to grow in North America, Europe and Australia in the coming decades of this new century.

Older visitors present some challenges for protected area planning and management. For example, there will be a need for more accessible toilets and for trails with lesser gradients; also for greater provision for people with disabilities. On the other hand, older visitors represent an opportunity. They tend to be more interested in the kinds of experience offered by protected areas, have more disposable income, and are thus more willing to pay for higher levels of interpretation, guiding and other services. Park managers must develop an understanding of the needs of this older population, or risk losing the involvement and support of an influential group.

Figure 3.1 Three centuries of world population ageing

Source: Long-range World Population Projections: Based on the 1998 Revision. The Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations Secretariat.
generally strong users of protected areas, but women with young children often choose parks as good places for child-centred leisure. Middle aged women often find work and family responsibilities very challenging, leaving them little time for park visitation, an activity requiring planning and considerable time commitment. Older, retired women, especially those travelling with their partners, show strong interest in the activities which involve visiting protected areas.

3.1.4 Changes in the distribution of leisure time

There are important and sometimes conflicting trends in the amounts, distribution and availability of leisure time, a very complex area to understand. For many people, leisure time is increasing due to a shorter working week, increases in the automation of housework and other factors. Yet leisure time is decreasing for others; for example working women who retain household responsibilities. Growth in single parent family numbers increases the leisure time of the absent parent, yet reduces that of the responsible parent. Often young people need to work to support their education, or expand their purchasing power, so they have less leisure time.

Of relevance to park visitation is the re-apportionment of time for vacations. In North America, there tend to be more frequent, shorter vacations, closer to home, rather than two or three week family vacations: short, fast trips (particularly 2 to 4 day weekend trips) now account for 80% of vacation travel in the USA. Therefore many parks now need to allow for short visits by tourists with limited time, which calls for higher quality

Pog Lake and Campground in Algonquin Provincial Park, Ontario, Canada.

This attractive lake is located within a high use car campground. Careful design, effective management and respectful park visitors ensure that the environmental quality of the lake and the surrounding forest remains high. ©Paul F. J. Eagles
service, and specialized recreation opportunities. In much of Europe, by contrast, leisure time involves longer paid vacations and shorter working weeks. For example, Germany introduced a 6-week holiday with pay in the 1990s (Tiegland, 2000); and France has adopted a statutory 35-hour week. As a result, European countries, and those of the EU especially, are very important generators of park visitation all over the world. In some of the emerging economies of East Asia, notably China, the advent of paid holidays and greater freedom to travel are creating a fast growing mass market for tourism; as these new tourists become more discriminating, a significant proportion of them are likely to be drawn to protected areas.

3.1.5 Importance of service quality

Tourists are increasingly demanding high quality recreational opportunities and the services that support them. Those who receive quality service during their normal working week expect to be offered this by their leisure providers as well. They expect guides to be knowledgeable and good communicators. They want their hosts to make them feel welcome, comfortable and part of the communities they visit. Increased ecotourism means greater demand for specialised recreation and accommodation, all with a focus on quality. Most park agencies do not have service quality goals, or monitoring programmes, making their programmes appear unresponsive and primitive.

Protected area managers and the private sector need to deliver quality visitor services. The challenges for managers include ensuring they have service quality goals, programmes to deliver high quality service and monitoring programmes in place. Importantly these sophisticated consumers recognise quality service and are willing to pay handsomely for it.

3.1.6 Changing leisure patterns

At first sight, one might expect gains in leisure time to occur in all countries that experience economic development, increased income, ageing populations and the shifting roles of men and women. However, the experience of the more developed countries suggests that in fact some significant losses in leisure time may occur during the working period of life, particularly among white-collar occupations with very high workloads. But, by contrast, there are big increases in leisure time due to earlier retirement and longer life spans. Older, retired people are also able to travel for longer periods each year. Rising incomes in North America, Europe, Australia and some parts of Asia in particular are driving up the volume of domestic tourism, and of outbound traffic from these countries. If this continues, there is likely to be a further general increase in recreation pressures upon all protected areas, even remote ones, and of demands for higher quality service.

3.1.7 Advances in global communications and information technology

Among wealthier societies at any rate, many people are now getting access to a huge volume of information on protected areas and travel options through the Internet and other communication technologies. The Internet leads to increased demand for trips to a wider variety of locations, and enables park agencies to provide current, sophisticated information directly to visitors, at very low cost. Since images on the Internet can create expectations about a particular protected area, protected area managers and tourism...
operators need to be aware of what is being communicated, and to be ready to meet the expectations that have been raised.

These new technologies enable visitors to be well informed about everything, from management policies to the recreation experience. As a result, visitors may be more likely to support protected area policy. However, many protected area agencies, especially those in the developing world, are not yet able to maintain sophisticated Internet web sites. Instead, private interests, such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), hotel and lodge providers, and tourism companies, provide most of the Internet information. This is particularly so in much of Eastern and Southern Africa, and in South America. When this happens, the protected area agency has little control over the accuracy of information, and cannot influence the kinds of visitor expectations that may be created. Nor can it build support for park management objectives.

Technology may have far-reaching consequences. For example, local hotels, resorts and so forth can cross-market their web sites with those of nearby protected areas, and so increase the number of short visits by business travellers. Private ecotourism resorts can utilise real time web cam experiences (e.g. of wildlife dramas) to draw visitors from around the world. And visitors themselves can help promote awareness of protected areas by providing web cam information about the park to the world while experiencing the park.

There may also be threats from the new technologies. For example, some lobby groups have designed web sites to look exactly like those of a protected area agency, and thus provide potential visitors with false management perspectives. Also park visitors could have access to sophisticated databases in the field, in real time, connected to geo-referenced mapping. This will give them immediate, accurate information on wildlife locations and distributions, along with maps and photos. They may have more information at their disposal than the local park manager has! This could put the manager at a disadvantage in controlling visitor behaviour. The long-term implications of the advances in global communication and information technology are profound and mostly unknown.

3.1.8 Proliferation of travel options

As the world’s fleets of passenger aircraft and cruise ships expand, visitors can travel more efficiently, quickly and further afield. International travel has been growing rapidly in the last few decades (Figure 3.2 shows growth since 1980, and forecast growth to 2020).

The WTO predicts that international travel will grow at the rate of 4.1% annually between now and the year 2020, mostly from North America, Europe and East Asia (WTO, 1997). While this trend is likely to continue, it will be affected by such factors as the health of the global economy, security fears due to terrorist activities and regional instability, and the
extremes of global climate change. Ultimately, the availability and cost of fuel oil will be an important limitation on long-term travel growth.

The proliferation of long-haul air travel has revolutionised global park visitation, with people seeking out World Heritage Sites, national parks and other protected areas. Indeed, the very existence of a protected area, particularly of a national park, is often a lure for tourists. This trend will continue and in general protected area managers should prepare for more visitors from around the globe. While they will present a challenge in terms of language, culture or knowledge and preconceptions of the protected area, they also represent a good source of income, employment, and a means to convey cultural and ecological values to a wider world.

Cruise ship travel can be particularly problematic. Because large cruise ships carry so many people, they can cause huge environmental and social impacts very quickly. For example, large numbers of people, many of whom are poorly prepared for a marine park experience, can overwhelm a marine protected area. The threats of cultural and ecological damage are very high if there are insufficient management resources. However, in some locations where smaller, expedition-type cruises visit and are expected (e.g. in Arctic Canada), protected area managers actually prefer cruise visitors, since staff can prepare to meet and guide the visitors, who come in manageable group sizes. These cruise ship visitors make fewer demands for onshore facilities, thereby reducing the ecological footprint of tourism infrastructure.

3.1.9 Personal security and safety

More than any other factor, threats to personal security and safety adversely affect tourism demand. The fear of terrorism can affect global travel trends. When regional wars, rebellions and terrorism occur, domestic and international travel falls, and fewer tourists visit protected areas. The effects are felt most in developing countries, where international visitors are often a significant proportion of all visitors. A sense of personal security is also affected by the prevalence of violent crime, petty theft, water quality, disease or bad sanitation.

Dramatic differences exist between countries in their ability to provide acceptable levels of security and safety. This is especially relevant to tourism, since people planning their trips will often compare destinations with such factors in mind. Once a destination achieves a negative reputation, it is very difficult to rebuild visitor confidence; and such negative perceptions of a country will also affect the appeal of its protected areas. Violent attacks on tourists themselves, as have recently taken place in Egypt and Uganda for example, can set back tourism by many years. Leisure travel is a luxury good, people have a wide range of opportunities and they will not travel to areas perceived as unsafe.

Indeed, the perception of safety is nearly as important as the reality. Many protected areas have been badly affected by unrealistic security concerns created by misleading media reports and poor geographical knowledge of potential consumers. Managers must expect some naïve visitors who are not prepared for the dangers that occur in many natural environments.

Protected area managers should be aware of safety expectations of visitors, explain the local situation to potential visitors, and respond to visitor safety demands. If possible, protected area managers need to have security management plans in place, including a public relations component. It is important both to take security seriously and to tell
people exactly what the situation is. Failure to do so can lead to complicated and expensive results, since it is becoming more common for park visitors to take legal action against park management for safety-related injury, or damage to personal property.

3.1.10 Increasing social and environmental concerns

Across the globe, people express concern about social injustices and environmental problems. They are increasingly aware of the need for low impact tourism which does not harm the environment. They tend to want to support local conservation or community development initiatives. They are themselves moving from consumptive to less consumptive activities, often adopting “green consumer” life styles. The growth of interest in sustainable tourism and ecotourism is a response to such concerns. Protected areas are well placed to take advantage of this trend as they embody the values that such travellers hold.

Some tourists are “voting with their feet”. They are attracted to destinations that have a positive reputation, and are actively avoiding destinations that have social or environmental problems. There are also international schemes for recognising the adoption of high environmental standards in tourism provision, such as the Green Globe 21 scheme (Box 3.1). Green Globe has recently joined with the Ecotourism Association of Australia to develop a new programme aimed at ecotourism, an activity that could provide important opportunities for park tourism managers. It is thus doubly important that managers work to preserve protected area values, seek high standards from their tourism

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**Box 3.1 Green Globe 21: an industry accreditation scheme to promote and market environmentally sound tourism**

Under the Green Globe accreditation scheme, companies, communities, suppliers, professionals etc. can graduate through three categories to obtain higher levels of recognition for the sustainability of their operations, which they can then use for marketing purposes:

**A: Affiliates.** Affiliated companies etc. are those who wish to gain a foothold in sustainable tourism and access a whole range of support and information sources in order to be officially recognised as environmentally sound, and to support and spread eco-conscious values.

**B: Benchmarking.** Benchmarking companies and communities are on the second step of the pathway towards sustainable travel and tourism. They have access to the Green Globe 21 web site which provides them with information on benchmarking. They receive a sustainability assessment and are assisted in their progress towards the next step.

**C: Certifying.** Certified companies and communities have travelled further along the Green Globe 21 path to sustainable travel and tourism. Certified members have their performance independently assessed and audited. Audits take place regularly to ensure that performance levels are maintained or improved.

partners, and so help ensure that the appeal of the area to visitors is maintained. Thus a high quality resource can sustain high quality tourism, thereby making, in effect, a virtuous circle.

3.1.11 Globalisation of the economy

In a globalised economy, individual countries and communities are influenced by decisions and economic conditions elsewhere. Thus political or corporate decisions in origin countries can influence overseas travel, which may in turn affect the viability of protected area tourism a continent away. This linkage between origin and destination communities makes achieving sustainable tourism difficult, since the host country often has a limited ability to influence tourist trends; it also leads to competition between destinations. However, protected area managers can take advantage of this global context through clever marketing, using the Internet and by promoting the distinctive niche which they offer as a tourist destination. To do this, protected area agencies should have knowledge of global tourism trends, so as to position themselves, develop the right messages, and respond through appropriate management measures.

3.2 Growth and diversification of market niches

3.2.1 Ecotourism and nature-based tourism

The number of people taking part in many outdoor activities is growing, especially in hiking, cycling and water-based activities such as sea kayaking or scuba diving. There has also been a huge growth in ‘soft’ adventure and ecotourism or nature-tourism types of trips. ‘Soft’ activities are those where a more casual, less dedicated approach is taken to the activity or natural attraction, and a desire to experience it with some basic degree of comfort; whereas ‘hard’ adventure or ecotourism involves specialist interest or dedicated activity, and a willingness to experience the outdoors or wilderness with few comforts. The tourism industry has responded to this range of interests by developing many types of niche market packages.

Protected areas are very attractive settings for the growing demand for outdoor, appreciative activities in natural environments. Challenges for protected area managers are to ensure that while visitors have opportunities to participate in desired activities, they are aware of and maintain the values. Opportunities are to tap into such market demand, through target market programming, perhaps in collaboration with the private sector, both to increase attractiveness as a destination, and manage the visitors appropriately.

3.2.2 Protected area visitors comprise many market segments

There is no such thing as the “average protected area visitor”. In reality, markets comprise many segments, each of which has somewhat different characteristics, expectations, activity participation and spending patterns. Marketing exploits these visitor segments by comparing and matching them with the biophysical and cultural attributes of the park, and then sensitively promoting appropriate protected area attributes to the targeted segment. This reduces adverse impacts on the protected area, increases the economic benefits and makes it more likely that visitors are satisfied.
Ways to segment visitors include:

1) **By socio-demographic characteristics** (e.g. variables such as age, sex, occupation, origins, income level, ethnic association, religion, level of education or class): Thus, one segment might be those under 30, while another might be visitors of 65 and older. These segments would be expected to have different characteristics and activity participation.

2) **By geographic characteristics** (e.g. origins, distance from sites and modes of transport): Thus one market may be local visitors, whereas another might be international travellers.

3) **By “psychographic” segments**: Thus, one segment might be considered “escapers” who look for adventure, and getting away from it all, while another might be considered “green” and actively seeking environmentally-sensitive products and services.

4) **By activity participation**: Thus, one segment might be “tent campers” while another might be “wildlife viewers”. This method is easy, because the segments are easily identifiable. However, it should be noted that one visitor might engage in a number of activities. Each segment has different expectations of what they desire from an area.

5) **By frequency of participation**: Thus, one segment may be “frequent travellers” or “repeat visitors”; another “first-time visitors”. Frequent travellers and repeat visitors usually have more informed expectations of the protected area, and may have more involvement and care more about it.

6) **By perceived product benefits**: Thus, one segment might expect to benefit from a challenging environment (e.g. through river floating or mountain climbing), while others might expect to learn about nature. Some might wish to socialise with friends or family, while others might simply expect to enjoy natural beauty. Segments can be identified by the product characteristics they prefer.

The value of segmentation is that it can predict behaviour, and thus help managers to plan for this behaviour. Segmentation by perceived product benefit can be used to develop an understanding of what tourists really seek in a visit to a protected area, and so establish an appropriate management response. In this way, visitors will gain greater satisfaction from the products and services offered.

Sophisticated research capabilities and procedures are normally required to understand the market in this way. Hall and McArthur (1998) point out that the behaviour of various market segments is best understood when inferred variables (rather than objective variables) are used. Inferred variables are obtained by directly questioning samples of a population (e.g. of visitors) about such things as motivations, expectations and attitudes. For protected area managers without sophisticated research capabilities, the best approach would be a combination of sample surveys and observing how services and facilities are used.

Different kinds of visitors tend to be attracted to various types of protected areas. For example, Lawton (2001) analysed this for each of the various IUCN categories of protected area (see Table 2.1). She groups tourism visitation into “ecotourism” and “other” types of visitation, and considers whether eco-visitors are ‘soft’ or ‘hard’. Table 3.1 shows these types of visitors in relation to the IUCN categories of protected areas.
While not all visitors to protected area categories I–IV are in fact eco-tourists, in the absence of hard data and survey research this model of market segments can be helpful in planning to match tourist strategies to protected area types.

3.3 Potential benefits of tourism in protected areas

Tourism in protected areas produces benefits and costs. These effects interact often in complex ways. It is the responsibility of the protected area planner to maximise benefits while minimising costs. While this document does not provide a detailed analysis of all tourism impacts, the following sections identify the main costs and benefits.

Protected areas are established primarily to preserve some type of biophysical process or condition such as a wildlife population, habitat, natural landscape, or cultural heritage such as a community’s cultural tradition (Table 2.2). Tourists visit these protected areas to understand and appreciate the values for which the area was established and to gain personal benefits.

Tourism planning and development aims to take advantage of the interest shown by tourists so as to: enhance economic opportunities, protect the natural and cultural heritage, and advance the quality of life of all concerned. These goals are expanded upon in Table 3.2 and briefly described below.

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Table 3.1 Compatibility/suitability of forms of tourism with IUCN’s Protected Area Management Categories (after Lawton, 2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IUCN protected area category (see Table 2.1)</th>
<th>Hard ecotourism (see para. 3.2.1)</th>
<th>Soft ecotourism (see para. 3.2.1)</th>
<th>Other forms of tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ia</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ib</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
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<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


While not all visitors to protected area categories I–IV are in fact eco-tourists, in the absence of hard data and survey research this model of market segments can be helpful in planning to match tourist strategies to protected area types.
### Table 3.2 Potential benefits of tourism in protected areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enhancing economic opportunity</strong></td>
<td>- Increases jobs for local residents&lt;br&gt;- Increases income&lt;br&gt;- Stimulates new tourism enterprises, and stimulates and diversifies the local economy&lt;br&gt;- Encourages local manufacture of goods&lt;br&gt;- Obtains new markets and foreign exchange&lt;br&gt;- Improves living standards&lt;br&gt;- Generates local tax revenues&lt;br&gt;- Enables employees to learn new skills&lt;br&gt;- Increases funding for protected areas and local communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Protecting natural and cultural heritage</strong></td>
<td>- Protects ecological processes and watersheds&lt;br&gt;- Conserves biodiversity (including genes, species and ecosystems)&lt;br&gt;- Protects, conserves and values cultural and built heritage resources&lt;br&gt;- Creates economic value and protects resources which otherwise have no perceived value to residents, or represent a cost rather than a benefit&lt;br&gt;- Transmits conservation values, through education and interpretation&lt;br&gt;- Helps to communicate and interpret the values of natural and built heritage and of cultural inheritance to visitors and residents of visited areas, thus building a new generation of responsible consumers&lt;br&gt;- Supports research and development of good environmental practices and management systems to influence the operation of travel and tourism businesses, as well as visitor behaviour at destinations&lt;br&gt;- Improves local facilities, transportation and communications&lt;br&gt;- Supports environmental education for visitors and locals&lt;br&gt;- Establishes attractive environments for destinations, for residents as much as visitors, which may support other compatible new activities, from fishing to service or product-based industries&lt;br&gt;- Improves intercultural understanding&lt;br&gt;- Encourages the development of culture, crafts and the arts&lt;br&gt;- Increases the education level of local people&lt;br&gt;- Encourages people to learn the languages and cultures of foreign tourists&lt;br&gt;- Encourages local people to value their local culture and environments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enhancing quality of life</strong></td>
<td>- Promotes aesthetic, spiritual, and other values related to well-being&lt;br&gt;- Supports environmental education for visitors and locals&lt;br&gt;- Establishes attractive environments for destinations, for residents as much as visitors, which may support other compatible new activities, from fishing to service or product-based industries&lt;br&gt;- Improves intercultural understanding&lt;br&gt;- Encourages the development of culture, crafts and the arts&lt;br&gt;- Increases the education level of local people&lt;br&gt;- Encourages people to learn the languages and cultures of foreign tourists&lt;br&gt;- Encourages local people to value their local culture and environments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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#### 3.3.1 Enhancing economic opportunity

Tourism can increase jobs and income in a local area or region. It is often regarded as a source of foreign exchange, particularly since protected areas tend to attract international tourists. For example, nature tourism in Costa Rica was estimated to generate over US $600 million in foreign exchange in 1994 (Box 3.2). Visitors to Australia’s Great Barrier Reef World Heritage Area spent AU $776 million (US $543 million) in 1991–1992 (Driml and Common, 1995). Governments often use tourism for economic development because it is relatively inexpensive to create a tourism job compared to one in manufacturing.
To gain such economic benefits, two conditions must be met: (1) there must be products and services for tourists to spend money on, and (2) it is necessary to minimise the amount that leaks out of the local area. “Leakage” can be a serious problem: for example, less than 6% of tourism income at Tortuguero National Park, Costa Rica, accrues to the local communities (Baez and Fernandez, 1992). So tourism should be as self-sufficient as possible, reducing dependence on out-of-region goods and services.

While some tourism developments in connection with protected areas will have a large initial cost, they may well generate significant revenues over the longer term. For example, in St. Lucia, most tourist arrivals currently visit the Sulphur Springs National Landmark. If the park were to be enhanced, estimates of costs and revenues show that not only would these costs be recovered, but also so would the costs of adding staff, programming, facilities and maintenance (Huber and Park, 1991). The estimated costs were expected to outweigh the estimated revenues for the first two years but, thereafter, benefits would exceed costs.

Box 3.2  Costa Rica’s system of protected areas: an example of protected areas creating the foundation of a successful ecotourism industry

Costa Rica’s national parks, wildlife refuges and biological reserves cover over 630,000ha, or more than 25% of the country. Much of the land was purchased and operated by government during the 1970s, but there was an economic crisis in the 1980s, and a reduction of international donations in the 1990s. Costa Rica chose to raise national park entrance fees. In addition, a two-tiered fee system was developed so foreigners paid more than residents.

Despite the increased charges, Costa Rica’s parks remain a popular international tourist destination. The country had 1.03 million international arrivals in 1999, and – if the 1996 figures are a guide – 66% of those tourists visited a protected area. Annual tourism receipts in Costa Rica now total over US$1 billion, and it is the national park system which forms the foundation for its successful ecotourism industry.

Web site: http://nature.org/aboutus/travel/ecotourism/resources/

Box 3.3  Gorilla tourism, Parc National des Volcans, Rwanda: an example of economic benefits of tourism funding the protected area system

In Rwanda, gorilla tourism was so profitable that it was used to help fund conservation activities for a number of protected areas. From 1976 to 1980, income was lower than expenses, but this situation was then reversed and, by 1989, expenses were less than US$200,000, while fee income was $1 million. In Rwanda’s Parc National des Volcans, demand for visiting the mountain gorillas was so much higher than the visitation limit (24 tourists/day), that the government could increase fees to almost $200 per person for a one-hour visit. These fees were able to support other costs of conservation (e.g. guides and guards) as well as other services. This policy generated about $1 million annually until the civil war closed down gorilla tourism.

Source: Lindberg and Huber, 1993.
Tourism income from popular protected areas can be used to help finance others that cannot attract so many tourists, or where large numbers would be inappropriate. Box 3.3 illustrates such an example from Rwanda.

Conservation revenues may actually be higher than other land use revenues. For example, in the Devure Ranch in Zimbabwe, Pricewaterhouse Cooper estimated that cattle had the potential to generate Z $22/hectare/year, using a realistic stocking rate (which increased to Z $37 using a high stocking rate). By contrast, a small wildlife tourism operation (including viewing, hunting and culling) could generate Z$67/hectare/year (Lindberg, 1998). However, the Zimbabwe Government decided that land resettlement of local people was a more important objective. And in the last few years most wildlife tourism operations in that country have ceased to be viable, due to a loss of land for conservation and to a decline in the number of tourists.

Both the Rwanda and Zimbabwe examples illustrate that civil unrest impacts tourism, and the positive economic benefits of tourism, very strongly. Leisure travel is a luxury good, and people have a wide range of opportunities. Therefore, they will not travel to areas which they perceive as unsafe (see also section 3.1.9 above).

Protected area managers should aim to develop tourism development policies which support long-term economic development and encourage repeat visits. They should try to maximise local employment, social and cultural benefits through high visitor spending and low local leakage.

**Guidelines** for capturing economic benefits are:

- **Increase the number of visitors**: Increasing visitation is risky unless the financial benefits from the visitors exceed their costs. It may increase other impacts, some negatively.
- **Increase the length of stay**: Increased length of stay provides more opportunity to sell local products and services.
- **Attract richer market niches**: Different marketing tactics may bring in consumers with strong abilities to spend.
- **Increase purchases per visitor**: Offering more locally-made goods for sale, available directly and indirectly to the visitor, helps increase visitor expenditure and local incomes.
- **Provide lodging**: The costs of overnight accommodation are relatively large and are paid for locally. Local lodging also increases expenditures on meals, and local goods and services.
- **Provide guides or other services**: Since much tourist activity in protected areas is information intensive, there are usually good opportunities for guide services.
- **Host events**: Artwork, crafts and festivals based on local culture can increase local economic impact.
- **Purchase local food and drink**: When visitors, park staff and tourism employees consume locally grown food and drink, they provide important income to local farmers.

Some leakage of expenditure to sources outside the local area is unavoidable, simply because not all food, supplies and services are produced locally. However, tourism planners should try to minimise this leakage (WTO, 1999). Whatever the strategy employed, it is important that local communities are involved in planning for the economic impacts and how they should be measured.
3.3.2 Protecting the natural and cultural heritage

Tourism based on protected areas can be a key factor in supporting the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage. It can generate the funds through entrance and service fees, local taxes and in many other ways that can be used directly to help meet or offset the costs of conservation, maintaining cultural traditions and providing education. Indirectly, by demonstrating the economic value that protected area tourism can bring to a country or a region, it can build public and political support for conservation of natural heritage. Tourism enables some marine protected areas to prosper, for example in the Netherlands Antilles (Bonaire Marine Park), the Seychelles (Ste. Anne National Marine Park) and Kenya (Malindi/Watamu parks and reserves). Box 3.4 describes how tourism

Box 3.4 Madikwe Game Reserve, South Africa: an example of ecological restoration designed and paid for by tourism

Established in 1991, Madikwe reserve was once farmland, but now contains a restored African savannah ecosystem. Many derelict farm buildings and structures were removed, as well as hundreds of kilometres of old fencing, and many alien plants. Some preserved buildings now serve as Park offices and workshops, while new outposts have been built to house game scouts and other staff. Where possible, local business and labour was used for demolition and clearance, erecting fences and constructing roads, dams and lodges. Several game lodges have already been built; others will be developed in future.

Approximately 60,000ha of the reserve were enclosed in a 150km perimeter fence, electrified to prevent the escape of elephants and the larger predators. Operation Phoenix, begun in 1991, became the largest game translocation exercise ever undertaken. More than 10,000 animals of 28 species were released into the reserve, including elephant, rhino, buffalo, lion, cheetah, cape hunting dog, spotted hyena, giraffe, zebra and many species of antelope and other herbivores.

Madikwe is designed to benefit the three main stakeholders involved in the reserve. These are: the manager, the North West Parks Board of South Africa; the private tourism sector; and the local communities. All three work together in a mutually beneficial “partnership in conservation and tourism”. The Parks Board is responsible for establishing the necessary infrastructure and the management to run Madikwe as a major protected area (IUCN Category IV). It also identifies suitable sites within the reserve to lease to the private sector for tourism-based developments and activities.

The private sector provides the capital to build game lodges, and markets and manages the lodges as well as the tourism and trophy hunting in the reserve. Operators pay concession fees to the Parks Board for permission to operate in the reserve. These fees are used to:

- Pay back the development costs of the reserve;
- Maintain the conservation infrastructure in the reserve;
- Pay a dividend to the community for regional development; and
- Develop similar conservation areas elsewhere in the North West Province through a Conservation Trust fund.

Thus private sector money, rather than State funds, is used to develop tourism. However, international development funding from the UK has been used to help local people acquire the entrepreneurial skills to exploit tourism opportunities. By 1999, with only 3 of 10 planned lodges constructed, the economic impact of the tourism was already larger than that of the farm operations that had been removed.

Web site: http://www.parks-n.co.za/madikwe/index.html
funded an ambitious project in ecological restoration in South Africa. Box 3.5 describes how the economic benefits of tourism helped a local community in Australia to develop a better appreciation of the value of conservation. There are many thousands of other examples of such positive relationships between conservation of biodiversity and the natural environment, and protected areas-based tourism.

Well-managed tourism can also assist in protecting or restoring a community’s or a region’s cultural heritage. Protected areas have an important part to play in respect of the built heritage. Many protected areas contain significant historic, architectural and archaeological resources. This is especially the case with Category V protected areas in Europe, which are lived-in protected landscapes and often accommodate a wealth of attractive human settlements, as well as traditional features like stone walls and barns. Tourism can provide income to help in the upkeep or repair of such important buildings and landscape features. It may be collected directly, for example through entry or user fees or indirectly through local taxes.

The cultural heritage is also evident in local traditions. Tourists sometimes seek authentic experiences. It may therefore be possible to encourage the local community to maintain or re-establish important cultural festivals, traditions or events, and even to undertake the restoration of heritage buildings. There are many benefits from such activities. They will enrich the tourism experience within or near protected areas, thereby inducing tourists to stay longer and spend more. Exposure to cultural diversity can help modify tourist behaviour, change use patterns and create advocates for conservation among the tourist community. Moreover local communities may benefit when local traditions and values are maintained, and when they are encouraged to take greater pride in their communities or regions.

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**Box 3.5 Montague Island Nature Reserve, Australia: understanding economic benefits**

Montague Island Nature Reserve, off southeastern Australia, contains both natural ecosystems (penguins, seals, sea birds) and cultural features (European and aboriginal history) of national importance.

From 1990 to the present the management agency, the New South Wales National Parks and Wildlife Service, developed a system of use capacity limits, community consultation and monitoring of impacts. Measurement of the economic impact of the tourism showed the value of financial impact monitoring.

In 1998 the nature tours grossed AU $200,000 for the 4,300 participants that landed on the island. In 1999 a carefully done regional economic impact study determined that expenditures by visitors to the island contributed an estimated AU $1.4 million in gross regional output per year to the regional economy, which was linked to AU $965,000 in gross regional product, including household income of AU $468,000 paid to the equivalent of 19 people in the local economy. Knowledge of this impact helped the local community develop a better appreciation of the role of conservation and tourism in their area.

3.3.3 Enhancing quality of life in the host community

Tourism development should be designed to protect what is good about a host community and tackle those aspects that need to be improved. One way in which this can be done is to develop facilities and services for tourism which can also benefit the living conditions of local residents. Indeed protected areas can be the engines of sustainable rural development. IUCN advises that protected areas in Africa should be repositioned “in the context of community development and the local economy” (IUCN, 1999, page 51). It argues that protected areas, sustained by tourist income, not only create jobs and raise income but can also be used to support local communities’ needs for:

- Improved communications: upgrading roads for tourism access gives neighbouring villages better access to the outside world. Telecommunications access to protected area offices can be vital to local communities in times of emergency;
- Education: some protected areas provide language, literacy and numeracy training to their staff, skills than can then be applied in the community as well;
- Training: the training that parks staff receive in such matters as vehicle maintenance or food hygiene will be of practical use in local communities;
- Health care: the medical services available to parks staff and visitors can be shared with local communities (IUCN, 1999).

Thus tourism to terrestrial and marine protected areas may be viewed as a tool to help communities to maintain, or improve, their living standards and quality of life. This may be measured in terms of:

- increased school graduation rates;
reduced infant mortality;
elimination of water and air pollution;
increased access to recreation sites, protected areas or subsistence resources; and
better access to services, such as the park’s programmes for interpretation and environmental education, which also benefit locals.

Protected areas can also be used to enhance the quality of life of a whole nation, by making them the foundation of a national policy to raise environmental understanding. Box 3.6 describes how this was done in Costa Rica.

### 3.4 Potential risks of tourism in protected areas

Negative effects can and do result from tourist visitation, but many of them can be competently managed and alleviated. Protected area stakeholders are in the position of gauging both the positive and negative effects of tourism, determining how acceptable the negative effects are, and suggesting how they can be managed. The costs of tourism are of three kinds: financial and economic, socio-cultural and environmental.
3.4.1 Financial and economic costs

Tourism brings increased demand for goods, services and facilities, such as lodging, restaurants, other attractions, and personal vacation properties. As visitor numbers increase, so do the demands for basic services such as policing, fire, safety and health care. Such increased demand brings increased costs and possibly higher tax burdens for the local community. In some cases, costs may rise so much that local residents can no longer afford to live there. This is particularly the case in destinations where local people have lower incomes than the visitors do. For example, wealthy foreign visitors to protected areas in developing countries may see economic opportunities and take control or buy out local businesses. Thus tourism can lead to increased foreign ownership and raised property values.

Increased visitation also means increased costs to the protected area management agency as it strives to add the additional personnel and facilities needed by the tourists. This cost of tourism must be weighed against the benefits. Therefore, the park agency must be able to apply the benefits earned from tourists against the costs.

As already noted, where the local economy and protected areas are heavily dependent on tourism, they may become vulnerable to external factors beyond their control, such as natural disasters, currency fluctuations, competitive capture of markets or political instability.

Some leakage of tourist expenditures will occur, whether it is out of the protected area, local community, region or the country. If local people do not benefit, they may look for other more profitable activities and land uses (Box 3.7). Hence the need to minimise leakage.

3.4.2 Social costs

Increased numbers of tourists may disturb community activities, and compete for recreation places and other services. Poorly planned tourism development can lead to increased congestion, littering, vandalism and crime. Governments may exacerbate

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**Box 3.7 Royal Chitwan National Park, Nepal: an example of a significant tourism industry, with insufficient local benefits**

In 1994, the Royal Chitwan National Park in Nepal had over 60,000 tourists. Despite this, the economic impact on local peoples’ household income was minimal, and limited to villages closest to the main park entrance.

A study found that “of the estimated 87,000 working age people living near the park, less than 1,100 were employed directly by the ecotourism industry”. The report went on to say that “only 6% of the surveyed households earned income directly or indirectly from ecotourism”. In fact the average annual salary of even these households from ecotourism was only $600. It is important to develop an understanding of the level of economic benefit that can occur and is appropriate. Tourism planners should not create unrealistic expectations of the degree of economic impact that may occur.

*Source: Bosselman et al., 1999, quoting WWF.*

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these problems if they put short-term economic considerations before all else, for example by building inappropriate infrastructure or failing to establish the needs of local communities. When this happens, the local support for the protected area may be put at risk.

Sometimes tourism in protected areas calls only for seasonal employment, leaving residents underemployed during the slow or off-seasons. However, this may be to the local communities’ liking. In the Klondike Gold Rush National Historic Park (Alaska, USA) the entire town of Skagway revolves around summer tourism. In the winter, many people leave, and then the community apparently enjoys its “quiet time”, having earned sufficient income for the year during the busy season.

Where protected area agencies develop visitor management regulations that also affect local residents, there may be negative socio-cultural impacts (e.g. prohibitions on traditional uses such as fuelwood gathering or on spiritual uses which require entry to the protected area). Other negative impacts may occur where local traditions become commercialized, and lose their integrity or authenticity. An example would be dances, which had once had a vital social role but which are now put on only for the entertainment of visitors.

Negative impacts are most common when communities are not given choices, or have no control over their involvement with tourism. Outsiders often assign negative connotations to cultural change, while those undergoing the change may be positive about the new ideas or approaches. So it is important that those affected by cultural change be the ones that decide whether this change is acceptable. Appropriate planning is needed ahead of development, to avoid adverse impacts from the outset; but there are also management techniques that can be used to address problems should they arise.

The dangers are all the greater when there is a sharp contrast between the wealth of tourists and the poverty of the host community. Where this occurs, local communities are potentially vulnerable to exploitation and their voice may go unheard. Both the protected area manager and the tourist provider have a special responsibility in such circumstances to ensure that the community is listened to, and its views allowed to help shape the form of tourist development that takes place.

3.4.3 Environmental costs

Tourism, like many other forms of development, will always produce environmental impacts, even at low levels of intensity, and despite the best efforts of protected area managers. Such impacts occur both at the site level, and over larger areas. Because tourism in protected areas is drawn to environments which are inherently sensitive, it is vital that the impacts be assessed as accurately as possible beforehand to establish if they are acceptable. (However, in assessing these, it is important to consider what environmental impacts would have occurred if the park, and its tourism industry, were to be replaced by some other land use, such as agriculture, forestry, mining or urbanisation). Tables 3.3 and 3.4 set out two ways of listing the wide range of environmental risks.
Table 3.3 Negative impacts of human use on the environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trail creation (and deterioration)</td>
<td>Boats damaging banks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camp-sites (and deterioration)</td>
<td>Habitat loss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litter</td>
<td>Emissions and air pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowding</td>
<td>Firewood collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracks and recreation vehicles</td>
<td>Visual and noise impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack stock impacts</td>
<td>Overfishing, undersized fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human waste problems</td>
<td>Impacts on vegetation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife disturbance, habituation, or impact</td>
<td>Damage to sand dunes/reefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User conflicts</td>
<td>Soil compaction or erosion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water pollution (physical or biological)</td>
<td>Increased fire risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overdevelopment</td>
<td>Damage to archaeological sites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weeds, fungi and exotic species</td>
<td>Trampling (human or horse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid and human waste</td>
<td>Changed water courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural vandalism</td>
<td>Taking souvenirs (flora, fauna, etc)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Cole, Petersen and Lucas, 1987; McNeely and Thorsell, 1989; Buckley and Pannell, 1990; Dowling, 1993; Wight, 1996

Table 3.4 Environmental risks from tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Examples of risk from tourism activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ecosystems</td>
<td>The construction of accommodation, visitor centres, infrastructure, and other services has a direct impact on the environment, from vegetation removal, animal disturbance elimination of habitats, impacts on drainage etc. Wildlife habitat may be significantly changed (travel routes, hunting areas, breeding areas, etc.) by all kinds of tourist development and use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soils</td>
<td>Soil compaction can occur in certain well-used areas. Soil removal and erosion also occurs, and may continue after the disturbance is gone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetation</td>
<td>Concentrated use around facilities has a negative effect on vegetation. Transportation may have direct negative impacts on the environment (e.g. vegetation removal, weed transmission, animal disturbance). Fire frequency may change due to tourists and park tourism management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>Increased demands for fresh water. Disposal of sewage or litter in rivers, lakes or oceans. Release of oil and fuel from ships and smaller craft. Propeller-driven watercraft may affect certain aquatic plants and species.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air</td>
<td>Moturised transportation may cause pollution from emissions (from plane, train, ship or automobile).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife</td>
<td>Hunting and fishing may change population dynamics. Hunters and fishers may demand the introduction of foreign species, and increased populations of target animals. Impacts occur on insects and small invertebrates, from effects of transportation, introduced species, etc. Disturbance by visitors can occur for all species, including those that are not attracting visitors. Disturbance can be of several kinds: noise, visual or harassing behaviour. The impact can last beyond the time of initial contact (e.g. before heart-rate returns to normal, or before birds alight, or mammals resume breeding or eating). Marine mammals may be hurt or killed by boat impacts or propeller cuts. Habituation to humans can cause changed wildlife behaviour, such as approaching people for food.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.5  Summary of types of costs incurred by protected areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Costs</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct costs</td>
<td>Includes facilities construction, maintenance and administration of the site.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental degradation</td>
<td>Degradation associated with use of the site; e.g. soil erosion, water pollution and disturbance of wildlife.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congestion</td>
<td>An additional user imposes a cost on all other users by reducing solitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of natural resources</td>
<td>Cost of the land and related resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced welfare of locals</td>
<td>Negative impact on locals due to restricted access to protected area resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource opportunity cost</td>
<td>Resource values forgone because recreation or preservation is produced; the commercial value of the resource is lost to society.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.5 summarises the types of costs associated with protected areas. There is moreover one more danger: that governments or management agencies will neglect those protected areas that have important conservation values, but limited appeal for tourists.

Ecotourism and sustainable tourism strategies are designed to manage park visitation to maximize positive benefits and minimise negative environmental impacts prior to their occurrence. This is best achieved through well-designed planning strategies. A key issue is to be sensitive to cumulative impacts, to practice adaptive management (viewing management actions as experiments), and to achieve consensus among stakeholders about how much impact is acceptable, and where, in the protected area. Later chapters of these Guidelines describe some of the tools available for this purpose.

3.5 Tourism in protected areas which are not publicly owned or managed

3.5.1 A trend towards diversity in protected areas

In IUCN’s protected area category system (IUCN, 1994), areas may be publicly-owned, privately-owned, owned by the community or owned by a mixture of some or all of these possibilities. Management may be equally diverse. In some parts of the world, privately-owned conservation lands are becoming a significant force for both conservation and tourism, and are flourishing. Such areas include privately-owned parks, NGO reserves, private hunting reserves, and biological and research stations run by universities. Tourism at private nature reserves varies from large resorts with a reserve as an added attraction, to small ecolodges within large nature reserves. Private reserves are often found adjacent to or nearby major public parks. Also, particularly in Category V and VI protected areas, there are extensive tracts of privately-owned land which are farmed or otherwise managed for resource use, but which are important for their contribution to landscape protection and biodiversity conservation. Another rapidly growing area is that of indigenous, aboriginal and community-owned protected areas (Beltran, 2000).

Several forces are at work here, including: political empowerment of previously marginalised groups (e.g. indigenous peoples); devolution of power from central gov-
ernment; greater use of the private sector to deliver public services; and the desire of individuals, commercial operations and communities to benefit from the economic activity generated by tourism. Langholz (1999) noted that the growing trend towards private ownership of protected areas was explained by a greater public interest generally in biodiversity protection, governments' inability to safeguard all biodiversity, and the expansion in ecotourism. Also, some communities have developed communally managed reserves to generate income in ways that are compatible with their lifestyle. Tourism may be viewed as a way of financing conservation activities, as a means of making money, or as a more favourable alternative to some other form of land use.

Whatever the reasons, the reality is that, in many parts of both the developed and developing world, the initiative for setting up protected areas is no longer coming only or even mainly from central government. As a result, tourism in protected areas is no longer just about an activity affecting publicly-owned and publicly-managed land.

3.5.2 Private reserves, community-driven initiatives and tourism

The potential for generating economic activity through private reserves is indicated by a local example from Canada (Box 3.8).

Private reserves play an important role in Costa Rica, a country that has enjoyed political stability and has stable land ownership laws. An extensive system of both public and private reserves supports an ecotourism industry. There is a long tradition that links the scientific researchers and ecotourism. The ecological research highlighted the

**Box 3.8  Haliburton Forest and Wildlife Reserve, Ontario, Canada**

The Haliburton Forest and Wildlife Reserve is the largest private forest reserve in Canada, at 20,000ha. It is managed profitably for a range of activities, including fishing, camping, hunting, logging, mountain biking, snowmobiling, ecotourism, and adventure tourism, as well as tourist accommodation (in a converted logging camp) and other visitor facilities. A large, fenced, natural compound containing wild wolves is adjacent to the educational centre. There is a “walk in the clouds” boardwalk, throughout the treetops of the forest, which visitors pay up to CDN$70/person to visit; this is so successful that at times reservations are required. The forest has become a major tourism attraction and, although remote, people travel long distances to experience the variety of outdoor experiences offered. This reserve is adjacent to the very popular Algonquin Provincial Park.

The Haliburton land was affordable when it was bought in the 1950s, because it had just been logged out, so the potential yield as a timber resource was distant in the future. However, it is now successfully managed for integrated uses, and is financially self-sufficient. Some 70% of revenues derive from ecotourism and adventure tourism activities. The remainder comes from forestry-related products and supplies. The owner is on an ecotourism committee of a local college. As a keen supporter of the concept of ecotourism, he has been able to lead the development of the forest, and develop new visitor experiences annually, such as a “star gazing” observatory, opened in 2001. His independent financial backing means that he can make decisions quickly and without depending on government policies.

Web site: http://www.haliburtonforest.com/
importance of Costa Rica’s tropical ecosystems, leading to increased demand for protection and ecotourism (Eagles and Higgins, 1998). Researchers established many of the private reserves, which are run more efficiently than those managed by government agencies, are able to respond quickly to the market, and are able to generate resources to support other types of conservation and development activities (Honey, 1999).

The average extent of private reserves in Costa Rica is small (101ha), and most owners are more concerned with quality of management than with size of the reserve. Profit is often a secondary consideration for reserve owners. Many of them value conservation and land stewardship more highly, and over 75% of owners placed bequest value very highly (Brown, 2001). However, a few private reserves are quite large, such as the impressive Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve (Box 3.9).

Africa has had a long tradition of using private and community lands for tourism to supplement other activities. For example, until recently the CAMPFIRE communal areas management programme for indigenous resources in Zimbabwe generated 90% of its income from trophy hunting, with the remainder coming from photographic safaris, hides and ivory sales and other tourist-related activities. Similar community-based tourism is flourishing in Namibia (IUCN, 1999). In 1989, in 63 private reserves in Latin America and Africa, tourism accounted for 40% of operating income. By 1993, this had increased to 67% of the reserves’ operating income. Approximately half of the respondents depended on tourism for 90% or more of their income, and just over one third were completely dependent on it (Langholtz and Brandon, 2001).

South Africa has thousands of private game reserves, each with its own mix of wildlife conservation and tourism. Many sell trophy hunting and harvest wildlife meat for sale. These reserves tend to provide high-cost visitor services, while leaving the more inexpensive operations to the national and provincial park services. In South Africa, as elsewhere, many private reserves are located near national parks. For example, much of

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**Box 3.9 Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve, Costa Rica: an example of a self-sufficient private reserve**

The Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve protects cloud forest in the central mountains of Costa Rica. It has high biological diversity with 100 species of mammals, 400 species of birds, 120 species of amphibians and reptiles and 2,500 species of plants (among them 420 different kinds of orchids). It attracts around 50,000 visitors annually. Its 50,180ha are managed by a non-profit organization, the Tropical Science Centre. It charges entrance fees:

- US$23 for foreigners (this was US$2.75 in the 1980s)
- US$2 for residents
- US$1 for students

The income from tourism increased over time and by 1994 the reserve more than covered its operating costs. Thus, of the US $850,000 revenues, 90% went to operating costs, and 10% went to the Tropical Science Centre. In that year, this reserve generated more income from tourism than was generated by all Costa Rican national parks together.

*Source:* Church and Brandon, 1995.
*Web site:* [http://www.cct.or.cr/monte_in.htm](http://www.cct.or.cr/monte_in.htm)
the west side of Kruger National Park is buttressed by adjacent private game reserves. The land in these reserves adds considerably to the area and conservation value of the entire ecosystem.

Many reserves are owned and managed by NGOs, mainly for biodiversity conservation, both in developing and developed countries. For example, The Program for Belize owns and manages the Rio Bravo Conservation and Management Area, covering 92,614ha, or approximately 4% of Belize’s land area. Ecotourism is the largest single source of funds (45% in 1995) available to meet the costs of running the reserve.

The Nature Conservancy of the USA owns more than 1,300 reserves, making it one of the largest private systems of nature sanctuaries in the world. This private organisation recognised the importance of ecotourism to the long-term financial sustainability of protected areas and developed an international programme of planning, guide training, financial research, ecolodge development and business planning to assist private and public reserve managers. The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (RSPB) in the UK is another large conservation NGO whose conservation achievements have largely been built on the back of visits to its reserves by the public (Box 3.10).

Like all protected areas, private reserves are vulnerable to political unrest, poaching, community opposition to loss of access to resources, squatters and sometimes antipathy towards tourism. Private reserves are also very susceptible to fluctuations in the ecotourism market (Langholtz and Brandon, 2001).

Success will depend upon a number of factors, including:

- extensive community involvement at the outset and subsequently;
- a non-forced negotiating position between parties;
- a legal framework to allow tourism revenues to be retained by private land managers;
- sufficient revenues from tourism for management, conservation and profits to support the enterprise and contribute to conservation;

Box 3.10  The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (RSPB) (UK): An NGO contributing significantly to protected area conservation

The RSPB owns and manages over 150 reserves in the UK covering approximately 110,000ha. The RSPB is one of the largest private landowners in the UK, with reserves scattered all over the country. Many of the UK’s rarest birds now breed only on nature reserves and, for many others, they provide vital winter bases or stop-overs on long migration flights. They are very important sites for bird watching and nature tourism.

Most RSPB reserves are open to the public and many have facilities suitable for visitors with special needs. Some have hides that have been adapted to allow access for wheelchairs, and many have special paths and boardwalks installed.

The RSPB has well over 1,000,000 members. These members help finance the on-going acquisition of new areas, with at least one new reserve established each year.

Web site: http://www.rspb.org.uk
mutual understanding of differing goals between stakeholders;
• an understanding by the managers of the constraints over their operations;
• mechanisms to cover injury liability affecting tourists and residents;
• mechanisms which link public and commercial tourism; and
• commercial tourism being able to focus on heavily visited sites (after Buckley and Sommer, 2001).

The establishment of protected areas and providing for tourism often work best when they come from within the community, even if this is done with outside support from NGOs or government sources. Box 3.11 describes one such community-based project from Belize.

Box 3.11  The Community Baboon Sanctuary (CBS), Belize: community owned and managed lands for conservation and ecotourism

The CBS is located 53km outside Belize City. In 1985, 12 landowners cooperated to manage their lands for the benefit of the black howler monkey. However, since landowners’ cooperation was critical, the sanctuary had to meet their needs as well as those of the wildlife. They were asked to follow voluntarily a land use plan, which would maintain a skeletal forest from which howlers and other wildlife could easily use the regenerating areas of cut forest. Landowners were asked to leave certain food trees, and forest strips uncut along riverbanks and other areas, thus providing aerial pathways, for the monkeys to use as travel routes in large cut areas. Such practices would also reduce riverbank erosion and shorten cultivation fallow time.

The first step in accomplishing this was circulating a petition among villagers calling for an investigation of the potential to set up a sanctuary. With WWF help, villagers drew up management plans and obtained landowner commitment. The sanctuary expanded to include over 120 landowners and 8 villages, covering 47km². Assistance is also provided by the Belize Audubon Society.

A manager has to meet landowners to make sure agricultural practices are consistent with the management plans that they agreed to follow, as well as guiding tourists, and organizing local tourist hosts. Tourists may rent rooms, or camp and take meals locally. Because tour group leaders often tried to avoid local guides, there is now a $2.50 charge per visitor, and local staff must accompany them. Visitors to the sanctuary and villages have increased significantly, from about 10 in 1985, to over 6,000 in 1990.

Web site: http://www.ecocomm.org/cbs.htm

3.6 Summary and guidelines

Based on the foregoing, the following **Guidelines** are suggested for increasing the benefits of tourism in all kinds of protected areas, whether owned or managed by public, private, voluntary or community bodies:

• Ensure that the measurement of park tourism activities, volumes and impacts is accurate, as complete as possible and that the data are effectively communicated;
- Match the services and products available in the park and locally to tourist travel motives;
- Make products and services available for tourists’ expenditure (e.g. recreation services, accommodation, crafts, and foods);
- Aim for high service quality in all tourist services;
- Develop a constituency of satisfied and supportive park visitors, people who will argue for park objectives in the large political debates in society;
- Develop opportunities for park visitors to play a positive role in park management (through membership in Friends Groups, by providing donations to targetted programs, or providing personal assistance to staff);
- Ensure that all information and interpretation programmes create appropriate expectations;
- Minimise local leakage (retain local expenditures through maximum local self-sufficiency) by developing linkages with local industries;
- Provide local accommodation options;
- Provide recreation activity options;
- Encourage consumption of locally-grown foods;
- Ensure local participation and control (e.g. local guide services);
- Ensure revenue-sharing or direct payment programmes;
- Understand the role of the protected area in regional and national tourism activities;
- Understand the fiscal and economic roles of park tourism;
- Host special events;
- Provide opportunities for local people to celebrate their cultural traditions;
- Where needed, assist in the education of local people in the skills necessary for tourism;
- Evaluate all tourism services provided by the private sector to ensure service quality and adherence to park policy;
- Ensure that the park has staff trained in tourism planning and management;
- Continuously evaluate all tourism programmes to ensure that goals are met;
- Ensure that tourism programmes are based upon competent financial management;
- Price appropriately; and
- Earmark the income from fees appropriately.

Guidance for minimising the adverse economic, environmental and social impacts is contained in the following chapters 4 to 7.