

Please fill these out, use them for discussion, and then turn them in to your instructor.

QUESTIONNAIRE: UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

1. Do you believe you understand the concept of sustainable tourism?

very familiar somewhat familiar unfamiliar

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2. Do you believe natural resource protection and tourism can be compatible?

strongly agree agree don't know disagree strongly disagree

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3. Do you believe protection of local heritage and tourism can be compatible?

strongly agree agree don't know disagree strongly disagree

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4. Do you believe that well-managed attractions such as your MPA, maintained in their natural state, are important to attracting tourism?

strongly agree agree don't know disagree strongly disagree

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5. Do you believe the community would benefit from developing a sustainable tourism framework?

strongly agree agree don't know disagree strongly disagree

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6. Do you believe there is a demand for sustainable tourism in and around your MPA?

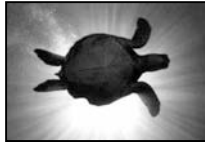
strongly agree agree don't know disagree strongly disagree

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7. If you disagree with #6, do you believe a demand for sustainable tourism *could* be developed for your MPA?

strongly agree agree don't know disagree strongly disagree

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Tourism Demand in Asia, 2004-2005

	millions of arrivals, 2004	%growth 2004	%growth 2005
<u>North-east Asia</u>			
China (mainland)	41,761	26.7	12.8
Hong Kong	13,655	41.1	7.3
Japan	6,138	17.8	9.1
Korea	5,818	22.4	3.5
Macao	8,324	31.9	8.1
Taiwan	2,950	31.2	15.0
<u>South-East Asia</u>			
Cambodia	1,055	50.5	35.4
Indonesia	5,321	19.1	-8.8 (tsunami/Bali bombing)
Lao P.D.R.	236	21.2	26.9
Malaysia	15,703	48.5	4.3
Myanmar	242	17.7	-3.7
Philippines	2,291	20.2	13.6
Singapore	(no data)		7.8
Thailand	11,737	16.4	-6.0 (tsunami)
Vietnam	2,928	20.5	18.4
<u>South Asia</u>			
Bhutan	9	47.6	47.4
India	3,457	26.8	13.2
Maldives	617	9.4	-39.1 (tsunami)
Nepal	360	6.5	-3.9 (political instability)
Sri Lanka	566	13.1	-0.4 (tsunami)

Preliminary trends from first half of 2006:

Northeast Asia overall	7.0
Southeast Asia overall	8.2
South Asia overall	20.5

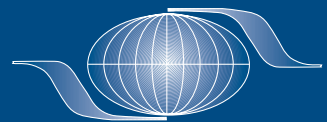
Source: World Tourism Organization



GLOBAL CODE OF ETHICS FOR TOURISM



UNITED NATIONS



WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION



Resolution adopted by the General Assembly

21 December 2001

A/RES/56/212 Global Code of Ethics for Tourism

The General Assembly,

Recalling its resolution 32/156 of 19 December 1977, by which it approved the Agreement on Cooperation and Relationships between the United Nations and the World Tourism Organization,

Reaffirming paragraph 5 of its resolution 36/41 of 19 November 1981, in which it decided that the World Tourism Organization might participate, on a continuing basis, in the work of the General Assembly in areas of concern to that organization,

Recalling the Manila Declaration on World Tourism of 10 October 1980 adopted under the auspices of the World Tourism Organization,¹ the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development² and Agenda 21³ adopted at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development on 14 June 1992, and taking note of the Amman Declaration on Peace through Tourism adopted at the Global Summit on Peace through Tourism on 11 November 2000,⁴

Considering that the Commission on Sustainable Development, at its seventh session, held in April 1999, expressed interest in a global code of ethics for tourism and invited the World Tourism Organization to consider the participation of informed major groups in the development, implementation and monitoring of its global code of ethics for tourism,⁵

Recalling its resolution 53/200 of 15 December 1998 on the proclamation of 2002 as the International Year of Ecotourism, in which, inter alia, it reaffirmed Economic and Social Council resolution 1998/40 of 30 July 1998, recognizing the support of the World Tourism Organization for the importance of ecotourism, in particular the designation of the year 2002 as the International Year of Ecotourism, in fostering better understanding among peoples everywhere, in leading to greater awareness of the rich heritage of various civilizations and in bringing about a better appreciation of the inherent values of different cultures, thereby contributing to the strengthening of world peace,

Recognizing the important dimension and role of tourism as a positive instrument towards the alleviation of poverty and the improvement of the quality of life for all people, its potential to make a contribution to economic and social development, especially of the developing countries, and its emergence as a vital force for the promotion of international understanding, peace and prosperity,

1. Takes note with interest of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism adopted at the thirteenth session of the General Assembly of the World Tourism Organization,⁶ which outlines principles to guide tourism development and to serve as a frame of reference for the different stakeholders in the tourism sector, with the objective of minimizing the negative impact of tourism on environment and on cultural heritage while maximizing the benefits of tourism in promoting sustainable development and poverty alleviation as well as understanding among nations;

2. Emphasizes the need for the promotion of a responsible and sustainable tourism that could be beneficial to all sectors of society;

3. Invites Governments and other stakeholders in the tourism sector to consider introducing, as appropriate, the contents of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism in relevant laws, regulations and professional practices, and, in this regard, recognizes with appreciation the efforts made and measures already undertaken by some States;

4. Encourages the World Tourism Organization to promote effective follow-up to the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, with the involvement of relevant stakeholders in the tourism sector;

5. Requests the Secretary-General to follow up developments related to the implementation of the present resolution based on the reports of the World Tourism Organization and to report thereon to the General Assembly at its fifty-ninth session.

1 A/36/236, annex, appendix I.

2 Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, Rio de Janeiro, 3-14 June 1992 (United Nations publications, Sales No. E.93.I.8 and corrigenda), vol. I: Resolutions adopted by the Conference, resolution 1, annex I.

3 Ibid., annex II.

4 See A/55/640.

5 See Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, 1999, Supplement No. 9 (E/1999/29), decision 7/3.

6 See E/2001/61, annex.

GLOBAL CODE OF ETHICS FOR TOURISM

adopted by resolution A/RES/406(XIII) at the thirteenth WTO General Assembly (Santiago, Chile, 27 September - 1 October 1999).

PREAMBLE

We, Members of the World Tourism Organization (WTO), representatives of the world tourism industry, delegates of States, territories, enterprises, institutions and bodies that are gathered for the General Assembly at Santiago, Chile on this first day of October 1999,

Reasserting the aims set out in Article 3 of the Statutes of the World Tourism Organization, and aware of the "decisive and central" role of this Organization, as recognized by the General Assembly of the United Nations, in promoting and developing tourism with a view to contributing to economic development, international understanding, peace, prosperity and universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion,

Firmly believing that, through the direct, spontaneous and non-mediatized contacts it engenders between men and women of different cultures and lifestyles, tourism represents a vital force for peace and a factor of friendship and understanding among the peoples of the world,

In keeping with the rationale of reconciling environmental protection, economic development and the fight against poverty in a sustainable manner, as formulated by the United Nations in 1992 at the "Earth Summit" of Rio de Janeiro and expressed in Agenda 21, adopted on that occasion,

Taking into account the swift and continued growth, both past and foreseeable, of the tourism activity, whether for leisure, business, culture, religious or health purposes, and its powerful effects, both positive and negative, on the environment, the economy and the society of both generating and receiving countries, on local communities and indigenous peoples, as well as on international relations and trade,

Aiming to promote responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism in the framework of the

right of all persons to use their free time for leisure pursuits or travel with respect for the choices of society of all peoples,

But convinced that the world tourism industry as a whole has much to gain by operating in an environment that favours the market economy, private enterprise and free trade and that serves to optimize its beneficial effects on the creation of wealth and employment,

Also firmly convinced that, provided a number of principles and a certain number of rules are observed, responsible and sustainable tourism is by no means incompatible with the growing liberalization of the conditions governing trade in services and under whose aegis the enterprises of this sector operate and that it is possible to reconcile in this sector economy and ecology, environment and development, openness to international trade and protection of social and cultural identities,

Considering that, with such an approach, all the stakeholders in tourism development – national, regional and local administrations, enterprises, business associations, workers in the sector, non-governmental organizations and bodies of all kinds belonging to the tourism industry, as well as host communities, the media and the tourists themselves, have different albeit interdependent responsibilities in the individual and societal development of tourism and that the formulation of their individual rights and duties will contribute to meeting this aim,

Committed, in keeping with the aims pursued by the World Tourism Organization itself since adopting resolution 364(XII) at its General Assembly of 1997 (Istanbul), to promote a genuine partnership between the public and private stakeholders in tourism development, and wishing to see a partnership and cooperation of the same kind extend, in an open and balanced way, to the relations between generating and

receiving countries and their respective tourism industries,

Following up on the Manila Declarations of 1980 on World Tourism and of 1997 on the Social Impact of Tourism, as well as on the Tourism Bill of Rights and the Tourist Code adopted at Sofia in 1985 under the aegis of WTO,

But believing that these instruments should be complemented by a set of interdependent principles for their interpretation and application on which the stakeholders in tourism development should model their conduct at the dawn of the twenty-first century,

Using, for the purposes of this instrument, the definitions and classifications applicable to travel, and especially the concepts of "visitor", "tourist" and "tourism", as adopted by the Ottawa International Conference, held from 24 to 28 June 1991 and approved, in 1993, by the United Nations Statistical Commission at its twenty-seventh session,

Referring in particular to the following instruments:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 10 December 1948;
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 16 December 1966;
- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights of 16 December 1966;
- Warsaw Convention on Air Transport of 12 October 1929;
- Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation of 7 December 1944, and the Tokyo, The Hague and Montréal Conventions in relation thereto;
- Convention on Customs Facilities for Tourism of 4 July 1954 and related Protocol;
- Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 23 November 1972;

- Manila Declaration on World Tourism of 10 October 1980;
- Resolution of the Sixth General Assembly of WTO (Sofia) adopting the Tourism Bill of Rights and Tourist Code of 26 September 1985;
- Convention on the Rights of the Child of 20 November 1989;
- Resolution of the Ninth General Assembly of WTO (Buenos Aires) concerning in particular travel facilitation and the safety and security of tourists of 4 October 1991;
- Rio Declaration on the Environment and Development of 13 June 1992;
- General Agreement on Trade in Services of 15 April 1994;
- Convention on Biodiversity of 6 January 1995;
- Resolution of the Eleventh General Assembly of WTO (Cairo) on the prevention of organized sex tourism of 22 October 1995;
- Stockholm Declaration of 28 August 1996 against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children;
- Manila Declaration on the Social Impact of Tourism of 22 May 1997;
- Conventions and recommendations adopted by the International Labour Organization in the area of collective conventions, prohibition of forced labour and child labour, defence of the rights of indigenous peoples, and equal treatment and non-discrimination in the work place;

affirm the right to tourism and the freedom of tourist movements,

state our wish to promote an equitable, responsible and sustainable world tourism order, whose benefits will be shared by all sectors of society in the context of an open and liberalized international economy, and

solemnly adopt to these ends the principles of the *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism*.



Article 1

Tourism's contribution to mutual understanding and respect between peoples and societies

1. The understanding and promotion of the ethical values common to humanity, with an attitude of tolerance and respect for the diversity of religious, philosophical and moral beliefs, are both the foundation and the consequence of responsible tourism; stakeholders in tourism development and tourists themselves should observe the social and cultural traditions and practices of all peoples, including those of minorities and indigenous peoples and to recognize their worth;

2. Tourism activities should be conducted in harmony with the attributes and traditions of the host regions and countries and in respect for their laws, practices and customs;

3. The host communities, on the one hand, and local professionals, on the other, should acquaint themselves with and respect the tourists who visit them and find out about their lifestyles, tastes and expectations; the education and training imparted to professionals contribute to a hospitable welcome;

4. It is the task of the public authorities to provide protection for tourists and visitors and their belongings; they must pay particular attention to the safety of foreign tourists owing to the particular vulnerability they may have; they should facilitate the introduction of specific means of information, prevention, security, insurance and assistance consistent with their needs; any attacks, assaults, kidnappings or threats against tourists or workers in the tourism industry, as well as the wilful destruction of tourism facilities or of elements of cultural or natural

heritage should be severely condemned and punished in accordance with their respective national laws;

5. When travelling, tourists and visitors should not commit any criminal act or any act considered criminal by the laws of the country visited and abstain from any conduct felt to be offensive or injurious by the local populations, or likely to damage the local environment; they should refrain from all trafficking in illicit drugs, arms, antiques, protected species and products and substances that are dangerous or prohibited by national regulations;

6. Tourists and visitors have the responsibility to acquaint themselves, even before their departure, with the characteristics of the countries they are preparing to visit; they must be aware of the health and security risks inherent in any travel outside their usual environment and behave in such a way as to minimize those risks;



Article 2

Tourism as a vehicle for individual and collective fulfilment

1. Tourism, the activity most frequently associated with rest and relaxation, sport and access to culture and nature, should be planned and practised as a privileged means of individual and collective fulfilment; when practised with a sufficiently open mind, it is an irreplaceable factor of self-education, mutual tolerance and for learning about the legitimate differences between peoples and cultures and their diversity;

2. Tourism activities should respect the equality of men and women; they should promote human rights and, more particularly, the individual

rights of the most vulnerable groups, notably children, the elderly, the handicapped, ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples;

3. The exploitation of human beings in any form, particularly sexual, especially when applied to children, conflicts with the fundamental aims of tourism and is the negation of tourism; as such, in accordance with international law, it should be energetically combated with the cooperation of all the States concerned and penalized without concession by the national legislation of both the countries visited and the countries of the perpetrators of these acts, even when they are carried out abroad;

4. Travel for purposes of religion, health, education and cultural or linguistic exchanges are particularly beneficial forms of tourism, which deserve encouragement;

5. The introduction into curricula of education about the value of tourist exchanges, their economic, social and cultural benefits, and also their risks, should be encouraged;



Article 3

Tourism, a factor of sustainable development

1. All the stakeholders in tourism development should safeguard the natural environment with a view to achieving sound, continuous and sustainable economic growth geared to satisfying equitably the needs and aspirations of present and future generations;

2. All forms of tourism development that are conducive to saving rare and precious resources, in particular water and energy, as well as avoiding so far as possible waste production, should be given priority and encouraged by national, regional and local public authorities;

3. The staggering in time and space of tourist and visitor flows, particularly those resulting from paid leave and school holidays, and a more even distribution of holidays should be sought so as to reduce the pressure of tourism activity on the environment and enhance its beneficial impact on the tourism industry and the local economy;

4. Tourism infrastructure should be designed and tourism activities programmed in such a way as to protect the natural heritage composed of ecosystems and biodiversity and to preserve endangered species of wildlife; the stakeholders in tourism development, and especially professionals, should agree to the imposition of limitations or constraints on their activities when these are exercised in particularly sensitive areas: desert, polar or high mountain regions, coastal areas, tropical forests or wetlands, propitious to the creation of nature reserves or protected areas;

5. Nature tourism and ecotourism are recognized as being particularly conducive to enriching and enhancing the standing of tourism, provided they respect the natural heritage and local populations and are in keeping with the carrying capacity of the sites;



Article 4

Tourism, a user of the cultural heritage of mankind and a contributor to its enhancement

1. Tourism resources belong to the common heritage of mankind; the communities in whose territories they are situated have particular rights and obligations to them;

2. Tourism policies and activities should be conducted with respect for the artistic, archaeological and cultural heritage, which they

should protect and pass on to future generations; particular care should be devoted to preserving and upgrading monuments, shrines and museums as well as archaeological and historic sites which must be widely open to tourist visits; encouragement should be given to public access to privately-owned cultural property and monuments, with respect for the rights of their owners, as well as to religious buildings, without prejudice to normal needs of worship;

3. Financial resources derived from visits to cultural sites and monuments should, at least in part, be used for the upkeep, safeguard, development and embellishment of this heritage;

4. Tourism activity should be planned in such a way as to allow traditional cultural products, crafts and folklore to survive and flourish, rather than causing them to degenerate and become standardized;



Article 5

Tourism, a beneficial activity for host countries and communities

1. Local populations should be associated with tourism activities and share equitably in the economic, social and cultural benefits they generate, and particularly in the creation of direct and indirect jobs resulting from them;

2. Tourism policies should be applied in such a way as to help to raise the standard of living of the populations of the regions visited and meet their needs; the planning and architectural approach to and operation of tourism resorts and accommodation should aim to integrate them, to the extent possible, in the local economic and social fabric; where skills are equal, priority should be given to local manpower;

3. Special attention should be paid to the specific problems of coastal areas and island territories and to vulnerable rural or mountain regions, for which tourism often represents a rare opportunity for development in the face of the decline of traditional economic activities;

4. Tourism professionals, particularly investors, governed by the regulations laid down by the public authorities, should carry out studies of the impact of their development projects on the environment and natural surroundings; they should also deliver, with the greatest transparency and objectivity, information on their future programmes and their foreseeable repercussions and foster dialogue on their contents with the populations concerned;



Article 6

Obligations of stakeholders in tourism development

1. Tourism professionals have an obligation to provide tourists with objective and honest information on their places of destination and on the conditions of travel, hospitality and stays; they should ensure that the contractual clauses proposed to their customers are readily understandable as to the nature, price and quality of the services they commit themselves to providing and the financial compensation payable by them in the event of a unilateral breach of contract on their part;

2. Tourism professionals, insofar as it depends on them, should show concern, in cooperation with the public authorities, for the security and safety, accident prevention, health protection and food safety of those who seek

their services; likewise, they should ensure the existence of suitable systems of insurance and assistance; they should accept the reporting obligations prescribed by national regulations and pay fair compensation in the event of failure to observe their contractual obligations;

3. Tourism professionals, so far as this depends on them, should contribute to the cultural and spiritual fulfilment of tourists and allow them, during their travels, to practise their religions;

4. The public authorities of the generating States and the host countries, in cooperation with the professionals concerned and their associations, should ensure that the necessary mechanisms are in place for the repatriation of tourists in the event of the bankruptcy of the enterprise that organized their travel;

5. Governments have the right – and the duty - especially in a crisis, to inform their nationals of the difficult circumstances, or even the dangers they may encounter during their travels abroad; it is their responsibility however to issue such information without prejudicing in an unjustified or exaggerated manner the tourism industry of the host countries and the interests of their own operators; the contents of travel advisories should therefore be discussed beforehand with the authorities of the host countries and the professionals concerned; recommendations formulated should be strictly proportionate to the gravity of the situations encountered and confined to the geographical areas where the insecurity has arisen; such advisories should be qualified or cancelled as soon as a return to normality permits;

6. The press, and particularly the specialized travel press and the other media, including modern means of electronic communica-

tion, should issue honest and balanced information on events and situations that could influence the flow of tourists; they should also provide accurate and reliable information to the consumers of tourism services; the new communication and electronic commerce technologies should also be developed and used for this purpose; as is the case for the media, they should not in any way promote sex tourism;



Article 7

Right to tourism

1. The prospect of direct and personal access to the discovery and enjoyment of the planet's resources constitutes a right equally open to all the world's inhabitants; the increasingly extensive participation in national and international tourism should be regarded as one of the best possible expressions of the sustained growth of free time, and obstacles should not be placed in its way;

2. The universal right to tourism must be regarded as the corollary of the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay, guaranteed by Article 24 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article 7.d of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights;

3. Social tourism, and in particular associative tourism, which facilitates widespread access to leisure, travel and holidays, should be developed with the support of the public authorities;

4. Family, youth, student and senior tourism and tourism for people with disabilities, should be encouraged and facilitated;



Article 8

Liberty of tourist movements

1. Tourists and visitors should benefit, in compliance with international law and national legislation, from the liberty to move within their countries and from one State to another, in accordance with Article 13 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; they should have access to places of transit and stay and to tourism and cultural sites without being subject to excessive formalities or discrimination;

2. Tourists and visitors should have access to all available forms of communication, internal or external; they should benefit from prompt and easy access to local administrative, legal and health services; they should be free to contact the consular representatives of their countries of origin in compliance with the diplomatic conventions in force;

3. Tourists and visitors should benefit from the same rights as the citizens of the country visited concerning the confidentiality of the personal data and information concerning them, especially when these are stored electronically;

4. Administrative procedures relating to border crossings whether they fall within the competence of States or result from international agreements, such as visas or health and customs formalities, should be adapted, so far as possible, so as to facilitate to the maximum freedom of travel

and widespread access to international tourism; agreements between groups of countries to harmonize and simplify these procedures should be encouraged; specific taxes and levies penalizing the tourism industry and undermining its competitiveness should be gradually phased out or corrected;

5. So far as the economic situation of the countries from which they come permits, travellers should have access to allowances of convertible currencies needed for their travels;



Article 9

Rights of the workers and entrepreneurs in the tourism industry

1. The fundamental rights of salaried and self-employed workers in the tourism industry and related activities, should be guaranteed under the supervision of the national and local administrations, both of their States of origin and of the host countries with particular care, given the specific constraints linked in particular to the seasonality of their activity, the global dimension of their industry and the flexibility often required of them by the nature of their work;

2. Salaried and self-employed workers in the tourism industry and related activities have the right and the duty to acquire appropriate initial and continuous training; they should be given adequate social protection; job insecurity should be limited so far as possible; and a specific status, with particular regard to their social welfare, should be offered

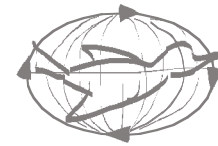
to seasonal workers in the sector;

3. Any natural or legal person, provided he, she or it has the necessary abilities and skills, should be entitled to develop a professional activity in the field of tourism under existing national laws; entrepreneurs and investors - especially in the area of small and medium-sized enterprises - should be entitled to free access to the tourism sector with a minimum of legal or administrative restrictions;

4. Exchanges of experience offered to executives and workers, whether salaried or not, from different countries, contributes to foster the development of the world tourism industry; these movements should be facilitated so far as possible in compliance with the applicable national laws and international conventions;

5. As an irreplaceable factor of solidarity in the development and dynamic growth of international exchanges, multinational enterprises of the tourism industry should not exploit the dominant positions they sometimes occupy; they should avoid becoming the vehicles of cultural and social models artificially imposed on the host communities; in exchange for their freedom to invest and trade which should be fully recognized, they should involve themselves in local development, avoiding, by the excessive repatriation of their profits or their induced imports, a reduction of their contribution to the economies in which they are established;

6. Partnership and the establishment of balanced relations between enterprises of generating and receiving countries contribute to the sustainable development of tourism and an equitable distribution of the benefits of its growth;



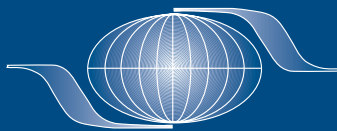
Article 10

Implementation of the principles of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism

1. The public and private stakeholders in tourism development should cooperate in the implementation of these principles and monitor their effective application;

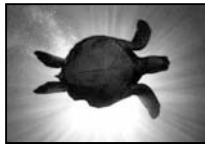
2. The stakeholders in tourism development should recognize the role of international institutions, among which the World Tourism Organization ranks first, and non-governmental organizations with competence in the field of tourism promotion and development, the protection of human rights, the environment or health, with due respect for the general principles of international law;

3. The same stakeholders should demonstrate their intention to refer any disputes concerning the application or interpretation of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism for conciliation to an impartial third body known as the World Committee on Tourism Ethics.



THE WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION is the only intergovernmental organization that serves as a global forum for tourism policy and issues. Its Members include 144 countries and territories as well as over 350 Affiliate Members from the public and private sectors. WTO's mission is to promote and develop tourism as a significant means of fostering international peace and understanding, economic development and international trade.

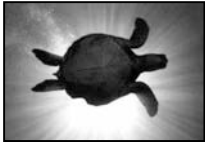
INTERNET: www.world-tourism.org



TOURISM IMPACTS AND MITIGATION

Activity	Environmental Consequences	Ecosystem Impacts	Human Health and Welfare Impacts	Mitigation
Solid waste disposal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> trash and litter pollution leaching from landfills smoke & fumes from burning degraded water quality degraded air quality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> toxicity to species degraded habitat entanglement of marine life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> public health risk economic losses (tourism) aesthetic losses cleanup costs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> plentiful supply of litter receptacles routine cleanups adequate treatment/disposal technology waste management program
Sewage disposal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> suspended solids pathogenic organisms chlorine freshwater demand eutrophication degraded water quality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> eutrophication species toxicity habitat loss 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> public health risks from pathogens & food web toxicity subsistence losses recreational losses economic losses to fisheries & tourism aesthetic degradation cleanup costs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> waste management program sewage treatment plants and infrastructure
Land use changes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> secondary development enhanced access land cover changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> over fishing & resource depletion ecosystem changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> air pollution urbanization water pollution reduced quality of life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> land use planning and controls fish catch limits public education
Tourist activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> enhanced access increased contact with local culture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> resource depletion ecosystem changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> overburdening of infrastructure aesthetic changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> siting away from sensitive areas
Employment of local residents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> labor shift to service from production round-the-clock work shifts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> loss in non-tourism production capacity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> disruption of traditional family values cultural conflicts social differentiation reliance on cash new mobility lifestyle changes dependence on imports 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> employee training upward mobility
Immigrant employees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> increased population 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> increased demand on fisher resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> housing shortages overburdening of infrastructure social gaps (outsiders fill high-level jobs) subsistence losses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> housing impact fees employee training employee interpretation educate outsiders on locals' resource needs

Source: Department of Environment and Natural Resources, Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources of the Department of Agriculture, and Department of the Interior and Local Government. 2001. *Philippines Coastal Management Guidebook Series No. 7: Managing Impacts of Development in the Coastal Zone*. Coastal Resource Management Project of the Department of Environment and Natural Resources, Cebu City, Philippines, 108 p.



Case study: Lessons learned from Tanga

Start small, with only a few priority issues that stakeholders consider most important. Learn to be effective on one or a few matters before trying to deal with every important issues, or all aspects of a single issue. The villagers themselves should have a major role in selecting priority issues.

Start with listening. Who and where are the resource users (defined as those who are causing the problem, affected by it, or part of the solution), what are they doing, what do they want to achieve? This is fundamental to building effective partnerships.

Work to achieve an effective partnership with the community. They have important roles to play. For example, villagers can effectively carry out routine patrols and inspections of gear, when most resource users come from that community only. Management officers may be needed when more than just a few resource users come from outside a community.

Use participatory approaches throughout, including resource assessments, issue identification, priority actions, decision-making. Participatory approaches between the management authority and communities are an effective way of listening and building the partnerships discussed above. In this way, knowledge from resource users and managers is used to help identify issues and possible feasible actions.

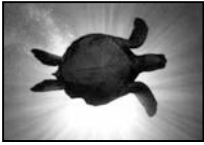
Verify conclusions reached through participatory appraisals by feedback to resource users and independent observation and measurement. Both approaches are needed at the same time.

Use transparent processes and decision-making throughout and at every level of program activities, including routine administration as well as policy. This approach is fundamental to improving management and community institutions.

Test proposed actions on a small scale before turning them into policy or strategies over a wide area. This allows management a way to try new unproven techniques. If existing methods are obviously not working, new ways of dealing with the issues may be needed, since existing methods are obviously not working.

Monitor all actions to test if they are having the desired outcome, or unexpected outcomes on both the environment, species, and people's well-being. This is part of the process of testing proposed actions: monitoring to see what effect they are having. Regular monitoring may show up mistakes before too much time and effort is spent on pursuing an ineffective technique.

Develop a pyramid of actions, whereby local people can take most actions without assistance from government or outside experts or donors. There are fewer actions that require assistance, and fewer still that need to be done by outside experts. This approach will improve empowerment and local institutions. It also assumes that funding from local and central government for protected area management will be limited - a stark reality in most developing countries. While surveys are useful in identifying activities that local residents can pursue on their own, it will be even more challenging to secure the participation of these stakeholders in actually carrying them out.



Deal with both the environment and people's well-being. Especially, deal with those aspects of people's well-being affected by the state of the environment and its resources. This is an important policy imperative of government and donors. It addresses the fundamental motivation for people's use of coastal resources. Sustainable tourism, in particular, can be an excellent motivator, because it offers local residents a financial benefit (from the tourists) for conserving the environmental resources that draw tourists.

Strengthen capacity of the management authority and in the community. Working with only one or the other will not give satisfactory results.

Allow a realistic time frame to build trust between communities and MPA staff. This process may take a year or more.

Offer user or access rights to an appropriate part of the MPA in return for management responsibility. For example, local fisher people can be granted *exclusive* or *free* rights to a certain area, where outsiders are either not allowed at all or must pay for a permit. This is a strong incentive for community participation in protected area management.

In Tanga, these principles were developed on a small scale and then applied over a large geographical area. The process took place in three phases:

Phase 1 - Understanding issues and testing solutions in pilot villages (July 1994 to June 1997). MPA managers first listened to local residents, asking them their viewpoints and opinions, without assuming that the best solutions were already known. MPA managers and local residents then tested proposed actions for coral reef management, dynamite control, mangrove restoration, alternative livelihoods, zoning, etc., in pilot villages.

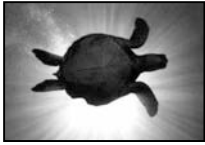
Phase 2 - Fine-tuning and adjusting the best processes identified in phase 1 (1997-2000).

Cost-sharing and financing options were investigated, and processes and actions were fine-tuned, applied to a wider range of villages. The visible and widely accepted benefits from the pilot villages of Phase 1 were used as examples to enable wider use in Phase 2.

Phase 3 - Adopting the final processes as standard mainstream practice throughout a large region. (2000-ongoing) Lessons learned and successful applications were spread widely to all villages; networks of community-based protected areas were established, institutions and government policy frameworks were changed. The program is now self-sustaining.

Excerpted and modified from:

Salm, Rodney V., John R. Clark, and Erkki Siirila. 2000. *Marine and Coastal Protected Areas: A Guide for Planners and Managers*. Third edition. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland.

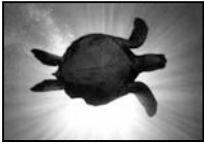


Some BENEFITS of tourism for local communities:

- 1. Sustainable income** - Tourism can provide employment directly to residents, or can fund local activities through dissemination of revenue via the MPA. Revenue may come from the same sources listed previously - access fees, concessions in the MPA, etc. - and also from tourist spending outside of the MPA, such as for lodging, food and handicrafts.

However, it is important that the community not become over-dependent on tourism. Overdependence can erode cultural values and will make the community vulnerable to fluctuations in tourism demand. In addition, local residents should not be led to expect unrealistic levels of employment. Sustainable tourism will generally *not* be an economic bonanza for an entire community, but will simply generate some jobs for a portion of the community. Many of these jobs will be part-time or seasonal.

- 2. Improved local services** - New income from within or outside the MPA can also improve health and education services. In addition to a general increase in funding across the whole community, sustainable tourism activities also can be planned to fund specific local projects, such as building a new health clinic, or funding an on-going school program.
- 3. Cultural empowerment and cultural exchange** - Tourists enjoy meeting local people and learning from traditional cultures. Community participation adds considerable value to a sustainable tourism program, and at the same time, traditional communities often feel greater self-esteem as a result of respectful interest shown by outsiders. However, the success of such visits depends on local residents being in control of the process and the situation. Language skills will also be essential to this endeavor.
- 4. Local community awareness of conservation** - It is common for people to not fully appreciate their surroundings, and to take what they have for granted. Often, it is outsiders who take a fresh look and add value to our resources. Although rural residents who have grown up among spectacular coastal areas generally understand the intricacies and value its role in their lives, many have little idea of the global importance of their natural and cultural resources until the arrival of international nature tourists, who are often highly enthusiastic about the local areas and communities. As a result, local communities may feel a sense of growing appreciation and pride, which often increases local conservation efforts. Many residents become motivated to protect their areas and may change their pattern of resource use. For example, litter on beaches may be cleaned up, and water quality better managed.



Some THREATS of tourism for local communities:

- 1. Environmental impacts** from excessive numbers of visitors may disrupt the local environment.
- 2. Economic instability** may make communities vulnerable to fluctuations in tourism demand. In addition, **price increases** may occur when visitors and local residents want the same goods and services, including groceries, gasoline, restaurants, and real estate.
- 3. Crowding** of the town, beaches, etc. can disrupt the peacefulness of the natural environment (the MPA) and also the nearby town. This negatively affects both the local residents as well as the tourists.
- 4. Excessive development** may disrupt local communities. Development occurs in two arenas: planned tourist-related development (resorts, hotels, piers, etc.), and unplanned development by locals in poor areas, due to an influx of people seeking jobs in the tourist industry. **Unplanned local development** often takes authorities by surprise and can overwhelm water, sewage, and public transport infrastructure. Regions with dense concentrations of resorts may become surrounded by shantytowns that have poor living quality for residents and also stress the local environment, for example in Cancun, Mexico, and Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
- 5. Outside control** - Outsiders may take “too much control” of tourist areas. This is a subjective judgment but is a real concern. Outside developers have financial resources and years of experience, and can squeeze out locals from the tourism market or push them into only a supporting role. Communities may resent tourism if they feel they have little control over it.
- 5. Economic leakage** - Tourism revenue may “leak” out of the area if tourists buy international goods and patronize internationally-owned businesses instead of locally produced goods and services. Some economic leakage is normal, but it must be limited. Fortunately, tourists are usually eager to support local businesses if they are given the opportunity - and if the quality of local goods and services is good.
- 6. Cultural change** - Cultural changes caused by tourism can be positive or negative, but either way, it usually occurs without the opportunity for communities to decide whether they actually want change. Some outsiders may not want indigenous populations to change; others may see them as new markets to influence. Indigenous peoples themselves may have mixed desires, such as wanting to modernize their cultures, wanting to retain traditional ways of life, or simply wanting to make a decent living, whatever changes that requires.

VISITOR USE FEES AND CONCESSION SYSTEMS IN PROTECTED AREAS:

Galápagos National Park Case Study



Ecotourism Program Technical Report
Series Number 3

April, 2001



The Nature Conservancy 
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Acknowledgements

The Ecotourism Program and the Regional Technical Unit (RTU) of the Andean and Southern Cone Region of The Nature Conservancy are grateful to the Galápagos National Park Service, especially Tourism Chief Edgar Muñoz, for its collaboration with this study.

Gratitude also goes to Alex Singer and Cory Brown for great editorial assistance.

This report was made possible thanks to generous support from the Alex C. Walker Foundation.

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This publication was made possible, in part, through support provided by the Office LAC/RSD/EHR, Bureau for Latin America and the Caribbean, U.S. Agency for International Development, under terms of Grant No. LAG-0782-A-00-5026-00. The opinions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the U.S. Agency for International Development.

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Introduction

Biodiversity conservation and sustainable use of natural resources in developing countries are priorities in the global environmental conservation agenda. Putting conservation into practice is especially difficult in developing countries, where diverse land uses compete for the same natural resources. An optimum land use from an economic perspective would be to choose the activity that gives the highest economic return over the long term. This concept is problematic, however, because many services and resources provided and supported by ecosystems have no market value. The value of most natural capital and ecosystem services is not usually represented in well-functioning markets or may not show up in markets at all (Constanza et al., 1997). As a consequence, ecosystems are exploited primarily for their marketable goods, which include fisheries, oil, timber, or are converted to other uses such as pastures or agricultural lands. Biodiversity and natural resources conservation is a land-use option that may not bring the same economic benefit as competing uses. One strategy to increase effectiveness of biodiversity conservation is to give an appropriate economic value to the services and goods provided by ecosystems that are not included in the market. The long-term maintenance of biodiversity may be secured if the conservation of natural capital becomes a competitive use of the resource.

Protected areas have been established all over the world to conserve natural resources and biodiversity for current and future generations. Funding for conservation activities in protected areas is not always available. This is especially true in developing countries, where governments often do not have resources to allocate for conservation; managers of protected areas must often find alternative ways of obtaining funds.

Protected areas provide multiple environmental services to human populations, for example, watershed protection, erosion control and nutrient cycling. It has been estimated that ecosystems worldwide provide at least US\$33 trillion worth of services every year; recreation activities provided by ecosystems are recognized a service contributing to this total (Constanza et al., 1997). It is critical to begin economic valuation of the benefits of preserving natural habitats in developing countries (Tobias and Mendelsohn, 1991). Every year, millions of people around the world visit natural areas. The revenues generated by this travel represent potential economic benefits for local people and for further conservation. Ecotourism can make an important contribution to sustainable development throughout the world, particularly in developing tropical regions (Mendelsohn, 1997). The Galápagos National Park (Galápagos NP) of Ecuador is an example where ecotourism constitutes the main source of funding for the administration and conservation of a protected area. This protected area may serve as a management model for other protected areas in developing countries.

Valuation of Protected Areas Using Ecotourism

Areas with high biodiversity value can be preserved if the value of conservation outweighs the opportunity costs and the direct costs of protection of the resource (Grossling, 1999). One method of imposing this value on an area is to develop the area as an ecotourism destination. Ecotourism is defined by The International Ecotourism Society as "responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people" (Western, 1993). The World Conservation Union (IUCN) expands this definition to "environmentally responsible travel and visitation to natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features, both past and present) that promote conservation, have a low visitor impact and provide for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local peoples" (IUCN, 1997). Ecotourism demand is directly related to the remarkable or unique natural components of an area, therefore, ecotourism can be a strong economic motivation to conserve a natural site. Efficient management of ecotourism

can help both preserve natural resources and generate a broader and more equitable distribution of associated economic benefits (Chase et al., 1998).

Recreation and cultural services world wide have been valued at US\$3.8 billion annually, of which coastal biomes account for US\$144 per hectare annually (Constanza et al., 1997). Ideally, the costs associated with managing recreational services provided by a protected area should be reflected in a visitor use fee. Several willingness-to-pay studies have shown that protected area visitors are generally willing to pay much higher visitor use fees than are currently charged in developing nations (Tobias and Mendelsohn, 1991; Maille and Mendelsohn, 1993; Menkhaus and Lober, 1996). However, developing countries typically lack the necessary experience to guide natural resource managers in designing effective pricing strategies for protected areas (Chase et al., 1998). The Galápagos National Park Service (GNPS) has been managing tourism on the islands since the 1970s and thus can provide useful insights on how successful ecotourism programs can be used to support biodiversity conservation.

Galápagos National Park

The Galápagos Islands are located in the Pacific Ocean, approximately 1,000 km from the coast of Ecuador (see Map 1). The archipelago, which includes 14 major islands and more than 107 islets and rocks, has belonged to Ecuador since 1832. The islands constitute 8,009 km² of land, of which 97% is part of the Galápagos National Park; an additional 133,000 km² of ocean are protected in the Marine Reserve (see Map 2).

Map 1 The Galápagos Islands

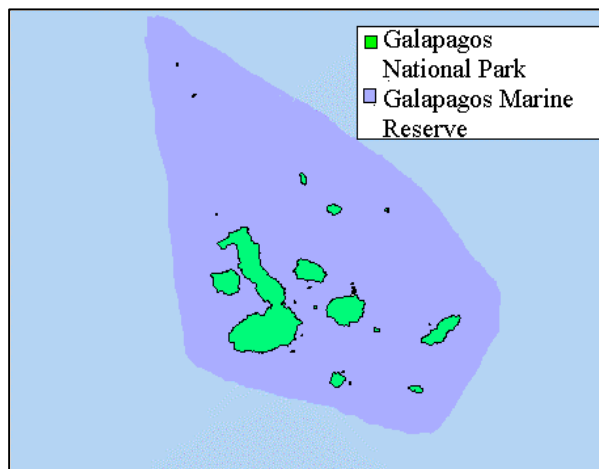


Source: ESRI, 2000

The Galápagos Islands were made famous by their important role in the development of Darwin's theory of evolution. The archipelago is characterized by a unique assemblage of flora and fauna. Plant and animal species on the islands display a high degree of endemism, as would be expected on an isolated tropical archipelago (Stattersfield et al., 1998). Ninety percent of the reptile species, 66% of birds, and 20-30% of terrestrial vegetation and marine fauna are endemic to the islands (Carrasco, 1992). Charismatic species of fauna include the giant tortoise, land and marine iguanas and large numbers of seabirds, including the bluefooted booby. It is also the principal nesting area for the waved albatross. Due to the confluence of oceanic currents, the Galápagos Islands have three distinct biogeographic regions (Rojas, 2000). These currents have given rise to a unique marine environment that supports such fauna as sea lions, fur seals, sea turtles, whales, dolphins, sharks and corals. The

unique wildlife and its fearlessness of interface with humans combine to make this one of the world's leading natural tourism attractions.

Map 2 The Galápagos National Park and Marine Reserve



Source: ESRI, 2000

Conservation efforts on behalf of the islands started in 1934 when the Ecuadorian government created a nature sanctuary and two years later prohibited the hunting of certain species (Southgate and Whitaker, 1992). In 1959, after a strong campaign led by a group of prestigious scientists, the Galápagos National Park was created and the Charles Darwin Foundation for the Galápagos Islands was born. The GNPS is the government institution managing the Galápagos NP. The Charles Darwin Research Station (CDRS), whose objective is to provide information and technical assistance to the GNPS and other branches of the government, is the operative branch of the Charles Darwin Foundation (Charles Darwin Foundation, 2000a). In 1979, UNESCO declared the Galápagos Islands National Park a World Heritage Site, and in 1985 it was declared a Biosphere Reserve. In 1986, the Galápagos Marine Resources Reserve was created, and four years later it was declared a whale sanctuary. In March 1998, the Special Law for Galápagos created the Galápagos Marine Reserve as a protected area to be managed by the GNPS. The marine reserve includes all the interior waters of the archipelago plus the waters within 40 miles of the various islands' coastlines. It is the second largest marine reserve in the world after Australia's Great Barrier Reef.

The Ecuadorian government enacted special legislation for the province of Galápagos in 1998 which aimed to promote biodiversity conservation and sustainable development (Government of Ecuador, 1998). The important changes in management and conservation of the archipelago brought about by this new law are discussed in later sections.

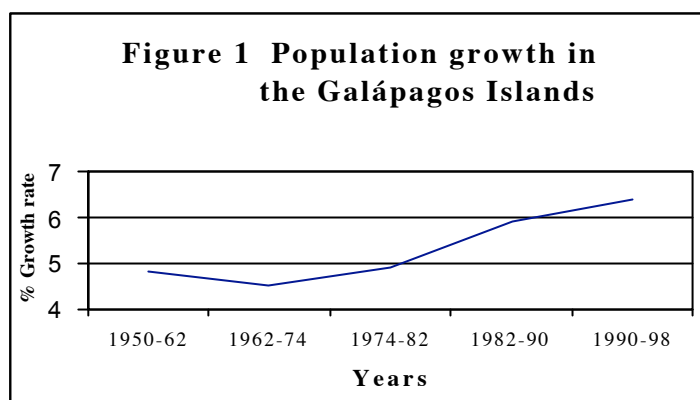
The Galápagos NP faces several threats to its ecological integrity. Introduced species present the most serious threat to the islands' ecology. For the last couple hundred years, humans have introduced and continue to introduce exotic species to the island system. This has caused disruptions in the natural ecosystems, from changes to predator-prey dynamics to extinction of endemic species (Rojas, 2000). Overexploitation of marine resources is one of the main conflicts between the local population and the GNPS. Overharvesting directly threatens important marine species such as sea cucumbers, lobsters and sharks. Illegal fishing practices and poaching also threaten sea lions, turtles, penguins and dolphins.

Pressure on the resources of the Galápagos Islands is directly linked to rapid human population growth (see Table 1). The human population of around 16,000 is spread over only the five islands of

Baltra, Santa Cruz, San Cristóbal, Isabela and Floreana. The Galápagos province has the highest rate of population growth in Ecuador (see Figure 1), mainly due to a high migration rate (Fundación Natura, 2000), itself a product of better employment opportunities and superior public services on the islands compared to mainland Ecuador (Fundación Natura, 1998).

Years	% Growth rate
1950-1962	4.8
1962-1974	4.5
1974-1982	4.9
1982-1990	5.9
1990-1998	6.4

Source: INEC, 1982, 1990, 1998



History of Tourism in the Galápagos Islands

Rare and unique places are highly valued by tourists and have often been successfully developed for ecotourism (Mendelsohn, 1997), which is the case for the Galápagos Islands. Tourism began in the archipelago in 1969 when two travel companies, Metropolitan Touring and Turismundial, were contacted by Lars Eric Lindblad and other established cruise operators (Southgate and Whitaker, 1992). The first cruise ship, the “Lina A,” arrived in the islands in 1969 (Amador et al., 1996) and tourism has been increasing continuously ever since. Though there were fewer than 5,000 visitors in 1970, the number increased to more than 66,000 in 1999 (see Table 2). The increase in tourism has seen a concomitant increase in infrastructure, e.g., boats and hotels.

Table 2 Number of visitors to Galápagos NP 1970 - 2000

Year	Foreign	Nationals	Total	Year	Foreign	Nationals	Total
1970	----	----	4579	1986	13897	12126	26023
1971	----	----	5781	1987	14826	17769	32595
1972	88	6683	6771	1988	23553	17192	40745
1973	92	6999	7091	1989	26766	15133	41899
1974	----	7500	7500	1990	25643	15549	41192
1975	N/A	7000	7000	1991	25931	14815	40746
1976	868	5432	6300	1992	26655	12855	39510
1977	1349	6439	7788	1993	36682	10136	46818
1978	1606	10693	12299	1994	40468	13357	53825
1979	9539	2226	11765	1995	40303	15483	55786
1980	13465	3980	17445	1996	45782	16113	61895
1981	12229	4036	16265	1997	48830	13979	62809
1982	11056	6067	17123	1998	50351	14440	64791
1983	10402	7254	17656	1999	53469	12602	66071
1984	11231	7627	18858	2000*	40759	12359	53118
1985	11561	6279	17840				

Sources: Carrasco, 1992; GNPS Tourism Unit, 2000

*through September 2000

Today, tourism is the main economic activity of the archipelago. Most tourists travel by air to the islands of Santa Cruz or San Cristóbal. Tours then leave from the Baltra airport near Santa Cruz or the two main port towns near the airports (Wallace, 1993). Tourism activity is most important on Santa Cruz island (Fundación Natura, 1998) because it is the commercial center of the islands and the location of the GNPS headquarters and the CDRS. The number of ships and hotels has increased since 1972 (Fundación Natura, 1998). There are 23 places to lodge on the island of Santa Cruz, 11 on San Cristóbal, six on Isabela and one on Floreana (Ministry of Tourism, 2000). Tourism is now mainly on live-aboard boats; since visitors travel largely by boat, and eat and sleep on board, the need for significant tourist infrastructure on outlying islands is greatly reduced (Wallace, 1993). In 1972, there was a single ship with the capacity of providing overnight accommodation; by 1984 there were 54 ships, and in 2000, 80 ships were registered. The passenger capacity of the ships increased from 597 in 1981, to 1,729 in 2000 (Table 3). The growing number and size of charter boats is generating a different kind of impact and leading to congestion at some visitor sites.

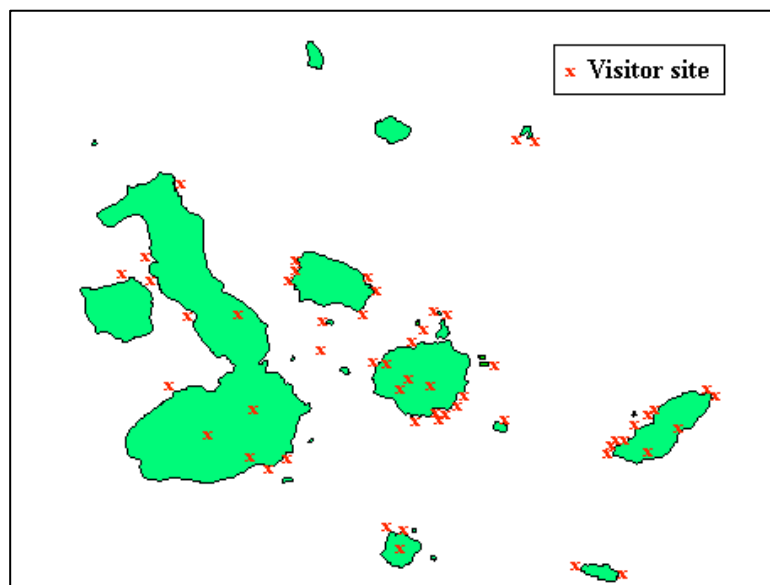
Table 3 Number of tourist boats in the Galápagos NP					
Year	1981	1995	1996	1997	2000
Number of boats	40	88	90	84	80
Total capacity of the boats	597	1446	1484	1545	1735

Sources: GNPS Tourism Unit; Fundación Natura, 1998

Tourism Management Planning in the Galápagos National Park

The GNPS assumed management of tourism on the islands in 1974, and between then and 1977 the park Management Plan led to establishment of visitor sites on many of the islands, delineation of paths and the determination that tourists be accompanied by guides (Fundación Natura, 1998). Most of the visitor sites can be accessed only by ship, so visits are primarily done in organized groups with a certified guide (Amador et al., 1996). There are currently 56 terrestrial visitor sites (see Map 3) and 62 marine visitor sites (Fundación Natura, 2000).

Map 3 Visitor sites



Source: ESRI, 2000

Since 1975, the GNPS has managed a guide certification program. Guide training courses are given in collaboration with the Charles Darwin Research Station (GNPS, 1996). Guides play a strategic role in park management; they help enforce park regulations and provide tourists with information on the conservation programs carried out by the Galápagos NP and the research station. This aspect of tourist education has helped increase visitor support of conservation activities on the islands.

Visitor Carrying Capacity

In 1973, the Management Plan of the Galápagos NP established a maximum number of 12,000 tourists per year to the islands. Due to growing demand, this number has been increased several times. In 1978, the number was increased to 14,700 visitors, and again in 1982 to 25,000. Currently, there is no limit on the total number of visitors allowed to visit the Galápagos NP. In lieu of a total visitor limit, the Management Plan established a specific carrying capacity for each of the terrestrial visitor sites, a key tool for effective management and conservation of the sites. The methodology for defining the carrying capacity was first applied in 1984 and then was improved and partially applied in 1991. In 1996, the Galápagos NP Management Plan applied a revised methodology specially suited for the unique characteristics of the Galápagos NP (Amador et al., 1996). The carrying capacity of a site is determined after studying several factors, including: timing of the visit, length of the visit, area available, erosion susceptibility, number of people in the group, precipitation and tidal patterns, and management capacity.

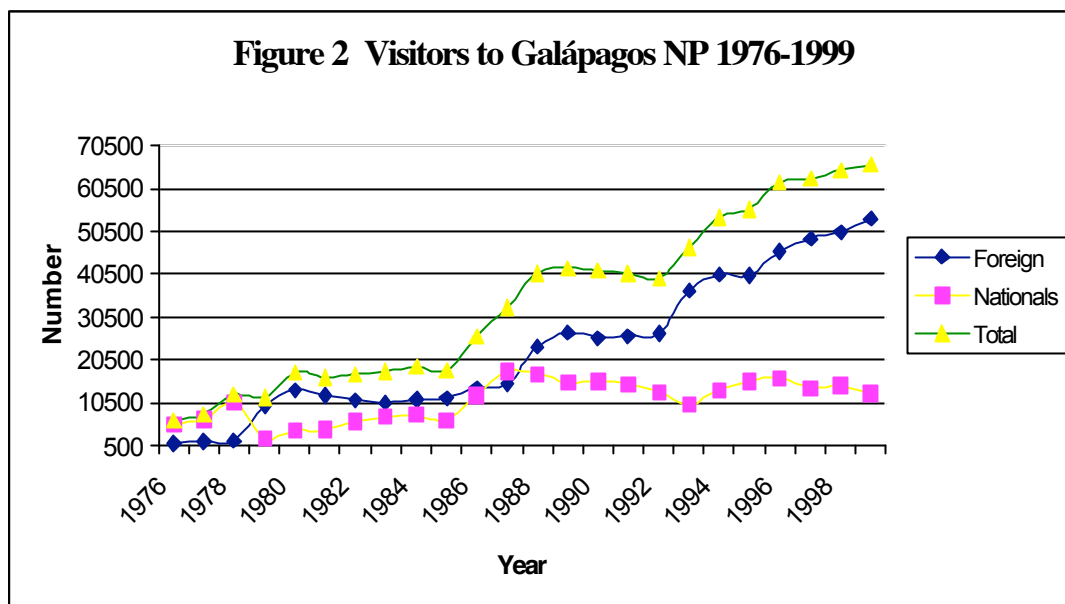
The GNPS manages the number of people visiting the sites by using a “fixed itinerary” system for ships carrying 20 or more passengers. This system, started in 1978 (Fundación Natura, 1998), initially focused on 90+ berth vessels, but in 1990 it was expanded to include all ships with more than 20 passengers (Cayot et al., 1996). Each ship annually receives a compulsory site schedule from the park, which allows the GNPS to control the number of visitors at each site. Ships with fewer than 20 passengers have an open itinerary, which gives the GNPS the flexibility to move visitors from overused sites to under-used ones. There is some flexibility in this mechanism as ships are frequently granted changes in their schedule (personal communication with Edgar Muñoz, Fundación Natura, 1998).

The Management Plan established the following use zones: absolute protection zone, primitive zone, special use zone, visitor use zone, port and adjacent protected areas zone, and rural and urban zone. Tourism activities take place in the visitor use zones (Galápagos NP, 2000), areas with low levels of disturbance and representative of the native biodiversity of the islands. These sites can withstand certain levels of visitation and have distinctive features of interest to visitors (GNPS, 1996). The visitor use zones are further divided into three categories:

- a) extensive use, i.e., sites that can hold only a few groups of visitors at a time;
- b) intensive use, i.e., sites that can hold high numbers of visitors and at a constant rate; and
- c) recreational, i.e., sites which are located close to human settlements and provide the local population with recreation opportunities (GNPS, 1996).

Visitor numbers to the Galápagos NP are controlled and monitored in three ways:

- Visitor information cards (on arrival, each visitor provides their age, nationality and other general information).
- Reports by ships on the number of tourists carried per trip.
- Reports from the guides (for each trip the guide must submit a report on the number of tourists aboard, the duration of the visit, and the sites visited).



Sources: Carrasco, 1992; GNPS, 2000

Economic Revenues from Tourism for the Galápagos National Park

The Galápagos NP has an entrance, or visitor use, fee for park visitors. The fee levels were defined by the Special Law for Conservation and Sustainable Development of the Galápagos Islands (see Table 4). Under the Galápagos NP's differential pricing system, foreign tourists pay higher fees than do Ecuadorians. As is often the case in national parks that also serve as protected areas, visitor use fees in the Galápagos NP were insufficient to cover the costs of services provided by the park. Current fee levels mark a significant increase over the past but still generate only about 25% of the Galápagos NP's budget. The underpricing of fees for tourism operators and tourists was noted to be a problem that could result in the overexploitation of the resource and provide insufficient funds to cover the costs of tourism services and conservation activities (Southgate and Whitaker, 1992). Park income was insufficient for park and marine reserve management to appropriately manage the increasing numbers of visitors (Wallace, 1993). Though the visitor use fee was increased in the last few years, particularly in 1993 (see Table 5), it did not affect visitor demand for access to the park, and visitor numbers have been increasing steadily.

Table 4 Visitor use fees for the Galápagos NP

Category	Amount in US\$
Foreign tourist (non-resident)	100
Foreign tourist under 12 years	50
Foreign tourist of a member country of the Andean Community or Mercosur	50
Foreign tourist of a member country of the Andean Community or Mercosur under 12 years	25
Citizen or resident of Ecuador	6
Citizen or resident of Ecuador under 12 years	3
Foreign tourist non-resident attending a national academic institution	25
National or foreign children under 2 years	No fee

Source: Government of Ecuador, 1998

The ships' operation license (concession) fees have also increased. In 1991, all ships paid US\$10 per berth annually (Whitaker and Southgate, 1992). Under the new law, these license fees vary from US\$50/berth per year to US\$250/berth per year according to the category of the vessel (see Table 6).

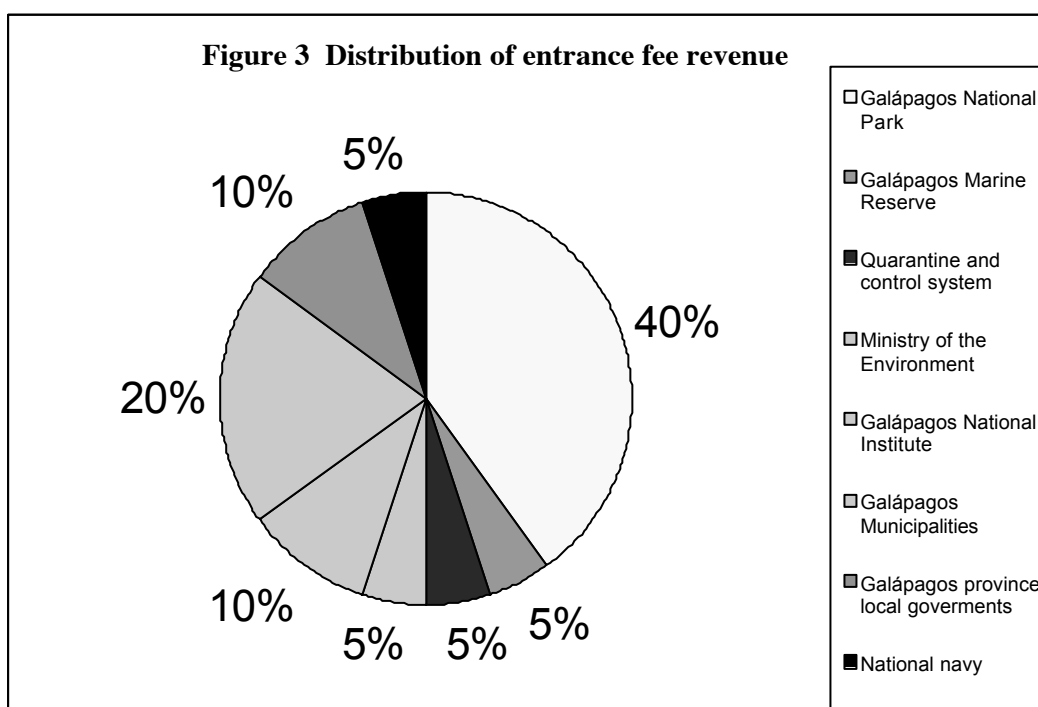
Table 5 Visitor use fees before the Special Law (US\$)		
Category	Before 1993	1993-1998
Nationals	0.55	3.00 + 2.50 municipality tax
Foreigners	40.00	80.00 + 30.00 municipality tax if enter through San Cristóbal OR 80.00 + 12.00 municipality tax if enter through Baltra

Sources: Fundación Natura, 1998; Southgate and Whitaker, 1992

Before the Special Law for the Galápagos was established, the Galápagos NP was an extremely important source of funding for INEFAN (Ecuadorian Institute of Forests, Protected Areas and Wildlife) and for the other protected areas in Ecuador (Fundación Natura, 1998). Prior to implementation of the law, an average of only 30% of visitor use fee income reverted to the budget of the GNPS, while the remainder went to INEFAN.

Table 6 Annual license fees for boats per berth (US\$)		
Type	Category	Amount
Cruise	A	250
Cruise	B	200
Cruise	C	150
Day tour	R	250
Day tour	E	50

Source: GNPS Tourism Unit



Source: Government of Ecuador, 1998

The new legislation has changed the distribution of the income generated by the visitor use fee (see Figure 3). It reduced the revenues directed to INEFAN (i.e., the Ministry of the Environment) to 5% of the visitor use fee income, and an important benefit for the conservation of the islands was achieved by allocating 45% of the visitor use fees to the management of the Galápagos NP and the Galápagos Marine Reserve. The GNPS collects the fees and makes monthly transfers to the institutions as established by the new law.

Funds designated for the inspection and quarantine of the province of Galápagos and to the national navy for control and surveillance of the Marine Reserve must be used in accordance with the Galápagos NP Management Plan. The funds channeled to the Galápagos National Institute (INGALA), the Galápagos Municipality and the Galápagos Provincial Government must be used in for purposes of education, health, athletic and environmental projects, environmental services or visitor services.

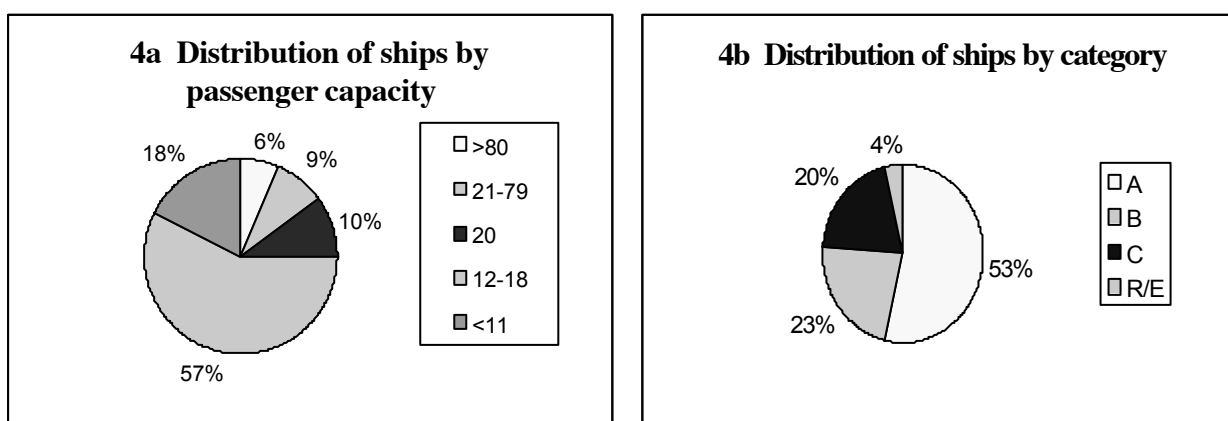
The 1999 budget of the GNPS (which includes the Marine Reserve) was US\$ 2.29 million. In 1999, visitor use fees at the Galápagos NP totaled over US\$5 million (see Table 5). Foreign tourists provided the bulk of the revenues, with Ecuadorian citizens/residents providing less than 2%. The Galápagos NP received 40% of these revenues, and the Marine reserve 5%, a total of approximately US\$2.2 million for the management of the Galápagos NP and the Marine Reserve.

Table 7 Galápagos NP budget and revenues from visitor use fees (US\$)		
Year	Revenues from Visitor Use Fees	Galápagos NP budget
1995	3,296,678	1,093,360
1996	3,722,238	1,073,747
1997	3,948,337	1,441,721
1998	3,716,630	1,802,115
1999	5,098,455	2,291,355

Source: Fundación Natura, 2000

In addition to the visitor use fees, the GNPS receives revenues from boat concession fees. Concession fees total about US\$400,000 or 8% of the income generated by the entrance fees. Each ship purchases an operation license, or concession fee, from the park. The fee is established according to the category of the ship and its authorized number of berths (see Table 6). Ships are classified according to their size, number of berths, and quality of the berths. Category A cruise ships are the most luxurious and C the least. Category R day tour boats are the most luxurious.

Figures 4a & b Passenger capacity and category of ships



Source: GNPS Tourism Unit

In 2000, there were 80 passenger ships registered with the GNPS (see Table 3). The number of ships operating in the Galápagos NP has been reduced from 90 in 1996 to 80 in 2000, but the total passenger capacity increased from 1,484 in 1996 to 1,735 in 2000 (Fundación Natura, 1999; GNPS, 2000a). Though the quota of boat concessions given by the government for the Galápagos NP cannot be increased, conflicts have arisen over the transfer and merging of concessions.

Do Visitor Use Fees and Concession Fees Adequately Value Ecosystem Services?

Ecotourism in the Galápagos NP brings important economic resources that benefit its management and conservation. The financial return improved dramatically with the legislation enacted in 1998, which addressed several failures of the previous system in relation to distribution of the visitor use fees. Through visitor use fees, tourism now provides an important economic contribution to the islands; 95% of the funds generated stay in the province of Galápagos, and 45% of those funds go directly to management of the Galápagos NP and the marine reserve. In addition, other funds collected also support conservation in the Galápagos NP.

Five percent is allocated for the inspection and quarantine system of the Galápagos province. Fee systems using differential pricing are generally supported. A resident and a foreigner may enjoy their visit equally, but due to higher income the foreigner may be willing to pay more for the visit (Lindberg, 1998).

Visitor use fees in the Galápagos NP are an attempt to value the recreational service provided by the islands. The fees are the main source of income for the GNPS and thus directly support conservation of the islands, which will maintain the integrity of this special place for future generations. Because a percentage of the revenue from the visitor use fees also reverts to local governments, the local population enjoys benefits from ecotourism and is more likely to support conservation efforts on the islands. This support is a key factor in maintaining a valuable recreational service for the visitors. The usefulness of this revenue to local people depends upon the effectiveness of the local governments in identifying and investing in beneficial policies and projects.

If the US\$5 million income from visitor use fees is used as a measure of the price paid for the recreational services of the Galápagos NP, the net present value (which is the net value of the service in current dollars over time) of recreation in the Galápagos NP is about US\$125 million, assuming a 4% real interest rate and the same visitation levels as in 1999¹. If revenues for the concession fees were added to the calculation, the net present value would be US\$135 million. This is a conservative estimate as visitor numbers have been increasing at a steady rate (see Figure 2).

The current economic resources generated by the visitor use fees and the operation licenses are not equivalent to the real recreational value of the islands to the users. The user fees currently charged were not based on a willingness-to-pay study, nor related to the cost to the park of providing tourism opportunities; consequently, there is a risk that fees currently charged are below what is a fair market price.

There has been only one study carried out in the Galápagos Islands that attempts to put a value on the recreational services provided by the Galápagos NP (Edwards, 1991). The study used a hedonic demand analysis where a demand curve is used to estimate the revenue-maximizing fee. This study estimated that the government of Ecuador could gain about US\$27 million in taxes (visitor use fees)

¹ Present value = US\$5 million (income generated per year) / 0.04 (interest rate) = US\$125,000,000

each year from tourism in the Galápagos NP, based on a visitor use fee of US\$770 and 34,722 tourist arrivals.

The attitudes of the local population towards tourism were measured using interviews (Fundación Natura, 2000). In 1997, 63% of the respondents felt that tourism was beneficial; by 1998, the number increased to 75%, and by 1999 to 79% (Fundación Natura, 2000). Another interesting result of this survey was that 35% of the interviewees thought that the local population did not have the capacity to provide tourism services. Local governments could invest part of their revenue from visitor use fees to strengthen local tourism development.

Ongoing Challenges

The current Special Law and by-laws still leave several issues unresolved. These include special regulations for tourism in protected areas, a unified system for authorization of tourism operations, establishment of a tourism advisory board, and rules for the quality of tourism services (Fundación Natura, 2000). When these missing systems are implemented, the management of tourism in the islands will be more effective. The establishment of operating systems for tourism which are compatible with the conservation of protected areas as well as quality standards for tourist services will enhance the sustainability of tourism in the region. The special regulations for tourism in protected areas will also establish a clear system for obtaining operation permits and licenses for tourism operators on the islands.

When tourism is improperly managed it can cause serious damage to natural ecosystems. The GNPS has been very keen in addressing this problem, especially regarding the negative impact an excessive number of tourists in a visit site can have on the natural ecosystem. One of the problems facing the GNPS is the overuse of some visit sites. Overused sites are those visitor sites where the visitor carrying capacity is exceeded. One of the main challenges for the park is to distribute the visitors evenly over the sites. In order to fulfill this objective, the park service must have strict control over the ships' itineraries and must obtain good data on the numbers of visitors at each site. The GNPS undertook to manage this problem, and the number of overused sites decreased from seven in 1995 to two in 1999 (Fundación Natura, 2000).

If ecotourism in the Galápagos NP and the marine reserve is to be successful, the local population must participate in the decision making and management processes. If members of the local population do not benefit from tourism, they may have the economic incentive to shift to more environmentally damaging activities such as the overexploitation of marine resources. The promotion of tourism with local participation is mandated in the Galápagos Special Law, and the GNPS is working to increase tourism with community participation. For example, the park is planning to direct more visitors to San Cristóbal and Isabela islands (personal communication with Edgar Muñoz, Fundación Natura).

The Galápagos NP is offering a service to visitors, and the data shows that there is a growing market for this service. The establishment of the visitor use fees and the operation licenses was not, however, based on an analysis of the market or a study of "willingness to pay." The GNPS must evaluate the current pricing scheme in order to set fees that reflect the market demand and that show how much users value the services offered by the protected area. There are several methods that can be used for this purpose, e.g., market evaluation, survey of tourist demand, demand curve analysis and market-based reactive management (Lindberg and Huber, 1993). It will be especially important to analyze the operation license fees, which may be too low considering how much income the tour operators gain from their operations in the Galápagos NP.

Collaboration with local governments must also continue. Thirty percent of visitor use fee revenues are allocated to local government institutions. To ensure appropriate feedback into conservation benefits, this revenue generated from recreation services provided by the park needs to be invested in activities that promote the sustainability of the local economy. The best scenario would be that work done by local governments using revenue from user fees complements the work of the GNPS through activities such as environmental education.

Conclusions

Tourism may supplement traditional conservation benefits and increase the economic justification for conservation (Lindberg and Huber, 1993). Ecotourism in the Galápagos NP has proven to be an important support for conservation activities on the islands. The two most significant means of support have been the revenue generated for park management through fee collection and the benefits enjoyed by the local population through non-extractive use of the protected area. These have been especially significant since the Special Law for the Galápagos was enacted. With the current distribution of revenues from visitor use fees, the GNPS has been able to improve its management capacity (Fundación Natura, 1999). The increase in user fees in the Galápagos NP has not affected the number of visitors, which supports the idea that at unique sites higher fees can be sustained with little or no effect on visitation levels (Lindberg, 1998).

There are several factors that must be addressed in order to have an effective income generating mechanism using visitor use fees and for these fees to support conservation in the Galápagos NP and in protected areas in general:

- The natural capital stock that produces services must be given adequate weight in the decision-making process (Constanza et al., 1997). The service provided by protected areas through recreation generates important economic resources for the local people and government. Visitor use fees in protected areas can provide funding not only for the conservation and management of the area, but also funding to strengthen local governments and to support local people. This economic benefit must be clearly shown at all levels of the decision-making process and must be used as a tool to gain political support for the conservation of protected areas. As natural sites become rare, the ecological benefits of preserving the remaining sites will only increase (Tobias and Mendelsohn, 1991).
- Other environmental services in the Galápagos Islands must also be quantified, e.g., the scientific value of the genetic resources and the value of maintaining the ecological integrity and avoiding depletion of the marine resources. Valuation of these and other services will result in the real value of the islands being considered an important factor in the decision-making process.
- Funds obtained through ecotourism must be invested in providing alternatives to local people who otherwise are likely to convert the land to other unsustainable uses (Mendelsohn, 1997). In the case of the Galápagos NP, if revenue from ecotourism is not invested in providing sustainable alternatives to local people, they will turn toward incompatible, inappropriate and unsustainable activities. Local people must receive the economic benefits from the ecotourism industry, and tourism with local participation must continue to be promoted. Investment in local development of tourism activities must be promoted along with adequate control by managers of the protected area.
- Efficient pricing of visitor use fees should be based on the point where demand for the resource equals the marginal cost of providing that resource (Lindberg, 1998). Techniques for estimating

demand for an ecotourism site should be applied in protected areas in order to set visitor use fees at a level that will bring the greatest benefits. In the Galápagos NP, methods to estimate the optimum visitor use fee (e.g., market evaluation, demand curve analysis) will help the GNPS evaluate its current pricing scheme.

- The revenue obtained from the visitor use fees must be invested in conservation of the site and in improving the management capacity of the park service. The investment of revenue in human capital is also essential. Offering continuous training and competitive wages for protected area personnel will attract high-level professionals to the conservation area. The increase in revenue from visitor use fees for the GNPS has allowed park management to improve its management capacity; for example, it is able to pay better salaries and has more financial resources available for controlling and monitoring the park.
- Effective control systems must be established in order to have precise and effective monitoring of the visitor sites. By monitoring the carrying capacity in each visitor site, protected area managers have an important set of data that should be used to avoid detrimental impacts of tourism. In the case of Galápagos NP, carrying capacity should also be determined for marine visitor sites. Tourism will benefit the park as long as it does not produce excessive negative environmental impacts and provides opportunities for local communities.

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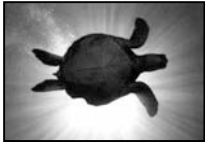
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Tourism Destination Visioning

Here are a few simple rules to follow for a visioning exercise:

When visioning, develop a checklist that includes the following components:

- Nature of the destination and tourism's role.
- People who will participate in tourism at the destination. Who do you want to come visit your site?
- Focus on what the end result should be, and not on current problems or how it is going to happen.
- Give your vision a descriptive name - e.g. "Promoting pride and knowledge of local cultural heritage"
- Try to determine what is really important to this project/goal.
- Don't criticize! Take a chance and dream about what can be.
- Identify strengths that unite the community rather than what divides it.
- Timeline - Estimate how many years/ months it could take to make the vision a reality.

Create the "total picture". It is important to think of all the potential issues, because tourism touches so many parts of a community's life.

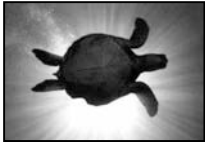
Do not get caught in the details. Often visioning exercises fail when groups become so enmeshed in the small details that they forget the overall goal. Be aware of the details and potential problems (e.g. write them down in a separate list), but stay focused on the big picture.

Leave room for change. Permit a certain amount of creativity. As new details emerge, allow yourself to change direction and think of new possibilities.

Listen to all views. Different stakeholders may have different visions. The job is to come up with an overarching vision representative of the total community.

Be patient when starting a community on the road to visioning. It is a difficult task to get people to think about the type of future they wish to develop and not get bogged down in personality clashes or details. Remember visions must be based in both creativity and in reality.

When doing visioning exercises with an entire community, be aware and **reach out to people** who are not able to speak in public, or are not participating because of literacy issues. Use visual tools like drawings and sketches to communicate to a larger segment of the community.



A Vision for Sustainable Tourism at Komodo National Park

Komodo National Park was established in the 1980s primarily as a park for protection and observations of komodo dragons. However, the park's great natural beauty and its excellent snorkelling and diving sites began to attract tourists who were interested in more than just the komodo dragons. Park management developed the following vision:

The future image of Komodo National Park will not only be identical with the charismatic features of the komodo dragons, but the very fascinating uniqueness of the savanna ecosystem and underwater life as well. It will be easy and comfortable for visitors coming to Komodo National Park to arrange their travel, including booking entrance tickets to the National Park. Komodo National Park will implement a ticketing system accommodating user pay principles through conservation fee, the results of which will be used to fund the professional and independent management of Komodo National Park. Tickets of Komodo National Park will be attractively designed and made of high quality worth serving as tokens of remembrance for visitors.

Visitors of Komodo National Park entering through Labuan Bajo can have preliminary orientations at Philemon Information Center. Visitors coming directly to the area can have their orientation at Loh Liang or Loh Buaya. The information package of Komodo National Park will also be available in CDs and printed media. Orientation and interpretive programs can be presented outside the information center on requests. All visitor centers or information centers are managed by professionals who have received interpretive trainings. Movies are periodically shown at Philemon Information Center presenting films supporting the interpretive themes of Komodo National Park.

To enter the area of Komodo National Park, visitors can use sea transportation, including local tour boats – certified by Indonesian sea travel safety standards and holding operational permits issued by Komodo National Park. Strict regulation and monitoring will be applied regarding the number of tour boats moored at the visitor pier. Visitors can also directly enter the area by helicopter, landing at a designated location. Activities and services of nature tourism at Komodo National Park will be professionally operated and provided. Activities and services – including facilities and infrastructures – that will be provided for visitors at popular sectors such as Loh Liang, Pantai Merah (Pink Beach) and Loh Buaya, will be managed by a private business company (PT Putri Naga Komodo). Meanwhile, activities and services at other sectors will be continuously updated to meet the required standard through a collaborative management system.

Considering that several wildlife species inhabiting the National Park, such as the komodo dragons, poisonous snakes, feral buffaloes and horses, and wild pigs, are dangerous for visitors, it will be required that at all times visitors doing land activities in the park will be accompanied by trained park rangers, who are also competent as

interpreters. Besides by park rangers, visitors could also be guided by interpreters certified as nature guides of different levels and licensed to operate as interpreters in Komodo National Park. In this way, visitors could learn a lot about natural history, obtain nature comprehension and life inspiration.

As token of remembrance of their valuable visit to Komodo National Park, visitors can purchase various interesting souvenirs at specific places designed according to the building style of West Manggarai. Souvenir merchants, as well as interpreters and other service providers, wear identity tags and sell their goods in a friendly and honest manner in accordance with the ethical codes jointly agreed upon by stakeholders and the National Park. This is a form of commitment to involve the local people in the development of nature tourism.

The management of Komodo National Park, especially the management of its visitors, will be committed to serve visitors' needs of natural life experiences in a responsible way. All nature tourism activities – diving, snorkeling, hiking, etc. – and services will be undertaken in accordance with responsible guidelines of activities and tour operations. Visitor complaints and suggestions will be correctly accepted, channeled, integrated and responded by the management. The responsible operation of nature tourism will be undertaken through various efforts, starting with systematic monitoring of the impacts of nature tourism to the implementation of a fining system on violators of rules applied by Komodo National Park.

To establish a professional and independent Komodo National Park, within the next five years, every effort will be undertaken gradually with clear benchmarks, while still keeping the competence of an adaptive management. The collaborative management will make Komodo National Park a model of appropriate management of national park and World Heritage Sites within the scope of developing countries.

Modified from: Public Use Document - Komodo National Park. 2005.