Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites: a Practical Manual for World Heritage Site Managers

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a Practical Manual for World Heritage Site Managers

By Arthur Pedersen
Disclaimer

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It is an inevitable destiny: the very reasons why a property is chosen for inscription on the World Heritage List are also the reasons why millions of tourists flock to those sites year after year. In fact, the belief that World Heritage sites belong to everyone and should be preserved for future generations is the very principle on which the World Heritage Convention is based. So how do we merge our convictions with our concerns over the impact of tourism on World Heritage sites? The answer is through sustainable tourism. Directing governments, site managers and visitors towards sustainable tourism practices is the only way to ensure the safekeeping of our world's natural and cultural heritage.

In 2002, the international community's virtually "undivided attention" was focused on tourism and its impact on our cultural and natural heritage. It started with the United Nations declaration of 2002 as the "Year for Cultural Heritage". Then in May, Quebec City hosted the first ever World Ecotourism Summit, whose Declaration on the development of Ecotourism in the context of sustainable development was later delivered at the Johannesburg World Summit. In November, "heritage, tourism and development" is one of the focuses of the International Congress in Venice on the occasion of the 30th anniversary of the World Heritage Convention. Through the publication of this manual, we aim to harness this momentum by putting all of the ideas, theories and plans for sustainable tourism into action.

By learning to "tread lightly" on the earth, not only are we ensuring the future of World Heritage sites but also the future of tourism. It's a win-win situation for everyone involved: the site is better protected and maintained, the tourist experiences a more pleasant visit, and the local economy is boosted as a result.

Tourism is an important management issue at both natural and cultural World Heritage sites. It is an industry with well-known costs but also with the potential for aiding protection efforts. We recognize this potential and are convinced that by engaging, and by taking appropriate actions at the different levels of the sustainable tourism process, tourism can be managed to generate net site benefits. This manual outlines a process to guide site managers toward this end.

The first in a series of “how to” World Heritage manuals, it is dedicated to the men and women who give their heart and soul everyday to protecting our world’s priceless treasures.

Finally, I thank TEMA and UNEP for supporting the Centre's initiative to elaborate a user-friendly Manual for World Heritage Site Managers.

Francesco Bandarin
Director, UNESCO, World Heritage Centre
Paris, France
I am proud to present this manual, another valuable contribution to the International Year of Ecotourism in 2002. Tourism is one of the world’s largest industries, with almost 700 million international tourists in 2002, and can become an essential tool in the challenge to overcome biodiversity losses and eradicate poverty, particularly in sensitive ecosystems and protected areas. The basic fact is that a healthy social and natural environment is the first and most important asset for this global industry. It makes business sense for tourism stakeholders to be natural allies of sustainability.

Protected areas, particularly World Heritage sites, are some of tourism’s main attractions, and are subject to growing visitation. World Heritage sites are outstanding cultural and natural landscapes covering all kinds of ecosystems, which are carefully selected through a process resulting from a 1972 multilateral agreement involving 175 countries. Maintaining such sites requires adequate practices to guarantee environmentally sound management of the park and at the same time to ensure that local communities benefit from the park’s existence.

The potential economic benefits that tourism can bring do not materialize without careful planning. Indeed, uncontrolled tourism development can have major negative impacts on these jewels of humanity’s heritage. World Heritage site managers are often inadequately prepared to deal with the challenges of visitation and to negotiate with the complex tourism industry. Their background most often lies in forestry, public environmental management and biological sciences. Thus, concepts such as business management, marketing, and entrepreneurial risk management are still relatively new to many site managers. A practical, case-specific approach is used in the manual to explain these and other subjects, so that park managers can design and develop visitation according to the needs and limits of a site’s master plans.

In 2002, UNEP, IUCN and the World Tourism Organization published a book entitled “Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas” written by Dr. Paul Eagles of the World Commission on Protected Areas, with the contribution of many other international experts. This book aims at building a better understanding of issues related to tourism in protected areas and providing guidelines on how to address them. The present manual effectively complements the previous publication: it addresses the specific needs of World Heritage site managers and guides them through the visitor planning and management process. It is one more milestone in UNEP’s long collaboration with UNESCO on improving benefits to protected areas through sustainable tourism. I am sure it will result in increased cooperation and partnerships among World Heritage site managers, the tourism industry, local communities, governments and travelers.

Jacqueline Aloisi de Larderel
Assistant Executive Director
Director, Division of Technology, Industry and Economics,
United Nations Environment Programme
It can be easy with all the other tourism manuals around to ask why write another. This of course is a legitimate question that should be addressed by the author.

The answer is quite simple: this manual comes out of a desire to see just what is being done in the field, trying to make sense of it all, comparing it to my own experience, and putting what I learned in a style of language hopefully everyone can understand. Having worked in visitor management and planning for many years, I wanted to know what we have discovered in using tourism as a tool to benefit conservation.

In fact this manual is just the start of a projected series of manuals for World Heritage site managers on tourism issues. Why the focus on World Heritage sites? Perhaps this is best explained by a question from the Chief of the Natural Heritage Section of the World Heritage Centre, Natarajan Ishwaran, who once asked, “If we can’t save World Heritage sites, what can we save?” I have taken this to heart. As I continue to work with World Heritage sites I have come to realize the important role of the World Heritage Convention.

What this manual does, and why it may be different than others, is that it synthesizes the logical and holistic process of tourism and visitor management reflected in management literature. It has been my experience that if one understands the process of a subject and has a global vision of how things fit together, it is much easier to wade through the array of technical details that compose most modern fields. Without this knowledge, those who aren’t specialists can get lost in the complexity.

Successful, sustainable tourism calls for a process of close engagement. It involves having clear ideas on goals and objectives, knowing where you want to go, setting these goals and objectives within the constraints of legal and social rules and then negotiating with relevant interest groups to try to incorporate their needs into the mix. It also means continually monitoring to see if these elusive targets are being reached and, if they are not, deciding what actions to take to get the programme back on track. This whole process is simple in theory but difficult to implement and sustain in practice.

Someone once said to me that, “Ideas should feel like affinities and not impositions”, and I have tried, with the help of my fine editor Gina Dogget to gear the text to this end.

Arthur Pedersen
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Tourism is one of the world’s largest industries. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimates that tourism generates some 12% of the world total GNP. With studies predicting continued growth, tourism is an increasingly important factor in the planning and management at UNESCO World Heritage sites.

While no formal data have been collected, a site’s inscription on the World Heritage List often coincides with a boost in visitation rates. Even at current rates, tourism is an important issue at World Heritage sites. A 1993 UNESCO-United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) study showed that most managers of natural sites regard it as a key issue. Interviews and surveys carried out by the World Heritage Centre at cultural sites have revealed similar concerns.

Tourism offers well-known advantages. Visitor fees, concessions and donations provide funds for restoration and protection efforts. Visitors may be recruited as friends of a site and can help generate international support. Tour operators and hotel chains can play a role in the management of a site by making financial contributions, aiding monitoring efforts, or instructing their clients in responsible tourism. Tourism can also promote cultural values by supporting local handicrafts or by offering alternative economic activities.

On the downside, tourism spawns well-known problems. Managing rapid tourism growth is a time-consuming process demanding clear policies, ongoing dialogue with stakeholders, and constant monitoring. Tourism activities require environmental impact assessments (EIAs) and procedures for minimising impacts. At sites with limited budgets and staff, growing tourism can stretch scarce resources and take managers away from protection efforts.

While tourism can contribute to protection and restoration efforts, the right balance between economic gain and undesirable impacts can be elusive. Managers know that a tourist attraction must be periodically renewed to remain competitive. In the case of World Heritage sites, they are also aware that they are under an international obligation to maintain or restore the site’s original values. This responsibility poses difficult questions regarding the degree of change that should be permitted to accommodate tourism growth. Another problem is ensuring that a portion of tourism revenue remains in the community as a means of fostering local protection, conservation and restoration efforts.

To meet these and other challenges, managers have requested training and information on World Heritage as well as concrete examples of procedures for addressing tourism planning issues. The World Heritage Centre has responded by increasing its support for training in tourism management skills, including the publication of this manual.

The manual addresses the needs identified by site managers and training centres. It provides a set of management methodologies and practices intended to help managers to solve tourism problems. It also establishes a common terminology with the aim of facilitating communication and information exchange among managers. Subjects include UNESCO, the World Heritage Convention and the World Heritage Centre, the tourism industry, working with the public, carrying capacity issues, tourism impacts, visitor management strategies, and interpretation and promotion; several of these subjects are illustrated by short case studies.

The manual also offers a set of tools applicable to designing surveys, monitoring policy and management implementation, promoting sites and communicating with stakeholders. Managers can select the procedures that are appropriate for different sites, and adapt them accordingly.
Readers will note that the manual addresses tourism at both cultural and natural sites. While visitor management poses different issues depending on whether a site is cultural or natural, the two types of sites have many concerns in common, including setting goals and objectives, working with stakeholders, dealing with issues of carrying capacity, and interpretation and promotional activities. Moreover, many World Heritage sites, though listed as either natural or cultural, protect both types of resources.

Experience has shown that visitor management is a balancing act requiring the establishment of a tourism policy based on conservation and preservation goals that will be supported by all stakeholders, while respecting legal mandates, encouraging ongoing debate and monitoring tourism activities. This manual attempts to bring these many factors together, to provide managers with a practical framework on which to base their efforts.
The World Heritage Convention

Galápagos Islands, Equador

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1.1 The World Heritage Convention

1.1.1 The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, signed in Paris on November 16, 1972, is an international agreement through which nations join together to conserve a collection of the world’s timeless treasures. Each country, or “State Party” to the Convention recognises its primary duty to ensure the identification, protection, conservation and transmission to future generations of the cultural and natural heritage situated on its territory.

To date, more than 170 States Parties have signed the World Heritage Convention, making it one of the most powerful protection instruments in the world. It is the only international legal instrument for the protection of both cultural and natural sites encouraging cooperation among nations for safeguarding their heritage.

1.1.2 The intergovernmental World Heritage Committee includes 21 States Parties elected for a term of six years by the General Assembly of the States Parties to the World Heritage Convention. The Committee is responsible for implementing the Convention and determines which sites to include on the World Heritage List based on the recommendations of two advisory bodies: the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) for cultural sites, and the World Conservation Union (IUCN) for natural sites. A third advisory body, the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (ICCROM), provides expert advice on monument restoration and the management of cultural heritage. It also organises training for specialists.

The six member Bureau of the World Heritage Committee, which helps the Committee to interpret the Convention, meets twice a year to evaluate requests for site inscriptions and financial assistance. The Committee and its Bureau examine “state of conservation” reports regarding sites already inscribed on the World Heritage List. Both the Committee and the Bureau make recommendations to States Parties on site conservation and provide technical or financial assistance, as appropriate and within the available budget, to ensure the protection of the integrity and authenticity of sites.

Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage

EXCERPTS

... in view of the magnitude and gravity of the new dangers threatening them, it is incumbent on the international community as a whole to participate in the protection of the cultural and natural heritage of outstanding universal value, by the granting of collective assistance which, although not taking the place of action by the State concerned, will serve as an effective complement thereto.

Each State Party to this Convention recognises that the duty of ensuring the identification, protection, conservation, presentation and transmission to future generations of the cultural and natural heritage situated on its territory, belongs primarily to that State.

... the States Parties to this Convention recognise that such heritage constitutes a world heritage for whose protection it is the duty of the international community as a whole to cooperate.

An Intergovernmental Committee for the Protection of the Cultural and Natural Heritage of Outstanding Universal Value, called “the World Heritage Committee”, is hereby established within (UNESCO).

The Committee shall establish, keep up to date and publish, whenever circumstances shall so require, under the title of “List of World Heritage in Danger”, a list of the property appearing in the World Heritage List for the conservation of which major operations are necessary and for which assistance has been requested under this Convention.

Any State Party to this Convention may request international assistance for property forming part of the cultural or natural heritage of outstanding universal value situated within its territory.

The Convention protects hundreds of sites of “outstanding universal value” — including cultural, natural and mixed sites. To be included on the World Heritage List, a property must meet one or more of the specific cultural or natural criteria, and its value(s) must withstand the test of authenticity and/or integrity. The Convention sets four criteria for natural sites and six for cultural sites as a means of determining values by which a property may be designated a World Heritage site.

1.1.3 An application for a site to be inscribed on the World Heritage List must come from the State Party. The application includes a plan detailing how the site is managed and protected, a description of the site’s World Heritage values and justification for inscribing it on the World Heritage List. The World Heritage Committee decides to inscribe a site on the List after examining the evaluations conducted by ICOMOS and/or IUCN.
1.1.4 World Heritage sites are placed on the List of World Heritage in Danger when the World Heritage Committee decides that a site is threatened by existing or potential threats, such as degradation from uncontrolled urbanisation or unsustainable exploitation of natural resources. The Committee can be alerted to possible dangers to a World Heritage site, and then decide in consultation with the State Party whether to place it on the List of World Heritage in Danger.

The List of World Heritage in Danger can serve as a conservation tool, giving countries access to international technical assistance. It is also a way to rally political and public support for conservation of an endangered site at the national level.

1.2 Responsibilities

1.2.1 Responsibilities of the State Party. Once a site is inscribed on the World Heritage List, the State Party’s primary responsibility is to maintain the values for which the site was inscribed. Article 5 of the Convention calls for each State Party to ensure the protection, conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage situated on its territory by taking appropriate legal actions. The Convention urges governments to “adopt a general policy which aims to give the cultural and natural heritage a function in the life of the community and to integrate the protection of that heritage into comprehensive planning programmes”. Recommendations include taking into account local and national plans, forecasts of population growth or decline, economic factors and traffic projections, as well as taking preventive measures against disasters.

1.2.2 Responsibilities of the World Heritage Centre. The World Heritage Centre, established in 1992, is the working secretariat of the statutory bodies of the Convention. It helps States Parties to implement the Convention and develop and strengthen local and national capacities for long-term protection and management of the sites. The Centre coordinates the exchange of international expertise and assistance, collects anddiffusesinformation on the status of World Heritage sites and maintains databases including the nomination dossiers of all World Heritage sites. The Centre works in close cooperation with the States Parties, advisory bodies and UNESCO’s Cultural, Science, Educational, Social and Human Science and Communication sectors. In addition, the Centre develops information material for the media, decision-makers, local authorities, the private sector, local communities and site managers. The information is available in printed form and on the Internet.

1.3 World Heritage Centre guidance

1.3.1 Tourism-related activities carried out by the World Heritage Centre. The World Heritage Centre is engaged in a number of tourism-related activities including carrying out missions to examine tourism development projects affecting a site’s inscribed values. Such missions have included evaluations of the impact of helicopter flights at the Τσατσιώρα θάλασα Πάνινος of tourism on wildlife in the Galapagos Islands; cable car projects at Machu Picchu, Peru; and at Morne Trois Piton National Park in Dominica; and the reduction and management of tourist flows at the Alhambra, Generalife and Albayzin sites in Granada, Spain.

1.3.2 Management of self-employed tourism. The World Heritage Centre is the focal point within the UN system for the conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage of humanity. It organises technical seminars and workshops, develops teaching material, gives forecasts of population growth or decline, economic factors and traffic projections, as well as taking preventive measures against disasters.

1.3.3 Protection of cultural and natural heritage sites. The World Heritage Centre is the focal point within the UN system for the conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage of humanity. It organises technical seminars and workshops, develops teaching material, gives expert advice on conservation of cultural properties and training activities. The World Conservation Union (IUCN), another intergovernmental agency set up by UNESCO in 1948 and headquartered in Gland, Switzerland, advises the Committee on the selection and conservation of the natural heritage sites.

UNESCO’s role as the Secretariat to the World Heritage Committee is specifically mentioned in the Convention. To coordinate the activities related to World Heritage, which have been undertaken by the different services of UNESCO since the inception of the Convention, the Director-General of UNESCO established the World Heritage Centre in 1992 as the focal point within the Organisation. The Centre administers the World Heritage Fund, updates the World Heritage List and database, and organises meetings of the Convention’s statutory bodies such as the World Heritage Committee. It also organises technical assistance on request from States Parties, mobilises international cooperation, especially for emergency actions when World Heritage sites are threatened, and coordinates the reporting on sites’ conditions. Organisation of technical seminars and workshops, development of teaching material to raise public awareness of
The World Heritage Convention

World Heritage concepts and keeping the media informed on related issues are also among the tasks carried out by UNESCO’s World Heritage Centre. The Centre works in close collaboration with other entities within the Organisation and other specialised institutions.

The World Heritage Convention exerts a continuing influence on tourism policies. In the Galapagos Islands, experts supported by the World Heritage Fund contributed to policies for optimal tourist flows to the islands and measures for reducing visitors’ impact on the site. Elsewhere, for example at the El Vizcaino World Heritage site in Mexico, sustainable tourism has been suggested as an alternative to economic activities that threaten a site.

Centre staff also provide support for regional workshops on World Heritage and the management of protected areas. Tourism is a major point of discussion at most workshops. Some are specifically focused on tourism issues, such as a workshop on sustainable tourism in Hue, Vietnam, in 1993 and one on tourism and local communities in Bhaktapur, Nepal, in 2000. In 1993, the Centre, along with UNEP, carried out a study entitled Managing Tourism in World Heritage Natural Sites. Survey information from this study showed that site managers regard tourism as a key management issue. Such findings gave direction for efforts such as this manual, which was compiled in collaboration with UNEP and the Swedish tourism firm TEMA.

Criteria for the Inclusion of Cultural Properties on the World Heritage List

The criteria for the inclusion of cultural properties on the World Heritage List are considered in the context of Article 1 of the Convention, that is reproduced below:

- **monuments:** architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;
- **groups of buildings:** groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science;
- **sites:** works of man or the combined works of nature and of man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological points of view.

A monument, group of buildings or site -- as defined above -- which is nominated for inclusion on the World Heritage List will be considered to be of “outstanding universal value” for the purpose of the Convention when the Committee finds that it meets one or more of the following criteria and the test of authenticity. Each property nominated should therefore:

(i) represent a masterpiece of human creative genius; or
(ii) exhibit an important interchange of human values, over a span of time or within a cultural area of the world, on developments in architecture, monumental arts or town-planning and landscape design; or
(iii) bear a unique or at least exceptional testimony to a cultural tradition or to a civilization which is living or which has disappeared; or
(iv) be an outstanding example of a type of building or architectural ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history; or
(v) be an outstanding example of a traditional human settlement or land-use which is representative of a culture (or cultures), especially when it has become vulnerable under the impact of irreversible change; or
(vi) be directly or tangibly associated with events or living traditions, with ideas, or with beliefs, with artistic and literary works of outstanding universal significance (the Committee considers that this criterion should justify inclusion in the List only in exceptional circumstances or in conjunction with other criteria cultural or natural).

Criteria for the Inclusion of Natural Properties on the World Heritage List

In accordance with Article 2 of the Convention, the following is considered as “natural heritage”:

“natural features consisting of physical and biological formations or groups of such formations, which are of outstanding universal value from the aesthetic or scientific point of view; geological and physiographical formations and precisely delineated areas which constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation; natural sites or precisely delineated natural areas of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty.”

A natural heritage property -- as defined above -- which is submitted for inclusion on the World Heritage List, will be considered to be of “outstanding universal value” for the purposes of the Convention when the Committee finds that it meets one or more of the following criteria, and fulfils the conditions of integrity set out below. Sites nominated should therefore:

(i) be outstanding examples representing major stages of earth’s history, including the record of life, significant ongoing geological processes in the development of landforms, or significant geomorphic or physiographic features; or
To boost management effectiveness, the Centre is setting up an information web site that will enable managers to share case studies and best practices, from which they may select and adapt approaches as appropriate for their sites. Along with other UNESCO units, the Centre supports the ICOMOS Charter for Sustainable Cultural Tourism. These guidelines include a complete outline of cultural tourism policies that can aid policy development at the country and site level. Many of the recommendations can be adapted for natural areas.

1.3.2 Operational Guidelines. The Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of the World Heritage Convention set out the steps that States Parties must take to fulfil the protection obligations. The guidelines contain information on the requirements for monitoring, use of the World Heritage logo and opportunities for technical, training, preparatory and emergency assistance. At the site level, the Operational Guidelines can provide information on the assistance available to managers through the World Heritage network.

1.3.3 Promotional and educational materials available through the Centre include a set of 30 exhibition panels explaining the World Heritage Conservation process, from identifying a potential site through to its inscription and management. These can be used freely of copyright restrictions for non-commercial purposes. They may be downloaded as PDF files, or obtained directly from the Centre. The themes and texts of some of the panels are as follows:

- Tourism and site management
- Sustainable tourism: balancing the best of both worlds
- World Heritage sites attract tourists, and tourism is the world’s biggest and fastest growing industry. What will be the cost of this tremendous boom to the integrity of the sites?
- Cultural landscapes: people and nature interacting
- As part of the effort to make the World Heritage List more universal and representative, the concept of cultural landscapes was elaborated in 1992 to recognise significant interactions between people and the natural environment.
- The Cities Project: vision for the 21st century
- As a centre of civility and urbanity, as a place of exchanges and encounters, throughout time, cities have played a vital role in the development of civilisation.
- World Heritage in young hands
- Only by instilling a deep sense of responsibility in young people towards the World Heritage can we be confident that the planet’s cultural and natural diversity will endure into the future.

Also of interest is an educational resource kit for teachers entitled, “World Heritage in Young Hands”. The kit is published in Arabic, Chinese, English, French, and Spanish with more than 20 other language versions under preparation. The kit is available on the UNESCO WHC web site and for sale at UN and UNESCO bookstores in English, Spanish, and French.

A number of films on World Heritage sites have been produced. Information is available through the World Heritage Centre.

1.3.4 Use of the World Heritage emblem. The emblem has fund-raising potential that can be used to increase the marketing value of products with which it is associated. It symbolises the Convention, signifies the States Parties’ adherence to the Convention, and serves to identify sites inscribed on the World Heritage List. The emblem should be used to further the aims of the Convention and enhance knowledge of the Convention world-wide. It should not be used for unauthorised commercial purposes. The Operational Guidelines include directions on the use of the emblem by World Heritage sites and other contracting parties, especially those operating for predominantly commercial purposes.

1.4 Monitoring activities involving site managers

1.4.1 Reactive monitoring. Several types of monitoring at World Heritage sites can involve site managers. When a site faces a threat, the World Heritage Committee or the State Party may request reactive monitoring. On the basis of reactive monitoring reports, the World Heritage Committee makes recommendations for addressing the problems. These recommendations are used where necessary to direct appeals for international assistance. This can include funding for studies on alternative economic activities that would be less damaging to the site, such as a sustainable tourism programme. Reactive monitoring missions are organised by the World Heritage Centre and are carried out by international experts.
The Purposes of Periodic Reporting

To ensure the efficient implementation of the World Heritage Convention, it is essential that all the actors involved have access to up-to-date information on the application of the Convention and on the state of conservation of World Heritage properties.

To establish this information, the World Heritage Committee made a number of decisions regarding periodic reports at its 22nd session held in 1998. In accordance with Article 29 of the World Heritage Convention, the State Parties to the Convention will provide periodic reports, which will give information “on the legislative and administrative provisions which they have adopted and other action which they have taken for the application of this Convention, together with details of the experience acquired in this field”.

Periodic reporting is intended to provide:

• an assessment of the application of the World Heritage Convention by the State Party;
• an assessment as to whether the World Heritage values of the properties inscribed on the World Heritage List are being maintained over time;
• updated information about the changing circumstances and state of conservation of the properties; and
• a mechanism for regional cooperation and exchange of information and experiences between States Parties concerning the implementation of the Convention and World Heritage conservation.

1.4.2 Periodic reporting. Periodic reports are submitted by the States Parties every six years on the state of conservation of World Heritage sites. The World Heritage Centre can assist States Parties in preparing the reports. State Parties are also asked to submit reports and impact studies when large-scale work is undertaken at the sites, which may have an effect on the state of conservation. Proactive strategies are being developed for each of the regions for monitoring heritage.

The World Heritage Committee has opted for a regional approach to periodic reporting as a means of promoting regional collaboration and strategies. Each regional strategy is to result in a Regional State of the World Heritage Report.

The periodic report consists of two sections. Section I covers the State Party’s overall application of the World Heritage Convention, including its efforts to identify properties of cultural and/or natural value; the protection, conservation and presentation of the cultural and natural heritage; international cooperation and fund-raising; and education, information and awareness building.

Section II reports on the state of conservation of the sites. The main objective is to demonstrate whether the World Heritage values for which a property was inscribed on the World Heritage List have been maintained over time. All States Parties are requested to provide updated information on site management, factors affecting the property and monitoring arrangements.

1.5 Implications and recommendations

• A tourism strategy must respect the values for which the site was inscribed. The documentation that was prepared for the site’s nomination can provide direction for setting policy. (This subject is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.) Dossiers compiled for site nomination can be obtained through the Centre or through the State Party.

• Classification as a World Heritage site helps to attract donor organisations. Proposals should always highlight the site’s original values as a point of reference.

• Monitoring carried out at World Heritage sites should involve site managers. Quantitative monitoring can be especially worthwhile. Governments are aware of both the economic benefits that tourism can generate and the economic potential of World Heritage sites. Thus, concrete data demonstrating the benefits of tourism deriving from the site’s World Heritage designation can foster cooperation in monitoring efforts between the Centre, the government and the site.

Suggested Activities

1. Review the site’s inscription dossier to help formulate future policy and management objectives.
   • If the inscription dossier is not already a part of the site’s reference library, request a copy from the relevant government authority or the World Heritage Centre.
   • Analyse how the site’s listing criteria should be reflected in its overall tourism policy and management objectives.
   • Develop these ideas along with members of staff and produce an outline that can be used for later policy development.

2. List ways in which the site’s World Heritage values could be reflected and incorporated into interpretation programmes.
   • Review the criteria for which the site was selected for inscription on the World Heritage List, as well as the site’s established policy and management objectives.
   • Select the species, monuments, art, etc., which are strongly identified with the site’s World Heritage values.
   • With staff, describe how these attractions can be best represented in interpretation materials.

3. List ways to monitor tourist attractions representing World Heritage values.
Review the section of the World Heritage Convention application form entitled “Format for Periodic Reporting”.
Review the original nomination dossier and contact the government authorities in charge of periodic monitoring so as to increase coordination.
Determine which elements of the site best represent World Heritage values and attract tourists, and state changes that may be appropriate in the request for periodic monitoring reporting data.

Suggested Reading

The Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage UNESCO World Heritage Centre, Paris, France, WHC-2001/WS/2


Format for the periodic reporting on the application of the World Heritage Convention, UNESCO World Heritage Centre, Paris, France, WHC-99/WS/4


See: http://whc.unesco.org
The Tourism Industry: Implications for Managers

Angkor, Cambodia
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2.2 International tourism markets

The tourism market comprises three general classifications:
- the independent travel market,
- the speciality activity market, and
- the general package-holiday market.

Independent travellers are not part of organised groups but travel alone or in small groups of friends. They travel either out of a general interest or because they want to practise a certain activity in a new and different environment. Most independent travellers are young and adventurous, willing to use rustic accommodations, eat traditional foods, and take public transport. Independent travellers also get much of their information on a tourist destination either from friends who have visited the area or through guidebooks, newspaper and magazine articles, or, increasingly, from the Internet. Many in the tourism industry discount these tourists because they tend to travel cheaply, falling into the category of the budget-conscious “backpacking crowd”. In reality, independent travellers are “explorers” who are often responsible for popularising a destination. Their financial input is often enough to enable local businesses to expand and improve rustic accommodations for more demanding tourist groups. Such travellers, often young, are more willing to use local goods and services, and interact more with the community outside the supervision of an organised tour, which unfortunately may cause negative social impacts.

In contrast, travel agencies handle a wide variety of travel packages available from tour operators and airlines. In Europe and in North America, a high percentage of tours are marketed to the public through travel agencies. In Europe, travel agencies dominate the supply of holidays and largely determine the information on which most clients base their holiday decisions. Large tour operators select travel agents to represent them on the basis of the agency’s productivity. Local individuals, national groups, international enterprises or any combination of the three may own travel agencies. Although website sales to individual consumers are on the rise, generally, travel agencies sell tours from brochures and the computerised reservation systems of major tour operators. Therefore, brochures are pivotal to the business. However, so many brochures are available (for example, about 4,000 in Britain in 1993), that travel agencies simply cannot stock the full range. What winds up on their display cases is a function of the commissions paid by tour operators, the efficiency of their reservation systems, and the strength of the business relationship. In general, travel agencies are not prepared to offer information from outside the core package tours that they sell.

Related to tour operators are ground operators, or in-country operators who handle logistics or ground operations. They handle tour groups from the moment of arrival off the plane or boat, until departure. They can also sell tours in the countries in which they are operating. Ground operators are mostly based in capital cities and are usually well-educated host nationals who can speak several languages. In some countries a key to increasing a site’s popularity is to have reliable ground operators working with tour operators in Europe or North America. A scarcity of ground operators, while unlikely to deter independent travellers, may discourage consumers of organised tours who depend on their services.

Tour operators (outbound providers), tour agencies, and ground operators (in-country or inbound providers) are on the front line of the industry. Tour operators are companies that sell tours to customers, either directly or indirectly through travel agents. Tour operators vary in size. Many of the smaller firms handle specialised markets such as eco-tourism and adventure travel. They provide travel agents with marketing support, for example by offering familiarisation visits for staff members. Tour operators often go to the same locations, and promotional materials and brochures tend to look alike. Tour companies try to differentiate their destinations with gradations of challenge or price, for example at ski resorts, where accommodations may be more or less luxurious and the skiing may be more or less difficult. Although Tour Operators respond for only about 12 % of global tourism flows (IFTO, 2002), they can help bridge long travel seasons by providing a steadier market, develop new destinations and can help define service and infrastructure needs at local level.

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Speciality tourism firms organise trips for clients wishing to participate in a specific activity such as bird-watching, wildlife viewing, photography or archaeological, historical and cultural tours. Also in this category are adventure travel firms offering activities such as backpacking/trekking, white water rafting, kayaking, canoeing, rock climbing and sport fishing. Other speciality firms organise field research trips for scientists. These firms attract groups of paying volunteers who sign up to work as field assistants on projects such as archaeological digs and wildlife monitoring programmes. In addition, this market includes organisations and universities with special interest travel programmes. For example, the World-wide Fund for Nature and many museums organise tours for their members. These tours generally help to raise funds for a particular cause or project. These groups generally sub-contract to other tour operators to handle the travel arrangements. Speciality tour operators commonly use host-country ground operators for in-country logistics. These national firms, based in the country in which the tour is operating, provide all services (transportation, hotel accommodations, guides, etc.) from arrival to departure. Some speciality firms in North America and Europe handle ground operations in a foreign country for themselves, but they tend to be exceptions to the rule. Managers should be aware that many speciality companies are small and go in and out of business rapidly.

The general package-holiday market attracts groups wishing to see an area and its culture but without a specific interest in a defined activity or subject matter. These tourists tend to be interested in general sightseeing and shopping, and may be interested in cultural attractions such as museums, ruins or other well-known or documented historical sites. Tourists in this market tend to want the standard services and amenities offered by most general tours. They will probably not be satisfied with the services that a rural community can offer; more often than not, general international tour groups want comfort, ease of access, security and more upscale accommodations and food.

2.3 Understanding speciality markets

2.3.1 While the bulk of the tourism business continues to be mass-market package holidays, specialised holidays are growing in popularity. Tourism is more than ever before divided into market segments defining different types of experiences. Specialised holidays cater to people’s particular interests, such as sailing, bird-watching, photography or archaeology. Markets or market segments have been developed around the different activities. Specialised holidays have become so popular that whole new categories of travel have emerged, including eco-tourism, adventure travel, heritage tourism and cultural tourism. A trek in the Himalayas is now likely to be considered adventure travel, and a week visiting cultural sites in India as cultural tourism.

2.3.2 Eco-tourism is one of the most frequently cited categories of the “new” tourism. It is defined by the International Ecotourism Society as, “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well being of local people.” A number of activities have been labelled eco-tourism, including bird- and whale-watching, helping scientists conduct conservation research, snorkelling off coral reefs, game viewing and nature photography. Eco-tourism is linked to and overlaps with heritage tourism and cultural tourism.

Surveys show that eco-tourists tend to be young and highly educated, with professional and managerial occupations. Eco-tourism trips tend to be longer, with fewer people in the typical tour group. Researchers report that eco-tourists are more likely to use small independent hotels, as opposed to mass tourists, who tend to stay at chain hotels. As would be expected, the eco-tourist is interested in a more natural environment, preferring less crowded destinations that are off the beaten track and that offer challenging experiences.

At the site level, the demands of eco-tourists and mainstream tourists may overlap and be difficult to differentiate. Some eco-tourists, for example, may demand condominiums, not campgrounds, for lodging. People on a bird-watching cruise to Patagonia could be considered eco-tourists but may have demands similar to those of tourists on an expensive Caribbean islands cruise. In practice, eco-tourism connotes a travel ethic, promoting conservation behaviours and certain economic policies. Examples are, an emphasis on low-impact techniques for viewing wildlife and a preference for hiring local guides.

2.3.3 Adventure tourism includes a wide range of outdoor activities. Adventure tourists engage in activities that are physically challenging and sometimes dangerous, or perceived to be so. Examples are sports such as trekking, mountaineering, white-water rafting and scuba diving. Adventure tourism does not necessarily require expensive facilities and infrastructure, but it does require good organisation, guides, transportation services, basic accommodation in the field, and opportunities for more comfortable accommodation at the end of the tour. Adventure travel is a rapidly growing sector of the speciality tourism market.

2.3.4 Cultural tourism is frequently used to describe certain segments of the travel market. It may be associated with visits to historical, artistic and scientific or heritage attractions. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has two definitions of cultural tourism. In the narrow sense, cultural tourism includes “movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages.” In the broader sense it is defined as “all movements of persons, because they satisfy the human need for diversity, tending to raise the cultural level of the individual and giving rise...
2 Sustainable tourism

2.4.1 The idea of sustainability is found in all the market segments and definitions of the “new” tourism. All the definitions address preservation of the resource for future generations; the use of tourism to contribute to environmental protection; limiting negative socio-economic impacts, and benefiting local people economically and socially. The WTO defines sustainable tourism as: “Tourism development that meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. (The desired outcome is that resources will be managed) in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled and enhancing opportunity for the future. The WTO defines sustainable tourism as: “Tourism development that meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. (The desired outcome is that resources will be managed) in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled and maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.” The term “sustainable tourism” is frequently used in project proposals seeking international assistance.

In practice, sustainable tourism programmes are an opportunity that also demands hard work. They require clearly defined goals and objectives that highlight the essential features of sustainability within the local context, an ongoing process of addressing stakeholder needs within the framework of these goals and objectives, and constant monitoring. As with all sustainable development projects, this process is labour intensive, takes time and usually involves many interest groups, making programmes difficult to design, implement and maintain.

Sustainable tourism programmes have highlighted the need for an environmental and social focus and led to the standardisation of some environmental practices as well as new ideas about how the industry should function. Discussion has produced policy goals and guidelines for planners and an impetus for self-regulation by the industry.

2.5 Tourist types

2.5.1 Seeking definitions that would be more useful in practice, researchers have concentrated on tourists’ behaviours and preferences. Definitions and their related market segments, such as adventure travel or cultural tourism, tend to group people into broad categories based on a range of activities. These definitions and activities necessarily overlap, making it difficult at the site level to differentiate between types of tourism. For example, eco-tourism and heritage tourism combine aspects of both culture and nature, as do most specialty tours. So for instance, trekking in the Himalayas is considered an adventure travel activity, but most trekkers visit Buddhist or Hindu cultural sites at the same time. Bird-watchers visit archaeology sites and frequently engage in trekking. The broad definitions of the international markets are too comprehensive to be used for site-specific decision-making.

An effective way of addressing this overlap for research, policy and site management purposes is to classify tourists according to their motivations, preferences and desired experiences. Researchers have developed several categories of tourist behaviours and preferences. For example, tourists may be classified according to the intensity of experiences they are seeking or the ruggedness of the conditions they desire or will accept, including the kind of accommodations expected. Thus:

- **Hard-core tourists** join tours or groups travelling specifically for educational purposes and/or to take part in environmental or cultural projects, such as wildlife monitoring.
- **Dedicated tourists** want to visit protected or cultural areas and understand local natural and cultural history.
- **Casual tourists** consider natural and cultural travel as an incidental component of a broader trip.

Another system that is useful for classifying preferences differentiates between “hard-class” and “soft-class” travel. This classification relates to the ruggedness factor, mostly concerning the degree of challenge involved and the comfort level of accommodations. These categories include:

- **A hard-class experience** that is physically difficult with an element of danger. For example, it may require walking miles into the back country, climbing a technically difficult mountain, or sleeping in rudimentary shelters.
A soft-class experience means lower risk and more luxurious accommodations. For example, a tented safari may involve physically challenging conditions while offering amenities such as gourmet meals and comfortable transport.

2.6 Tourism trends

2.6.1 Tourists are becoming more interested in environmental protection. Consumers are increasingly considering environmental quality as well as the quality of services as factors in their selection of tourist destinations. More and more consumers want a high standard of environmental conservation coupled with simple, efficient and pleasant service. It appears that many tourists now prefer unspoiled and uncrowded destinations.

A related trend is that, before they travel, many tourists inform themselves about environmental problems at individual sites. They want destinations to be clean and environmentally sound. Tourists will avoid places that are perceived to fall short of this image. More than ever this information is obtained through the internet.

Environmental degradation can lead not only to declining tourism rates but also to changes in the types of tourists that travel to a site. Examples of this cycle are found in the Mediterranean, where the pattern has led to continued degradation and urbanisation of beach resorts.

2.6.2 Interest in cultural tourism seems to be expanding, but the rate of growth is unclear. More quantitative data is needed to verify the trend. For example, attendance at cultural attractions in Britain and the Netherlands over the last five years indicates that cultural tourism has kept pace with the overall tourism market.

Because the cultural tourism market is difficult to quantify, experts suggest that more research would help to identify broad groupings of cultural tourists based on their motivations. Establishing categories such as arts, archaeology, language learning and so on may be the most practical way to address this issue.

2.6.3 Tourists increasingly want “real” experiences with other cultures and lifestyles. A study of mass-market tourists and eco-tourists found that both groups felt that knowledge of folk arts and handicrafts, as well as knowledge about the destination’s history, was important.

2.6.4 Consumers are seeking more active and educational holidays. Specialised markets are experiencing a trend towards energetic, environment-oriented tourism, with healthy menus and plenty of opportunities for exercise. Although mass-market tourists are less active and adventurous, and less focused on one activity, active holidays at a lower level of intensity are also a growing trend in this market segment.

2.6.5 Visits to protected areas are on the rise. In developed countries, tourists tend to travel in smaller groups for shorter time periods. For example, visits to Australian national parks have increased substantially in the last ten years, but often for shorter periods. The two trends together — smaller group sizes and shorter stays — have created a need for greater individual space and more facilities designed to accommodate intense use, with extra services added during certain times of the year.

2.6.6 The tourism industry is expected to take more responsibility for sustainable development. Professionals working in conservation are beginning to ask the industry to be more involved in site management activities. Often this involves assuming a degree of financial responsibility for the long-term maintenance of the resources they profit from. Financial support can be in the form of direct or voluntary subsidies to management agencies or NGOs. Involvement may also mean accepting practices that limit the negative impacts of tourism. An example is at the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park in Australia where operators have become increasingly self-regulating and accountable through the establishment of codes of conduct and guidelines for minimal impact practices. Operators at the Great Barrier Reef are also involved in the monitoring of their sites. The fact that operators are prohibited from relocating their facilities and activities once an existing site is affected by natural or unnatural environmental degradation has reinforced these actions.

2.7 Implications and recommendations

- Tourism definitions can give direction to broad policy guidelines used in the development of goals and objectives for site management. For example, the International Eco-tourism Society’s definition of eco-tourism states that tourism should maintain the integrity of an ecosystem and generate economic opportunities that make conservation beneficial to local people. This type of a statement can be incorporated into a policy statement defining the type of tourism a site will promote.

- Tourism definitions, such as that of eco-tourism, can be used in reports or proposals seeking funding for future projects. They can give documents a positive image and strengthen their attractiveness. Overall development concepts and definitions should match the audience for whom the proposal is being written. For example, the term eco-tourism should be used in place of tourism when writing to nature conservation organisations; cultural tourism when writing to organisations concerned with the restoration of monuments, and so on. Market definitions can then be used in promotional materials. For example, a brochure may mention that eco-tourism is encouraged at a particular natural or mixed site.

- Operators’ promotional materials give clues as to whether their products are compatible with site objectives. Tour operator literature can also help managers determine whether operators contribute locally to protec-
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Promotional efforts such as educating clients in low-impact practices. Promotional literature will also reveal the types of clients they are targeting, what kind of experiences they value and their particular needs. For example, an operator may specialise in tours geared to a serious, single-minded bird-watching group or an amateur archaeology group.

- While knowledge of tourism definitions and speciality tourist markets can help managers set policy guidelines and understand visitor interests, the categories are general and tend to overlap. For management purposes it is useful to classify and analyse tourists according to their preferences and behaviours. Categories such as “hard” and “soft” class provide a helpful start. These categories, which focus on visitor needs and expectations, are important for elaborating management plans and setting objectives including infrastructure development.

- Knowledge of the different market segments and the general behaviours and preferences of tourists can help managers decide which segments to promote. Different tourists present different management opportunities and requirements. For example, tourists seeking more demanding or “harder” experiences are more likely to be content with a minimal infrastructure than those seeking a “softer” experience. Tour operators such as those working with keen bird-watchers or clients interested in archaeology may have special market demands. These specialised operators may want strict regulation of tourist numbers and noise to permit them to practise their activities undisturbed by other groups.

- An analysis of the structure of the tourism industry surrounding a site can reveal opportunities for involving stakeholders in management. NTO officials could be involved in future promotional efforts. Tour operators and hoteliers who may also help with monitoring activities or establishing codes of conduct and minimal impact practices. They may also make direct financial contributions for on-site projects. Interviews with tour operators and hotel directors could determine what mechanisms, administrative and financial, would facilitate their contributions to conservation and protection efforts.

- A proactive approach will yield benefits if market trends are addressed. Continued growth in international tourism is predicted, particularly in special interest tourism. The growing concern over environmental and socio-cultural issues suggests the existence of a large potential source of support for the site. Socio-economic profiles suggest that more and more tourists will have the means to contribute financially towards protection of the site. Consequently, if a site is planned and managed well, within defined limits, an increase in arrivals can potentially bring new financial rewards.

- Because tourists are more conscious of, and interested in, the protection of the natural, historical, cultural and social environment, it will be increasingly important to inform tourists and tour operators, through site interpretation and promotional activities, of the efforts that management is making to maintain the site.

- A preference for protected areas is a growing trend in tourism. Managers must be increasingly cognizant of these visitors’ profiles and of visitation trends specific to each site.

Suggested Activities

1. Analyse the tourism structure of the site.

   - Interview National Tourism Office officials to gain insights into the tourism structure of the country as a whole.
   - Interview members of the tourism industry, at the site and if possible in major cities, to determine how tourism agencies and tour and ground operators draw tourists to the site.
   - Outline the various groups of visitors and describe how they interact. Begin identifying the types of tourism at the site and develop preliminary categories of tourists.
   - Review past efforts to involve the tourism industry in supporting the site; list any options for involving them.

2. Determine in detail the type of tourist at the site and those desired.

   - Examine tourists’ travel patterns, their activities and the attractions they visit.
   - Create profiles of the user groups. Use the lists in this chapter to help determine, for example, whether they are tourists who come under the “hard” or “soft” categories. Decide which tourist markets are preferred.
   - Review the differences among user groups.
   - Examine the tourism brochures of the various tour operators serving the site and determine which markets they serve.
   - Develop a list of the preferred groups, markets and related activities that would foster tourism development and choose the tour companies that would best serve these needs.
Suggested Reading


Tourism Impacts and Problems

Morne Trois Pitons National Park, Dominica
© Marjaana Kokkonen
Tourism Impacts and Problems

All tourism and recreation activities lead to environmental and social change. Knowledge of the causes of tourism impacts and problems aids decision-making and fosters more effective management actions. A basic knowledge of the range of impacts can also aid planning and generate a useful checklist for developing tourism monitoring indicators, essential for determining whether management objectives are being met.

3.1 General tourism impacts: issues and concepts

Tourism impacts are caused mainly by development and by visitors themselves. Development impacts, usually related to infrastructure, can be widely felt and can be severe, for example, during the construction phase, and through pollution generated by hotels. Impacts caused by tourists within sites are often quite sensitive but can usually be avoided. For example, visitors can be asked not to feed wildlife or touch rock art.

The cause-and-effect relationships of tourism impacts can be difficult to identify. Litter may be dropped by local people and not by tourists; water pollution may come from upstream sources other than hotels; a coral reef may be damaged by storm and wave action, and not tourism; poaching by local residents may be to blame for declining wildlife populations.

Visitor volume is not necessarily the primary factor influencing the amount of impact. Solutions designed to limit numbers in a given area may not be effective. Now researchers know that impacts are linked to a complex set of socio-environmental factors and development patterns. According to current thinking, it is important to understand the inter-relationships that cause tourism impacts which might, for example, lead one community to welcome tourists while another community develops strong opposition to a tourist presence.

The relationship between amount of use and environmental impacts is often not linear but curvilinear. That is, initial light use may cause the most damage, while subsequent use has progressively less impact. For resources such as soils and vegetation, most damage tends to occur at low use levels. An example is the relationship between the amount of trampling and soil compaction. The first walkers to use a piece of terrain will compact most of the soil, and additional use will have proportionally less impact on the area. A similar relationship exists with vegetation impacts: initial light trampling can lead to high levels of damage, with relatively minor change thereafter.

Two main impact factors are resistance and resilience. Resistance is the ability to absorb use without being disturbed, and resilience is the ability to return to an undisturbed state after a disturbance. In practical terms, resistance is a measure of the ability of different environments and different cultures to resist change. Sherpas in Nepal have been able to absorb the presence of tourists while maintaining their culture for several generations, whereas the hill tribes in northern Thailand have seen progressively greater cultural change affecting their core family structure. At natural sites, fertile soils are better able to withstand use and maintain vegetation; thin soils have little chance to withstand heavy use. Lichens are consistently found to have low resistance to trampling. Coral communities in windward reef crest zones, which withstand the pounding of ocean surf, are more resistant to damage caused by divers than coral communities in more protected flat zones.

Resilience can also vary. The recovery rates of damaged vegetation depend on the fragility of a given ecosystem. Species of coral vary in the time it takes for them to recover after being damaged. Communities and the people within them adjust their life styles at different paces to accommodate visitors. They may also readjust their use of natural resources if these resources become restricted when an area goes under protection.

3.2 Environmental impacts: common patterns and factors

3.2.1 Vegetation impacts vary with type of use and botanical differences in structure. Resistant plants include the grasses and sedges. Plants susceptible to trampling impacts include those with slow growth rates, thorns and prickles, flexible stems and leaves, and small thick leaves that fold under pressure. Plant species found in open grassy habitats are generally more tolerant of trampling, while forest floor plants are less resistant.

3.2.2 Impacts on soil usually involve compaction and erosion. Tourism often leads to soil compaction, usually an unavoidable aspect of recreation activities. Compaction packs soil particles together and reduces pore space, leading to a reduction in aeration and water infiltration. This increases water runoff from rain and melting snow, causing reduced water absorption, a loss of vegetation cover and erosion. Soil compaction, while unavoidable, can be limited to certain areas. Erosion, on the other hand, is more serious and tends to spread.

Soils most prone to compaction are fine-textured homogeneous soils such as clay and silt. Wet soils are more prone to compaction and more readily churned. Meadow soil and vegetation can be rapidly disturbed when trampled during rainy periods, increasing erosion and lowering the water table.

3.2.3 Water impacts are associated with pathogens, organic waste and turbidity. Water turbidity from soil erosion is a frequent result of tourism infrastructure and recreation. Where soils are more prone to erosion, tourist activities and development are more likely to alter water quality to the detriment of aquatic flora and fauna.
Among water pollutants, pathogens are the most dangerous. Common examples are faecal coliforms (human) and faecal streptococci (animal). High faecal counts are associated with a lack of or malfunctioning of sewage and septic tank systems in hotels, and run-off from tourist enclosures. Organic waste such as raw or insufficiently treated sewage also affects water quality by encouraging algae and weeds. These plants can wash up on shorelines, then decay and form a breeding ground for insects.

In general, chemical contamination is most severe in shallow water sheltered from wind, especially in areas such as marinas. Lakes and streams at lower elevations tend to be more vulnerable to pollution from passing cars for example, but cannot tolerate random disturbances. Nesting birds may tolerate the first few encounters with humans, but once their level of tolerance is exceeded they may abandon their nests. Some animals develop a tolerance for predictable disturbances, noise from passing cars for example, but cannot tolerate random disturbances. Larger game species tend to be more affected by direct contact with people, while smaller wildlife are more susceptible to indirect impacts on their habitat. More timid and sensitive species of animals become permanently displaced from recreation areas when confronted by humans, while other animals such as deer become habituated over time.

Some animals frighten more easily than others, a factor that affects feeding and reproductive patterns. Marine turtles and some bird species in the Galápagos National Park withdraw from habitats visited by tourists and move to other places less suitable for survival and reproduction. Deer, which like other ungulates are relatively unafraid of humans, often graze along roadsides. Wolves are more sensitive to tourists, whose encroachment can restrict their opportunities for hunting. Habitat is an important factor. Wildlife disturbance is much less significant on tourist trails in wooded areas where animals have more cover. Animals, like people, have accumulated experiences that guide their behaviour, and as a result there is no ideal distance from a sensitive wildlife site such as a rookery or a feeding area for infrastructure or trails. Many experts say simply that if visitors elicit a negative response from wildlife they are too close.

3.2.4 Disturbances caused by tourists viewing wildlife affect some species more than others. Some species habituate, that is, after the initial impact, which may be serious, they develop a tolerance for disturbance. Habituation is often mistakenly seen as positive because it brings visitors closer to the wildlife. Tour operators sometimes put food out to attract animals to places where visitors can see them. Attraction can be a negative response, however: habituated wildlife may become aggressive while begging for food, and can injure and even kill the unwary visitor.

Wildlife responses are variable, even within a single species or population. For example, some animals can tolerate occasional disturbances but not frequent disturbances. Nesting birds may tolerate the first few encounters with humans, but once their level of tolerance is exceeded they may abandon their nests. Some animals develop a tolerance for predictable disturbances, noise from passing cars for example, but cannot tolerate random disturbances. Larger game species tend to be more affected by direct contact with people, while smaller wildlife are more susceptible to indirect impacts on their habitat. More timid and sensitive species of animals become permanently displaced from recreation areas when confronted by humans, while other animals such as deer become habituated over time.

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3.3 Common impacts related to visitor use

3.3.1 Visitors exhibit predictable patterns. People tend to travel along established routes and be attracted to certain locations. Consequently, impacts are usually confined to these areas. However, tourism areas tend to expand over time. A related phenomenon is that once an area is opened to tourism and recreation, impacts will occur rapidly. Overall, environmental impacts have a tendency to be curvilinear (see Chapter 6).

3.3.2 Group size plays a role in the development of impacts. Large parties tend to expand the areas they visit. This has management ramifications for groups such as mountaineering expeditions where large parties can create small cities during the length of their stay. Large parties also can create a heavy amount of use in a short time. As a result, large parties are of particular concern in pristine natural areas and at delicate cultural sites. At cultural sites large parties can cause bottlenecks at an interpretative display. At monuments they can overwhelm certain exhibits, blocking the view of smaller groups or individuals. Large groups can block the flow of visitor traffic, for example, through a cathedral.

There are exceptions to this pattern. Along a trail or cathedral walkway, for example, large parties probably have no more impact than smaller parties as long as they remain on the trail or walkway. With wildlife, large parties may have less impact than several small parties if the frequency of disturbance is a factor, as in the situation with many species of birds.

3.3.3 Various activities are associated with certain types of impacts. For example, rock climbing and nature photography can disturb nesting birds. Scuba diving and cruising can cause damage to coral reefs. Horseback riding, hiking and camping cause vegetation and soil disturbance. Visitors to monuments can cause abrasion through touching.

Activities involving motor vehicles have negative impacts on many fragile environments. Noisy motorboats and water scooters disrupt the feeding and breeding patterns of birds, and can injure other aquatic wildlife. Motorboat propellers repeatedly kill and maim doolie freshwater
manatees. Motorboats are also highly polluting; one powerboat emits 70 times more hydrocarbons than an average car does. Beach vehicles disrupt the accumulation of seaweed that provides mulch for colonising dune vegetation. Soil compacted by vehicles in the Mojave Desert in the United States would need about a century to be restored. Because of these impacts, managers often recommend banning motorised vehicles from fragile areas such as sand dunes and deserts.

Impacts vary according to how tourists practise different activities. Well-trained divers with good buoyancy control are less likely to damage coral than inexperienced divers. Mountainiers trained in low-impact camping cause far less damage than those without such training. Some conscientious tour operators adopt certain viewing policies to limit impacts on wildlife. Many operators of whale-watching tours have their drivers maintain set distances from the whales, avoid chasing the animals, and switch off the boat engines during close-up viewing so as not to produce undue stress. At a cultural site, for example a sacred rock art site or a church, visitors can be asked to show respect by covering their heads or maintaining silence. Impacts caused by tourists are usually unintentional and can frequently be reduced through sensitivity training.

3.3.4 Crowding is a negative impact when it interferes with tourists’ expectations. Early research found that increases in visitor numbers led to decreases in satisfaction levels. As a result, managers sought to determine the point at which visitation numbers would cause a feeling of crowding. However, it turns out that the relationship between numbers of people and visitor satisfaction is more complicated. While large numbers of people at a site can certainly decrease aesthetic enjoyment and diminish opportunities for solitude, sheer numbers do not necessarily diminish visitor satisfaction. Instead, negative reactions tend to occur when tourists feel that fellow visitors are interfering with their desired experience. A further complication is that the negative effects of crowding vary with the characteristics of different visitors, their experience with the area, fellow visitors’ behaviour, and the characteristics and peculiarities of the setting. For example, people viewing wildlife in Maasai Mara, a nature reserve, may be annoyed by the presence of only a few other vehicles, while at a game park other vehicles are more expected. Visitors may also change their expectations associated with an activity in order to tolerate crowded conditions.

3.4 Tourism impacts on communities and culture

3.4.1. Models fail to capture the complexity of the tourism cycle because they assume a homogeneous community, a rarity in real life. For example, in the later stages of the tourism cycle, models fail to show whether the whole community is hostile to tourism or whether only certain sections of the population suffer from and complain about the social impacts. The fact that host community members adapt to tourism in various ways adds complexity to the problem. Another factor is that tourism growth may occur alongside other changes, and the hosts’ behaviour may be a response to these changes more than to the changes brought by tourism.

Also, while many studies have investigated general attitudes towards tourism in particular communities, few have looked into attitudes towards specific community tourism products and services. A major research problem has been that few studies have been designed on the advice of those being affected. Only a few researchers have asked respondents to rate or assess the importance of impacts cited by local people.
How Local Communities Can Lose Out on the Benefits of Tourism

- Tourism may not attract sufficient visitors quickly enough to generate the quantities of revenue needed to meet the economic expectations of the community. This results from the competitive nature of tourism or the quality of resources in the communities. The inability to meet community expectations can lead to disenchantment with the programme and the belief that the site serves no useful purpose with the community, which is in turn less likely to engage in protection activities.
- Tourism can increase burdens on local populations without producing mitigating benefits. Tourism revenues often reach a different segment of the population than those who must bear the burden of diminishing resources.
- Most tourist spending—airfares, hotel and tour operators’ fees—benefits foreign companies.
- Locals may live in scattered small groups or villages and communication may be difficult, limiting fair distribution of economic revenues.
- Developers may deprive locals of anticipated economic benefits, or local power relations may dictate who will benefit from tourism opportunities. For example, well-connected individuals may monopolise opportunities to serve as guides or provide transport for visitors.
- Start-up credit may be difficult to attain. A study in Belize showed that while local investors had extreme difficulty obtaining credit to start tourism businesses, the same banks offered credit if the same investors entered into partnerships with foreign firms.
- Not all tourism activities have equal potential for community involvement. Some more sophisticated activities need specific training before a community can be involved. For example, small community-run hotel projects may be hampered by administrative and organisational problems resulting from a lack of business skills. In Mexico, a cooperatively owned and run hotel project failed because cooperative members lacked training in the necessary administrative skills to effectively run the business. In many cases providing opportunities for guiding in specialized activities such as bird-watching or river rafting is not feasible. Ground operators prefer skilled, well-educated guides from the capital city who speak English or other European languages.
- Tour companies and hotels, as a general policy, do not use local guides. In attempts to rectify the situation in some countries, tour operators and hotels are required to hire under-skilled local guides under government rules or regulations or sometimes in the form of a protected area policy. Because these countries often have few competent local guides, tour operators resist being required to use them, often seeing them as an additional financial drain.
- Because rural tourism is often seasonal, it tends not to create permanent employment. But the temporary jobs it offers may compete with other seasonal jobs such as age-related cultural work, leaving no net gain for the community.

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3.4.2 Interaction between tourism development and community has been shown to be difficult to predict, with few consistent relationships or patterns. Following is an overview of findings on this complicated issue. High tourism concentrations can be viewed as positive by some communities and negative by others. While negative attitudes are usually associated with high levels of development, some communities support tourism despite high resident-to-tourist ratios. Visitation to Shark Bay, Western Australia, grew from 10,000 in 1964 to 150,000 in 1990, boosting the resident-to-visitor ratio from 1:10 to 1:150 in just six years. Despite the rapid growth rate and the emergence of serious environmental problems, residents remain positive about tourism and support its continued growth. Similarly, at Nadi, Fiji, where tourism development and contact with tourists is also high, the hosts remain positive in their reactions and attitudes.

Some studies have found that residents are more likely to support tourism if they stand to benefit from it through employment for themselves or family members. Or they believe the benefits of tourism outweigh the negative impacts. Some studies show that people who do not benefit from tourism support the industry regardless.

Some research has reported local concern over the impact of tourism development on property prices, access to recreation, traffic congestion, quality of life, salaries and higher prices. Other research shows little relationship between tourism development and indicators such as the quality of life. Residents in the Austrian Alps reported that while tourism had brought higher prices for basic necessities, higher taxes and competition over the distribution of benefits, as well as decreased participation in community projects, the overall influence of tourism on the communities was positive.

3.4.3 Some cultures can adapt positively to external influences while others cannot. Cultures and communities with a history of interacting with other cultures and a gradual exposure to outside groups incorporate new practices into their lives, safeguard their own cultures, and have fewer difficulties with tourism. Groups that have had little contact with outsiders have greater difficulty. An extreme case is when Australian aborigines paid absolutely no attention to Captain Cook’s ship the Endeavor in 1770, finding it unclassifiable and too bizarre to contend with.

External influences can change some cultures in one or two generations. New patterns in a culture’s social structure, for example women working outside the traditional family system, can weaken interest in cultural traditions such as storytelling. With new employment opportunities, young people may no longer want or need to learn traditional skills. While in some cases tourists’ interest in local art, music and language may foster a cultural renaissance,
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most often researchers report traditional cultures veering towards “commodification”.

3.4.4 Cultural commodification is the erosion of cultural practices until they become meaningless. In a tourism setting this develops as people and their cultural symbols are treated as commodities that can be bought, changed, or sold. As this occurs people begin to perform exclusively for the tourists’ benefit, and events may lose their value as a cultural and spiritual manifestation. As a defensive mechanism some communities try to limit tourists’ intrusion by keeping separate cultural manifestations closed to tourists, and offering “staged authenticity” performances to visitors, including appropriate interpretation and explanations.

3.4.5 Community acceptance of tourism depends greatly on the extent to which the attraction reflects the needs and desires of local people and their integration into the industry. Negative cultural change can be minimised if local people are able to participate in tourist-related businesses and have a role in making decisions about the numbers and types of tourists entering their communities, and at what frequency. Cultural and economic impacts are reduced where local groups have had some autonomy over their land, where they have been integrated into the tourism industry.

Access for locals to an attraction, and the perception that the attraction brings economic benefits through the creation of jobs or additional income into the local economy are other factors contributing to community acceptance. Free access for locals is often seen as a positive development. Locals will tend to resent visitors if protected area authorities appear to be managing a site more for foreign tourists than for local people.

3.4.6 Conflicts arise when the economic benefits of tourism are unevenly distributed, especially when resulting disparities in wealth are great. In the main settlement and administrative area of Taman Negara National Park, Malaysia, about 60 percent of the local people hold jobs in the tourist sector, earning much higher salaries than the rest of the population. In neighbouring villages some 70 percent of the population live off the land, making about one-third of what the locals in the main settlement make. Tourism has created social tensions as locals resent higher boat fares and rising costs of everyday goods; conflicts arise over the use of park resources such as fish, fruit and rattan; and illegal hunting and fishing are on the increase.

3.4.7 Distributing economic benefits to support local populations has been difficult for a number of reasons. In a study of protected areas with tourism programmes, few generated substantial benefits for local people. Even in highly successful areas, few direct benefits went to local communities. For example, while tourists generate about $5 million annually at Khao Yai National Park in Thailand, little of the revenue benefits the surrounding communities. Tourism development in the Everest area of Nepal tends to be concentrated along strips, with little room for economic benefits to spread. Studies in some areas of Nepal showed that only the village elite were able to capture tourism benefits.

3.4.8 Economic development from tourism does not readily translate into community participation in conservation and protection actions. The reasons for this include the following:

- Economic benefits from tourism often create insufficient incentives for local communities to support conservation and protection.
- Strategies for creating ownership of an economic development conservation programme are difficult to develop. Often, no mechanisms exist for providing incentives for conservation activities. Donors will often provide infrastructure, schools, clinics, wells, etc., in areas outside protected zones without consulting or engaging local communities. Since these initiatives are seen as grants, people feel little responsibility for their future maintenance. Clearly they are unsustainable.
- The link between tourism benefits and conservation activities may be unclear or nonexistent. For tourism to promote conservation, local people must benefit economically and see a clear link between the benefits and the need to protect the resource. If benefits do not stay in local areas or are narrowly distributed, there is little chance of making these important links. A study of Costa Rican and Mexican nature guides revealed that even though the guides were trained in ecology, no definite relationship was seen between their training and their participation in community conservation efforts. The study concluded that guides with demonstrated prior interest and experience in community conservation activities should be identified and recruited.

Case Study: Komodo National Park, Indonesia

At Komodo National Park, Indonesia, the guiding principle is that local communities should have priority in deriving benefits from the existence of the park. Local communities are involved in tourism activities, resource management and protection efforts. To some degree, residents are also involved in the provision of transportation, guide services and accommodation, while many make handicrafts and souvenirs, or work at restaurants.

3.5 Implications and recommendations

- Impacts must be evaluated on a case-by-case basis. Interactions resulting from tourism are difficult to predict on many issues, with few consistent patterns or relationships emerging. For example, impacts on wildlife and a community’s reaction to tourists vary according to the situation.
• The fact that impacts can be both curvilinear and vary from resource to resource reinforces the need for monitoring programmes that can track changing trends. Finding the cause or causes of a problem provides managers with the necessary information to select indicators to track changes over time.

• Locating tourism activities in areas where resources are both resistant and resilient helps limit damage. Resistance and resilience factors may be described in background information collected during the planning process, for example concerning the vulnerability of certain wildlife species.

• Evaluating a site’s goals and objectives when deciding on the degree to which impacts should be controlled will influence tourism activities. For example, habituation may make it easier for tourists to see wildlife but seriously compromise scientific study. If scientific investigation is a management objective, maintaining populations of wildlife in a natural state will take precedence over tourism considerations.

• Impacts that are visitor related should be analysed according to use patterns, types of user groups, group size, amount of use and mode of travel. Through such analysis, visitor groups and activities can be matched with problem areas.

• A community’s stability and structure have an important effect on its resilience. Essential factors to analyse include the community’s ability to plan and its labour patterns, i.e., who is employed, in what capacity at what wages and during which months. An early assessment should be made of how a community can contribute or influence tourism development. Local communities need time to decide on their direction.

• Identifying activities that use existing resources and skills will maximise the potential economic benefit of tourism development to the local community. Community projects such as small cooperative hotels could be considered, but careful planning and support is needed. Attention should be paid to whether certain tourist ventures may produce wide differences in local salaries. These activities may not be advisable.

• Determining how tourism revenue is distributed — whether most of it goes to a few individuals or families, or whether it is distributed widely through purchases of local goods or in the form of wages — will reveal the economic impact of tourism opportunities. The assessment of revenue distribution should take into account how tourism projects interact with other economic opportunities within the family unit and the community; for some, even modest revenues from tourism may be significant.

• The need for an in-depth knowledge of the local culture for example, how people celebrate or how they withdraw or seek privacy during the planning and management of tourism programmes is widely acknowledged. Some cultures are especially vulnerable to the adverse effects of tourism. To generate tourism that enhances rather than threatens local heritage, managers may consider not so much what tourists might want to see in the community but what residents are prepared to reveal about themselves.

Suggested Activities

1. Develop a prioritised list of existing impacts and threats at the site
   • Use the main headings of this chapter to draft an impact/problem checklist
   • Determine whether impacts are tourism-related; use the advice of site staff, local guides, community leaders, hotel owners and tour operators
   • Identify the groups connected with the impacts

2. Examine the cause-and-effect relationship of the identified impacts
   • Make a detailed analysis identifying causal factors and describing long-term effects
   • Determine whether and how the different impacts are interrelated
   • Determine whether by mitigating one impact another may be positively affected

3. Prioritise impacts and develop a preliminary list of what would be needed to mitigate them
   • Ask site staff to prioritise impacts according to their impressions
   • Prepare a map overlay of impacts showing their relative importance
   • Write an overview description of the impacts and current actions, and review these with the advisory board

Suggested Reading

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Tourism Impacts and Problems

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Involving Stakeholders: The benefits and Challenges of Public Participation

Memphis Necropolis - the Pyramid Fields from the Giza to Dahshur, Egypt © Patrick Werquin
4.1 Why involve stakeholders in planning and management?

4.1.1 Involving stakeholders saves time and money. Conflicts between communities and conservation authorities have shown that relying solely on law enforcement is less practical and more costly than involving interest groups from the outset. Experience in World Heritage tourism management has shown that projects with limited local input are less productive and ultimately more expensive.

4.1.2 Failure to understand stakeholder positions can delay or block projects. Examples abound of projects that were blocked because of a lack of effective communication with stakeholders. Construction of a cultural centre on the South Pacific Island of Truk was blocked because the project officer failed to consult with the governor. Had he done so he would have discovered a conflict between the governor and a local leader in the village where the project was planned. Early attempts at ecosystem management in Yellowstone National Park in the United States were delayed because management started formulating an overall regional plan before unifying the key stakeholders.

Learning from past problems, many sites now invest a considerable amount of time in meetings with key stakeholder groups, asking them to articulate their views and defining issues to be examined together. Through such dialogue and collaboration, site management becomes familiar with the various stakeholder positions regarding tourism issues and activities that could have an impact on the site.

4.1.3 Stakeholders can inform managers about easily misunderstood local cultural differences. Religious or cultural values are often of primary importance to communities and can go unnoticed if locals are not involved in the planning and management process. For example, while site staff may legitimately regard certain valleys, rock formations or archaeological sites as natural or anthropological resources, such sites may be sacred to the host communities. Fencing, boardwalks and other structures built in such areas may be offensive to the local people and compromise the site's cultural value. Without local input such values may go unobserved, setting the stage for future conflicts.

At the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site in Zimbabwe, the creation of a living museum to bring in more visitors met with criticism and indifference. Local people thought that the living museum misrepresented the site, was inappropriate and reduced the site's historical and cultural importance to just another attraction with little relevance to people's real identity. Since the living museum displayed a lifestyle very similar to that of the average Zimbabwean, few local people found the village to be of interest.

4.1.4 Stakeholders can help identify problem areas that may have been overlooked by the experts. Experts cannot always judge the perceptions, preferences or priorities of host communities when evaluating local conditions. For example, Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRAs) carried out in Uchchali, a site in Pakistan that is classified as a protected wetland and is managed as a waterfowl sanctuary, revealed a mismatch between local views and experts' perceptions. Experts assumed that the area's lakes were longstanding geographical features. The villagers knew that increased rains had formed the lakes over the previous 50 years, and that the water had submerged prime agricultural land that had been owned by the local villages for centuries. Local communities believed that their land rights were neglected when projects went ahead to conserve the wetland.

Another pitfall occurs when experts' views are oriented towards narrow interests. In the wetland project in Pakistan, scientists tended to focus on species of special concern for international conservation and the wetland habitat. The villagers had a wider view of the ecosystem that made the connection between the forests, the wetland, the area's land use history and their livelihoods. Also, complex phenomena such as birds' migratory patterns, changes in water quality, sedimentation rates and groundwater levels were locally monitored and well understood. If the broader picture had been appreciated, more effective collaboration could have been fostered.

4.1.5 Stakeholders can provide useful input regarding desired conditions at a site. Effective visitor management involves establishing limits negotiated with the stakeholders. Through tourism advisory boards or councils, stakeholders can help managers to establish visitor conditions and set quantifiable standards for problem management and impact limitation. Experience has shown that stakeholder input is essential for developing realistic policies and management objectives that will gain long-term support. For example, the community should be encouraged to participate in decision-making on how many and what type of tourists they would like to receive, and/or areas that would be off-limits.

Any sustainable tourism programme must work in concert with stakeholders, or interested parties, including government agencies, conservation and other non-governmental organisations, developers and local communities. Their participation in the planning and management process is of paramount importance. Tourism-related public participation issues form the basis of a checklist for managers who wish to avoid unnecessary conflicts. Knowledge of these issues is an essential prerequisite for effective public participation, particularly when planning stakeholder meetings and setting up tourism advisory councils.
4.2 Challenges in stakeholder cooperation and public participation

4.2.1 Formulating a clear idea of different stakeholder groups can be difficult. Unravelling the identity and structure of different stakeholder groups can be time consuming and the results are not obvious. For example, different agencies can be involved in the management of a site and have different goals and objectives. In many cases, several agencies control various sections of a protected World Heritage site, each with its own management strategy. While sharing a common heritage resource, visitor management strategies and issues vary from one area to the next.

4.2.2 Open discussion may be seen as a threat to one’s power and control. Some people with legitimate interests of a plan can dominate discussions and exclude others as a means of influencing policies and decisions. Public trust, limiting the site manager’s ability to deal with the issue. Large majority risks being ignored. It may be felt that they are the group that can be most influenced because they are not very interested and are probably not well informed. The possibility of some event igniting the interest of this less-interested majority should however not be underestimated. Consideration of these groups is essential to ensuring long-term public support.

4.2.3 The most vocal critics can dominate the participation process. Major risks being ignored. It may be felt that they are the group that can be most influenced because they are not very interested and are probably not well informed. The possibility of some event igniting the interest of this less-interested majority should however not be underestimated. Consideration of these groups is essential to ensuring long-term public support.

4.2.4 Large numbers of people may be overlooked because they are not as vocal as other groups. öthers may be only concerned with economic considerations that could outweigh the desire to protect resources. Some people with legitimate concerns may be intimidated by a venue such as a meeting hall and be afraid to speak up. Alternative venues such as community centres can facilitate a more comfortable exchange of ideas and encourage balanced communication among stakeholders.

4.2.5 Hierarchical structures may inhibit stakeholder participation in decision making. In many societies the formal structure of institutions and organisations as well as cultural norms may make it difficult to elicit the opinions of certain groups making stakeholder participation in formal meetings impossible. A few powerful agencies may dominate, overwhelming other stakeholders and blocking cooperation. In some countries, the government is directly involved in the actual business of tourism, functioning as tour operators as well as making policy, which may lead to imbalances in stakeholder input.

4.2.6 Public participation may be more a form of appeasement than a way to solicit stakeholders’ input. Offering local communities the opportunity to participate raises expectations about acceptance of their suggestions. A government may try to guide a particular choice either by representing only one opinion or by proposing a set of choices among which only one is tenable. Decisions may have already been made before public participation begins; any changes may be minor with relatively small impacts. Before embarking on a participatory planning exercise, proponents have to be ready to change original plans according to the input received.

4.2.7 Overemphasis on involving stakeholder groups can lead to a failure to recognise certain effects on resources. Managers must understand how stakeholders perceive impacts and define acceptability. However, many stakeholder groups have limited knowledge about natural and cultural resources and may be unaware of potential negative impacts. Visitors adapt to deteriorating environmental conditions, accepting degradation as the inevitable result of increasing visitation. The visitors who are displeased by the degradation may not return and are not captured by surveys and public involvement efforts. Other stakeholder groups may be concerned only with economic considerations that could outweigh the desire to protect resources. So, while public participation is necessary, over-reliance on public input can lead to inaction and a deterioration of conditions over time. With resource
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bases declining and the demand for recreation and tourist attractions on the rise, it is managers who must ultimately decide the parameters of how much and what kinds of tourism activity are acceptable.

4.3 Factors promoting participation and effective communication

4.3.1 Trust enhances a group’s willingness to participate. Trust is the crucial element of successful public participation. Building trust and a willingness to participate depends on several factors.

Positive earlier interaction builds trust. The history of the experiences with, for example, a state government agency influences the chances of fostering participation. Rebuilding relations between conservation authorities and local people after a history of policing and exclusion can be difficult. H.S. Panwar, who taught at the Wildlife Institute of India at Dehra Dun, reported that the main criteria of success in ecologically oriented development projects were building trust and enrolling the full participation of local people in the planning and implementation process.

Honouring commitments builds trust. Amboseli National Park in Kenya, La Amistad National Park in Costa Rica and Panama, and Yellowstone National Park in the United States have all had problems with local communities after funding cuts that forced policy changes. At Amboseli, a lack of funding for maintaining pumps at watering facilities caused a gap in trust with park officials and impinged on the needs of local Maasai cattle herders. At La Amistad and Yellowstone, personnel and budget cuts took a financial toll on the local communities.

Gestures that show equality, for example, sharing information equally among stakeholders, promote trust. From its inception, the Great Barrier Reef project worked from a scientific information base, regularly issuing maps, data and carefully prepared information to the public.

Time is necessary to build trust. Many experts agree that more time and effort could be spent addressing the various agendas of interest groups. One researcher writes, “Trust building takes time. The history of rural development initiatives is littered with enough examples to indicate that such time is a resource well spent in terms of effective policy outcomes.”

A non-partisan image helps build trust with stakeholders. When a particular problem arises at a site, the site manager—who is seen as a government official—may be wise to ask a popular local personality to explain the matter to the public. If time and money permit, credible scientific information can serve as non-partisan evidence to heighten public understanding of an issue and change people’s minds. Yellowstone officials published pertinent scientific information, viewed as more neutral, in the daily newspaper to advise the public about a project to reintroduce wolves into the park.

4.3.2 A collective approach encourages public participation. A process calling for participation and collaboration has been found to be more conducive to consensus than traditional methods involving expert planners only. Work in community extension projects has shown more progress in community relations when participatory methods are used. Experts report that no point is too early in the project cycle to begin inviting local participation.

A participatory approach is beneficial in several ways:

• While issues of power and control will not disappear certain individuals will always be motivated to convert others to their position the participatory process enhances communication by showing both the common ground and the differences between the stakeholder groups. The exercise often leads to compromise and a breakdown of defensive positions.

Consensus-Building

The literature on mediation suggests that conflicts are best resolved when people who are not technically fluent in the issues nevertheless guide decision making. Sometimes stakeholders present technical arguments to boost their positions, which is when the mediator should seek agreement on the technical issues before developing policy options. Mixed sessions involving technical and non-technical participants should be led by a mediator who can control the technical language and seek clarification on behalf of all participants.

Collaboration is of key importance in building trust among stakeholders. Studies have shown that people who participate in group decisions are more likely to implement them. One expert describes consensus as follows: “We all can live with X as a solution to a problem and we all agree to going along with whatever X requires us to do.” Basic tips for obtaining consensus include:

• Being frank and honest when expressing ideas
• Avoiding judging ideas too quickly
• Being willing to compromise
• Examining decisions and problems systematically
• Agreeing at the outset what issue is being addressed, and your goal.
One of the best-known and most useful consensus-building techniques is brainstorming followed by filtering (see below). The technique involves six steps:

- Preparing for the session
- Determining the brainstorming method to use
- Generating ideas
- Creating filters
- Applying filters
- Wrapping up the session

Brainstorming involves two basic methods, freewheeling and round robin. With freewheeling, groups spontaneously present and share ideas, which are duly recorded by a facilitator. The round-robin method is more structured, with the facilitator asking group members for specific ideas on the issue being discussed. This method is used more with reticent groups.

Brainstorming seeks to generate as many ideas as possible. The exercise can end when:
- Everyone has had a chance to participate;
- No more ideas are offered;
- A last call for ideas has been made; and
- No more ideas are offered;

Once ideas are generated, filters criteria set by the group, such as cost and time constraints are created to screen them. Participants will readily help identify filtering criteria, such as cost, time factors, availability of the necessary resources, philosophical considerations, and acceptability to management and other stakeholders.

The filters allow the facilitator to go through the list of ideas and cross off those that do not qualify.

The final step in the process is to review the ideas that survived the filtering process, and define each of these ideas to make sure all team members agree. The group should also delegate a member to relate the information to other groups or other stakeholders.

- Evidence suggests that people are reluctant to divulge past difficulties. Informal communication systems such as surveys can help get people to reveal their interests and concerns. Reports from the North Pennines Tourism Partnership programme in England revealed that such informal communication helped to resolve issues between the different groups.

- Public involvement tends to build momentum towards collaborative implementation. As one researcher has pointed out, misunderstandings between groups, rather than a lack of information, is at the core of many social difficulties.

4.4 Effective collaboration and communication techniques

4.4.1 Participatory techniques such as rural appraisals allow local people to describe their environment. Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRAs) can facilitate the exchange of informal information between local government officials, NGO staff and local people. These methods have proven capable of overcoming the problems of listening and shaping an accurate assessment of stakeholder concerns. The techniques help map out local resources, ways people make a living, trends in resource use, and the local costs and benefits of conservation and protection. They are practical methods of encouraging local participation, fostering communication and making a more accurate appraisal of local concerns. The utility of these methods has been demonstrated in many areas of the world, particularly in Pakistan and India. Participatory techniques, including PRAs, can be used for both natural and cultural sites.

Participatory Environmental Mapping Technique

The Participatory Environmental Mapping Technique lies at the heart of Participatory Rural Appraisals. The technique involves asking local people to draw maps on the ground. The exercise starts with an open-ended question, such as, “Can you draw a map of your village?” Using local materials such as sticks, stones, grass, wood and cigarette packets, or coloured chalk provided by the project officer, participants map out the village, often prompting discussion over the accuracy of the drawing. Since the process is participatory, and all the information is constantly visible to all participants, the technique avoids the pitfalls of the typical interview, in which someone may dominate the discussion.

The mapping should be carried out in a low-key, relaxed atmosphere. The project officer may start off the map with a simple, obvious feature such as the main road or river, or the next village, and then hand over the stick to a local person to continue the map. This hand-over is often seen as an important symbolic action. Once participants agree on the map, more open-ended questions stimulate further discussion. For example, “Is the whole area the same or are there differences?” “What else is important to show on the map?” “Have I forgotten anything?” Open-ended questions assure neutrality. Participants are asked to add their responses to the map. The project officer should ask permission to copy the map into a notebook, explaining why and discussing the follow-up.

Another technique is to distribute automatic cameras to community members, explaining its use, and ask them to photograph, over a couple of days, features and landscapes they believe may be of interest to visitors (a community-based inventory of attractions). Kayapo Amerindians in Brazil have used this process successfully.
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To improve data, different PRA methods are used and then compared with each other and against additional information from villagers. Community specialists recommend that such information should always be complemented with other methods such as transect walks of the community enabling a specialist to verify mapping accompanied by locals. Comparison with scientific maps or photos, participation in daily activities, and farmer-to-farmer visits are also recommended.

Planning under any circumstances should be carried out slowly. Any work, however benign or well meaning, which appears to threaten local power structures will be challenged.

4.4.2 Alternative forms of dialogue can help limit public confrontations. Public meetings can be ineffective when the parties with the most vested interests attend with the goal of pressing their particular causes. Less confrontational meeting structures can reduce such undue influence and limit the posturing of interest groups for the press. During the controversial Yellowstone wolf reintroduction project, open houses were held where individual people could sit down in a relaxed atmosphere and talk directly with representatives of the various agencies involved. Special meetings were held to allow powerful interest groups to voice their opinions, but they were listened to only. These were run by female park officials, perceived as less threatening and non-partisan than male officials, and local police were hired to maintain order.

Effective Meetings

Meetings take up much of a site manager’s time. They are an important nearly daily way of forming relationships with stakeholder groups including foreign donors and tourism officials. An interactive method of running meetings entails agreement on how the meeting will go about solving problems.

Many management problems stem from the fact that people have difficulty listening and hearing what someone else is really saying. While listening seems to be a simple and obvious skill, specialists say few people are effective listeners. However, listening skills can be learned.

The following are five ingredients of an effective meeting:

- A clearly defined and agreed role and responsibility for each participant.
- A common focus on content
- A common focus on process
- A person responsible for maintaining an open and balanced conversational flow
- A person responsible for protecting individuals from personal attack

A meeting agenda should be sent to participants beforehand so they can prepare.

Meetings should be planned to avoid the group attack syndrome, in which group members feel they will be attacked as soon as they speak. The key to resolving problems of authority and power is to use a facilitator whose role is to hold the group together, offer suggestions and wait for agreement on any particular issue. The facilitator keeps the group on track, ensuring that no one dominates the discussions. The facilitator must remain neutral, refraining from contributing ideas or judging the ideas of others. The facilitator, the minute-taker and all other key participants should explain their roles at the outset of a meeting.

Meetings must be recorded, and minutes should be distributed to the participants ahead of the following meeting. The recorder should avoid interpreting the proceedings without input from participants, and try to remain objective. Recording ideas without identifying their source builds trust in the system and helps the group to accept ideas. During the meeting, flipcharts can be used to provide an immediate record of what is said.

4.4.3 The process of developing a management plan can encourage the participation of stakeholders. The process can also be used to build consensus. However, instead of releasing draft management plans for public comment, planners should begin by identifying what is needed from the public, and what a site can offer them in return. Plans and strategies should be developed slowly, be dynamic and adaptable, and be concise rather than lengthy. Above all, they should be inclusive of all stakeholders.

Examples of successful issue-based management planning include the great Smokey Mountains National Park in the United States, where many trails were in poor condition and needed to be closed to have time to recover. Park managers realised that closing trails would generate negative sentiment. To educate the public about the situation, management decided to involve people in the process. Meetings were held to give people an understanding of the park’s mission and to provide them with an opportunity to participate in setting priorities.

At the Willandra Lakes Region World Heritage site, in Australia, a five-day workshop was held at which community members helped write the first draft of a management plan. The exercise guaranteed continued support for the plan. At the Shark Bay World Heritage site, also in Australia, participatory management plans for conservation areas are also made available for public comment for at least two months, a practice required under Western Australian law.
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4.4.4 An advisory group or stakeholders’ organisation can play a crucial role in the success of management objectives. Consultation with various interest groups through regular meetings and public workshops offers opportunities for stakeholders to comment on a preliminary management plan. This relationship enables site managers to bring local people into decision-making. Ongoing conflicts will not necessarily go away, but an advisory group provides a structure for the problem-solving process so that conflicts and solutions can be identified more clearly.

Public participation is more likely to be effective and sustained through stakeholder groups than through individual participation. At the Shark Bay World Heritage site, an advisory committee played a major role in determining appropriate and practical strategies for management of the reserves and the region’s resources, including setting the boundaries of the site. As was previously mentioned, Patan, a town in the Kathmandu Valley, Nepal, has a citizens’ advisory group developing a tourism programme to aid preservation of the community’s historic buildings.

The Nominal Group Technique

The nominal group technique (NGT) has proven valuable in visitor management. It involves forming discussion groups of eight to 10 people of different backgrounds. Participants are asked to draw up lists of key concerns about a project without consulting other group members. Using a round-robin procedure, participants itemise their concerns and then vote on their priorities.

The technique has several advantages. The time taken to itemise concerns encourages thinking on the part of the participants. The format encourages full group participation by preventing assertive people from dominating, as is common with focus groups.

A three-stage approach for community tourism planning can be used. First, key community leaders are interviewed. Using the issues identified, a random sample of community members can be surveyed. Finally a nominal group and a focus group can be used to determine the community’s preferences concerning tourism.

The NGT is useful for dealing with sensitive and controversial or prominent issues, when conflicting opinions and complex details may impede dialogue. Using the NGT, the first round is silent, giving people a chance to enter their ideas without having to speak. The NGT also gives people an equal opportunity to speak regardless of social status or personality. The technique is especially useful when many alternative solutions to a problem are possible.

The NGT consists of six steps:

- Defining problems to be solved or decisions to be made
- Silently listing ideas
- Stating and recording ideas
- Clarifying each item on the list
- Ranking listed items silently
- Closing the session

Participants should be given a time limit for generating ideas, or a maximum number of ideas, perhaps 10 or 12. The group members take turns stating ideas from their lists, and a recorder writes them on a flipchart or chalkboard. At this stage in the process the ideas are not discussed. Items are not duplicated, and if any ideas are combined, the facilitator and recorder make sure that everyone in the group agrees on the arrangement. Each listed item is discussed to clarify its meaning. The group facilitator assigns a letter to each of the ideas. Then each team member, using his or her own list, ranks the ideas.

The group may decide to rank only the top five ideas. Longer lists may be reduced using the half plus one rule (i.e., 30 items would be cut to 16). To tally the results, each participant calls out his or her own list. The recorder lists the results. The top-ranked items represent the team’s decision up to that point, before any discussion of the merits of the ideas.

An open discussion is held to determine whether the decision is consistent with everyone’s thinking, and to consider items that may have received too few or too many votes. If things seem really inconsistent another vote can take place. After this step people can be tasked with the next steps in a plan for implementation or action.

At Tangariro National Park in New Zealand, a Maori burial site became a popular rock-climbing area. Because this use of the site was of great concern to the Maori, meetings were held between the climbers and tribal elders with the result that the climbers agreed to practise voluntary restraint in using the area.

4.4.5 Local NGOs can serve as a liaison for more effective and sustained participation. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) can play an important role in linking tourism stakeholders. NGOs can act as intermediaries between the private sector and local interests. In some countries NGOs with computers and communications equipment can serve as links between stakeholders without such resources. There is reason to believe that NGOs’ prestige can bring added pressure to bear in negotiations with private tourism companies.

Grass-Roots Tourism Organisation in Patan, Nepal

Local tourism officials realise that for successful long-term restoration and protection efforts, they need key stakeholders, coordinated by a local tourism organisation, to carry out the programme, assure long-term support from
government, raise tourism demand, set mechanisms to collect tourism charges and voluntary contributions, and involve local residents directly in tourism businesses.

Because of the need to implement practical programmes on their own, the Municipality of Patan and local businessmen created a grass-roots tourism organisation. They are now developing local tourism to help finance local initiatives and solve local problems. Specific actions include the production of local promotional materials, the use of guidebooks, walking tours of the community and projects to restore local houses. Such community development projects rely on the full range of stakeholders. Notably, tourism can be used to revitalise old communities and pay for the restoration of historic buildings. Success rates have varied from one country to another.

4.5 Implications and recommendations

- Building confidence and trust requires time, energy and organisational capacity. In selecting or designing projects, sufficient time should be allowed for consensus-building involving local decision-making.
- The potential for follow-up on promises should be evaluated before project strategies are implemented. If follow-up is unlikely and promises cannot be kept, projects should be modified or dropped.
- Past interactions shape a group's trust level. Therefore, knowledge of past interactions will help determine the time and effort that will be needed to develop an effective working relationship.
- Experts who are not part of a local culture cannot always judge local perceptions, preferences or priorities, and should not necessarily be expected to provide such information.
- The ideals of representation and responsiveness are reached differently in different contexts. Effective planning is often hampered by a lack of understanding of the hard realities of the political and economic context. Compiling a complete list of stakeholders and the various affinities and conflicts within the interest groups can be a useful first step in analysing site issues. This evaluation should be carried out with stakeholders including government agencies at all levels, conservation groups, developers and local communities.

Suggested Activities

1. Create a preliminary list of the site's stakeholders and their concerns.
   - Sort stakeholders into categories, for example, tour operators, local businesses etc.
   - Identify the concerns of the different groups.
   - Develop a matrix showing where they overlap.
2. Develop a list of benefits and obstacles related to tourism planning and stakeholder interests.
   - Review the sustainable tourism planning process; develop goals, objectives and a monitoring programme as described in this manual.
   - Discuss the perceived obstacles and benefits to this process for each of the identified stakeholder groups; describe how they will influence tourism planning.
3. Develop a public participation programme.
   - Review past attempts to involve the groups and the lessons learned about public participation.
   - Review each stakeholder’s role in the planning process.
   - Hold a brainstorming session with staff to plan for public participation with reference to the lessons learned and the information in this manual.

Suggested Reading


Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

Sukur Cultural Landscape, Nigeria

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5. Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

Goals and objectives give direction to site management and set the agenda for defining the experiences that will be offered to visitors, as well as for determining the limits of tourism development. Setting goals and objectives is also the key to success for other programmes including interpretation, promotion and carrying capacity assessment. Detailed management objectives are essential for setting monitoring standards.

5.1 Policy goals and management objectives

Policy goals are broad statements that set out a vision of how a site will be managed on the basis of its environmental and social conditions. Policies guide a variety of actions including building infrastructure and developing social programmes such as promoting local educational and economic development through tourism. Where this policy development process is a joint exercise, a policy statement can unite people with different viewpoints and give direction to public and private tourism management.

The general nature of policy goals is reflected in a policy statement from the Australia Wet Tropics Management Authority. It says the Authority’s purpose is to “provide for the implementation of Australia’s international duty for the protection, conservation, presentation, rehabilitation and transmission to future generations of the Wet Tropics of Queensland World Heritage Area, within the meaning of the World Heritage Convention.”

While policy goals are general, management objectives set out in detail how a site will be managed. Within the framework of the general policy goals, the objectives spell out desired conditions, reflecting what management wants to maintain and the experiences a visitor would ideally encounter at a site. For example, if a policy goal is to provide local employment opportunities, then a management objective may be to encourage the use of local labour. Emphasising natural and cultural attractions. Some members of the government and business community, however, favoured the rebuilding of large-scale tourism infrastructure from the Soviet era. At the time, no unified national or regional policies for tourism development existed to give direction to and clarify these efforts. The disparity of goals persisted throughout the life of the project. When the time came to present a final report, the team found it impossible to present strategy and cost recommendations that met the needs of both groups.

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A project in the Carpathian Mountains in Eastern Europe illustrates the need for clearly defined tourism policy goals. An international funding agency assigned a team of experts to write a regional tourism development plan to aid small businesses. Market research suggested a comparative advantage for small-scale accommodations, emphasizing natural and cultural attractions. Some members of the government and business community, however, favoured the rebuilding of large-scale tourism infrastructure from the Soviet era. At the time, no unified national or regional policies for tourism development existed to give direction to and clarify these efforts. The disparity of goals persisted throughout the life of the project. When the time came to present a final report, the team found it impossible to present strategy and cost recommendations that met the needs of both groups.

A forest reserve in Costa Rica whose operational budget is largely based on visitor fees had no clear-cut policies on tourism development until several years ago. A project to build a larger visitor centre met with opposition from some in the administration because they saw the site more as a nature reserve than as a tourist destination.
Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

5

Setting Management Policy and Objectives: A case for a well-defined, written policy

When Keoladeo National Park World Heritage site in India began recruiting new local guides in 1996, the senior guides were concerned that the newcomers would threaten their incomes and lower guiding standards. They took the park authorities to court over charges of nepotism, and the park responded by pointing to its stated policy goal of supporting the rural poor.

Determining categories of visitors as a planning tool

The same park had a policy of encouraging Indian nationals to visit as well as generating local economic benefits. It was determined to encourage the following categories of visitors:

- People from New Delhi and other states
- Local tourists from adjacent districts
- People from the nearest town and surrounding villages and towns
- Students from the immediate area and nearby towns
- Foreign tourists
- Serious bird-watchers who stay for a week or so
- Annual visitors from both within India and abroad

Setting fees on the basis of goals and objectives

Policy goals can guide the setting of entrance fees. In this case, the park authorities wanted to generate more revenue to support local development projects, but they had to avoid maximising the fees, fearing that such a policy might lead to charges of elitism, conflict with their educational objectives, and possibly a loss of local political support. They opted for a multi-tiered policy, substantially raising the entrance fee for foreign visitors while reducing it for local visitors, and creating a weekly pass for serious bird-watchers. To determine the new fees, they conducted a “willingness-to-pay” survey.

5.2 Issues of cultural authenticity and natural integrity

5.2.1 The cultural authenticity and/or natural integrity of a site must be considered when developing tourism policy goals and objectives. If heritage becomes a commodity, serious questions may arise with respect to these two issues. A tourism marketing process may fail to focus on a site’s true cultural traditions or historical interpretation and instead package it using an imagined sense of character. World Heritage cultural sites, many incapable of accommodating large volumes of tourists, may use inappropriate modern materials and styles when trying to increase capacity. For example, the Archaeological Survey of India ruled out lighting the grounds of the Taj Mahal. Lights would have made it easier for evening visitors but would have taken away from the experience of seeing the monument by moonlight.

A historic town in the United States was practically deserted, raising the question of whether to let the cultural resource continue its natural decline or intervene to restore the site for more intensive tourism. Unfortunately, no old photographs remained from the town’s heyday, and experts feared a misrepresentation of the past if restoration was carried out. The state historical society recommended managing the site to permit the town’s natural deterioration. Major restorations were rejected in favour of simple sharing and bracing. To accommodate tourism needs, minimal construction activities were recommended including parking, footpaths and signage.

The local historical society, however, recommended that the town be completely restored. It favoured more intensive tourism and was not concerned with philosophical issues and the consequences of intervention. In the end, the town was restored but with doubts remaining over whether the quality, character and authenticity of the site was compromised.

Practically, policy decisions are often heavily influenced by economic considerations. A decision on maintaining the values of ancient ruins in relation to the extent to which stabilisation and conservation is carried out may be a function of the funds and personnel available. Allowing visitors to view a ruin from a distance may be more practical and preferable than the more expensive option of structurally stabilising the site to permit visitor access. In some cases all that may be needed is vegetation control to reduce deterioration.

5.2.2 At World Heritage sites, policies and objectives must be in line with original integrity or authenticity values. When developing tourism policies at World Heritage sites, the overriding priority is to maintain the form and fabric of the resource. The nomination dossier of a World Heritage site can give guidance to the process of balancing policy and management objectives against tourism needs. These dossiers usually describe a site’s features and previous changes in detail and may set out necessary preservation actions. Dossiers are available through each country’s State Party and/or through the World Heritage Centre. If the information is not detailed enough or if questions continue to arise, managers can seek advice on authenticity and integrity problems from the World Heritage Centre and its advisory bodies, IUCN, ICOMOS and ICCROM.
setting goals and objectives links a tourism strategy with those who will have an impact on a site now and in the future. Stakeholders can be consulted on a number of management concerns such as infrastructure development and monitoring programs. Stakeholders usually include government officials, members of the environmental and conservation community, scientists, historic preservation organizations, hotel and tour agency owners, visitors, guides, and residents.

Following is a list of stakeholders with suggestions on how they may contribute to developing tourism goals and objectives.

- **Park, forestry or archaeological department officials** may provide information on past management and visitor issues.
- **Guides** can offer advice on the social and environmental conditions of the site, and their input can bring to light important interpretation issues.
- **Guides working for tourist agencies** can give advice on their employers’ concerns and input on site monitoring needs.

### Principles of the ICOMOS International Cultural Tourism Charter

Policy statements may be based on the following principles:

- Since domestic and international tourism are among the foremost vehicles for cultural exchange, conservation should provide responsible and well-managed opportunities for members of the host community and visitors to experience and understand that community’s heritage and culture at first hand.
- The relationship between heritage places and tourism is dynamic and may involve conflicting values. It should be managed in a sustainable way for present and future generations.
- Conservation and tourism planning for heritage places should ensure that the visitor experience would be worthwhile, satisfying, and enjoyable.
- Host communities and indigenous peoples should be involved in planning for conservation and tourism.
- Tourism and conservation activities should benefit the host community.
- Tourism promotion programs should protect and enhance natural and cultural heritage characteristics.

**Note:** The full text of the Charter appears as Appendix 2.

### Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

#### 5.3 Stakeholder concerns and developing policy goals and objectives

**5.3.1 Stakeholder concerns should make up the list of management issues from which policy goals and objectives are developed.** Stakeholders’ involvement in setting goals and objectives links a tourism strategy with those who will have an impact on a site now and in the future. Stakeholders can be consulted on a number of management concerns such as infrastructure development and monitoring programs. Stakeholders usually include government officials, members of the environmental and conservation community, scientists, historic preservation organizations, hotel and tour agency owners, visitors, guides, and residents.

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- **Guides** can offer advice on the social and environmental conditions of the site, and their input can bring to light important interpretation issues.
- **Guides working for tourist agencies** can give advice on their employers’ concerns and input on site monitoring needs.

#### 5.3.2 Background information should supplement the list of stakeholder concerns.** When developing goals and objectives, libraries and department archives are useful sources of valuable supplemental information, for example on endemic or endangered species of fauna or flora, or on visitor use and impacts on wildlife or archaeological ruins. National tourism and protected area laws and policies including the legal requirements for licensing and taxation can help in setting government policies and in understanding current conditions of tourism development. Old master plans and the recommendations contained in them are also useful. At Copan, a Mayan World Heritage archaeological site in Honduras, a major international hotel was built even though many had suggested that smaller existing hotels in a nearby town would have been adequate with some minor upgrading. Many unattended ruins were destroyed just because they lay near a new access road to the Copan ruins.

#### 5.4 Identifying common interests with stakeholders

**5.4.1 Conflicts with the local community may prevent cooperation in tourism development.** For this reason consultation with community members during planning is essential. They may voice concerns that development will bring increased pollution or crime; that tourist traffic may endanger their children; or that tourists will have a negative impact on social conditions, for example by wearing inappropriate dress. They also may fear that the development will not benefit local people, for example that jobs as guides will be given to outsiders.
5.4.2 Environmentalists and conservationists have important concerns over the potential negative impacts of tourism development on natural and cultural sites. Environmentalists involved in the protection of flora and fauna may fear that opening an area for tourism could also invite hunters, or they may voice concern over potential disturbances to nesting birds, for example. Archaeologists might warn against vandalism and other potential damage to ruins and monuments. Both groups may complain about increased litter, particularly if existing funds are insufficient for garbage collection. Both are likely to press for conditions in which visitors do not feel rushed or crowded, or spend too much time waiting to enter a site. Members of this stakeholder group often complain of a lack of communication with the tourism sector, including both the ministry and private operators. They may also complain that staff members value tourism development more than educational activities and scientific research.

This stakeholder group might wish to persuade site managers to implement an efficient reservation system, to limit access to areas with pristine, fragile ecosystems, or to vulnerable archaeological sites, and to mount an education campaign to minimise impacts. They might insist on strict supervision of visitors, especially student science groups. Researchers often advocate the appointment of a science adviser at the site who could promote and manage research. Agreement could be reached on specific targets for tourism promotion and development.

5.4.3 Tour guides are a valuable source of information and advice concerning conditions affecting the environment as well as the visitor experience. They will point out unsafe trail sections and help ensure that trails are maintained for comfortable walking, as well as alert management to problems of crowding and noise. Guides can inform management when local people use the site for hunting and killing birds and other wildlife. Like the environmentalists and conservationists, guides are usually concerned about the quality of their clients' experience, and will insist that the time it takes to purchase a ticket be kept to a minimum, that congestion on the access road to the site be eliminated, and so on. They may suggest maintaining limits on the numbers of visitors permitted at a site through use of an effective reservation system, and measures such as staggering visits by promoting afternoon tours. A direct telephone or radio connection between site management staff and guides would ensure consistent and effective communication.

5.4.4 Hotel owners and managers usually want a site to provide a broad base of opportunities for different types of visitors. They are also concerned about crowding and littering, the amount of parking at the site entrance, and the presence of persistent beggars and/or souvenir hawkers. As with independent guides, hotels appreciate consistent and reliable communication with site management, perhaps by a specially installed direct phone line.

Members of this stakeholder group might ask staff management to develop a reservation system for tours. They would also advocate formation of a tourism advisory committee to meet with the local community about development issues and the needs and preferences of tourists.

5.4.5 Overseas tour operators and ground operators are especially concerned about logistical questions. Will their tour groups have to wait in line behind other tours scheduled at the same time? Will their groups meet up with noisy or inconsiderate groups? Is there enough parking? And, as with other shareholder groups, operators are anxious for a site to be well maintained and safe for visitors, and in the case of natural sites that the wildlife is adequately protected. These stakeholders often advocate efficient reservation systems, good communications and regular maintenance.

5.4.6. A stakeholder advisory group can facilitate the development of policy goals and management objectives. Such a panel provides a mechanism for exchanging ideas and information. The group should draft a written policy or vision statement that can be developed and publicly endorsed. The group could also help to set management objectives, including standards for desired conditions and actions.

Practically, stakeholder groups can be engaged in the management process and serve as forums for exchanging views and reaching agreement on tourism issues. If an advisory group is not feasible, some mechanism for exchanging ideas is needed. This can be as simple as a regular exchange of memos between site management staff and stakeholder groups, to solicit opinions and describe current activities.

The process of developing goals and objectives should also take into account the site’s uniqueness in relation to other sites with which it competes. Tour operators and other tourism professionals who may be members of the advisory group can be a valuable source of information about a site’s comparative advantage over others in the area.

5.5 Visitors’ preferences and demand

5.5.1 Data about visitors’ preferences and demand for a site is essential for establishing objectives. Information on the number of visitors and their likes, dislikes, motivations and expectations will help the planner
Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

5.5.3 Existing sources can be used to start the process of assessing visitor preferences and demand. Information and statistics from the tourism ministry, protected area staff and tour operators can help provide an idea of current and future demand and the mix of market segments. National tourism officials have information on tourism development and studies or statistics on tourism markets. Statistics and reports from the site staff and tour operators can provide an idea of visitor preferences and demand. Existing studies from national tourism officials can provide information on the kinds of tourists the government is attempting to attract and the type of tourist expected to visit a site in the future. Interviews with retired parks, forestry or archaeological survey officials may shed light on past management plans and visitation trends or suggesting targets for an eventual survey or interview.

Planning and Conducting Surveys

OBJECTIVES

- to evaluate an interpretation or promotional programme
- to evaluate the number and types of tourists visiting the area in order to justify an application for funding or assess the effectiveness of an investment
- to measure visitors’ willingness to pay, in order to set a realistic entrance fee
- to assess visitor preferences regarding existing and contemplated recreational activities

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

- Surveys should be open and honest about the information being sought, such as data on visitors’ spending
- Respondents have the right to refuse to answer questions at any time.
- The researcher should guarantee confidentiality, or, if the data collected are to be published, the respondent should give written consent. Personal information is rarely necessary; a mailing list of visitors can be compiled separately from a survey.
- The survey questions and procedure should take into account cross-cultural, ethnic or gender sensitivities.

divide visitors into subgroups of people with similar characteristics, needs and spending behaviours. This information is useful in setting objectives for infrastructure, personnel needs and education and interpretation programmes. Combined with data on tourism markets, the information can be used to develop objectives for attracting certain types of tourists to a site. For example, managers with a policy of boosting local community development might set a goal of attracting tour operators who use local guides.

5.5.4 Observations, surveys and interviews provide more detailed visitor profiles. Such information on visitors and their interests may be needed to fine-tune management objectives, for example, on crowding preferences or tourists’ spending patterns. Observations are qualitative and less exact than surveys and interviews, but they are quick, inexpensive and useful for indicating trends or suggesting targets for an eventual survey or interview.

Observations may include: organisation (group size), forms of transportation, type and amount of equipment, uses of time, maps of where people go and behaviour including languages used and noise levels. Since most people have difficulty analysing their own behaviour and motivations, observations can be a quick and useful technique for monitoring what people actually do.

A look at tourism development in neighbouring communities can indicate a site’s potential demand and show how tourism has affected the economies and social conditions of the community. Local guides and hotel and pension owners can provide information on visitor preferences and demand cycles. Also, because they are in constant touch with changes in the international travel markets, they can help in identifying and tracking user preferences and demand, for example, whether visitors travel in tours or organised groups or travel independently. They can provide helpful information for developing infrastructure and interpretation material. Scientists and archaeologists can also share information about visitor preferences and patterns.
Focus groups hold facilitated discussions aimed at allowing viewers bias is difficult to avoid. Intensive and costlier than other methods, and that advantages of interviews include that they are more labour when privacy is needed to avoid peer pressure. The disadvantages are especially useful when the subject is complex, and questions can correct for inadequate replies. Interviews are associated with illiteracy and language barriers. Follow-up is not possible with individual respondents.

**TYPES OF DATA**

**Qualitative data** can provide a rich body of descriptive information that can be used in its own right or to help set the objectives of quantitative surveys. Methods for collecting qualitative data include interviews, focus groups and observation. A drawback is that qualitative data are difficult to measure and require subjective judgement.

**Quantitative data** can be collected in face-to-face or telephone interviews, or through questionnaires. Quantitative data are numerical and can be coded for statistical analysis. Attitudes and opinions are measured using rating scales. While quantitative methods may sample just a portion of the population, with statistical analysis they yield fairly reliable generalisations about the population as a whole. One drawback of such data is that they can be impersonal and fail to reveal why visitors feel or behave the way they do. Another is that defects in survey design or interviewing skills may lead to bias. Design faults may also lead to the collection of a sample that is not truly representative of the population under study.

**DATA-GATHERING TECHNIQUES**

**Participant observation**, conducted without overt contact with the subjects, can be used to gather qualitative and quantitative data. The researcher becomes part of the group being observed and may make important discoveries about visitor preferences. Such information could be useful in the planning of a detailed survey, for example by helping to identify categories of tourists.

**Face-to-face interviews** are an occasion to ask in-depth questions on a particular subject. Respondents are allowed to answer freely without time constraints. As with participant observation, this exercise can be a preliminary to developing a quantitative survey. Interviews are less prone to misunderstanding and avoid problems associated with literacy and language barriers. Follow-up questions can correct for inadequate replies. Interviews are especially useful when the subject is complex, and when privacy is needed to avoid peer pressure. The disadvantages of interviews include that they are more labour intensive and costlier than other methods, and that interviewer bias is difficult to avoid.

**Focus groups** hold facilitated discussions aimed at allowing certain issues to emerge. A leader moderates the discussion and records the results. Focus group discussions permit a wide range of responses and take less time overall than in-depth interviews. The format allows observation of the participants that can provide insights into their behaviours and attitudes.

Self-completed questionnaires are cheaper than interviews and can yield a great deal of information. Survey forms may be stocked at strategic places, distributed along with entrance tickets or handed out to a sampling of the target group. The main disadvantage is that follow-up is not possible with individual respondents.

5.5.5 Interviews are more labour-intensive but can provide an in-depth view of a given situation. Interviews require specific training, and the results can vary according to the subjectivity of the interviewer. Face-to-face interviews using open-ended questions usually provide a rich complement to quantitative data. Interviews are also valuable because they impart information to interviewees about site issues.

Surveys are less expensive than face-to-face interviews, can reach a broad range of visitors and can provide valuable quantitative data, which is useful for reinforcing management decisions. However, with surveys communication is only one-way, and they require skills in questionnaire design and data management. They are also less effective than interviews in educating visitors. Ideally, a combination of methods should be used to determine preferences and construct accurate visitor profiles.

Categorising tourists according to preferences and behaviours can contribute to the realisation of a site’s goals and objectives. For example, if income generation is a key goal, information should be compiled on variations in spending by visitors. If education of schoolchildren is a priority, they should figure in a survey.

5.6 Setting objectives at sites offering multiple activities

5.6.1 At large sites, whether cultural, natural or mixed, management objectives may vary from one area to another within the site. People visit attractions with different expectations. Serious bird-watchers may come to a site to see an endangered species in a seldom visited, quiet environment. At the same time, local tourists may come to the site to see an archaeological ruin and to picnic or socialise with family members, and they may be not be particularly bothered by noise levels.

The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) has proven a useful tool for setting objectives for these different visitor experiences. The ROS is a means of describing how tourism and recreation will be managed for different areas within a site. It works under the assumption that certain activities fit best in certain physical areas, for example, wilderness trekking fits better in relatively untouched forests than in farming areas. It also assumes that activities should provide visitors with certain experiences or opportunities, such as solitude or adventure. For example, on Tanzania’s Mt. Kilimanjaro, planners created a hiking zone where numbers were restricted and visitors could expect infrequent contact with other walkers. An even more restricted wilderness zone allowed only very minimal use. All huts and other permanent facilities were removed, only tent camping was permitted and the
Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

highest degree of solitude was provided, the area being free of permanent human presence.

To separate different activities, the ROS system uses pre-established categories called opportunity classes that match the site’s physical resources with the activities best suited to them. For example at a mixed site, one area may be managed for archaeological tourism and another for bird-watching. Opportunity classes set out the desired conditions for the different areas and provide guidelines for management objectives. These include guidelines on tourism/recreation activities and infrastructure development. In the United States, parks and forest services use a set of predetermined opportunity classifications including primitive, semi-primitive non-motorised, semi-primitive motorised, rural and modern urban. Other countries have designed their own categories to fit the physical realities of their particular region. Each classification entails management standards and desired conditions that fall within a site’s policy goals. The information needed to identify and establish opportunity class areas is drawn from background information on policy goals, existing legislation and stakeholder concerns.

Each opportunity class encompasses a set of experiences and activities for the visitor. Each has guidelines for ecological, social and management conditions. For example, an area classified as primitive might be maintained as a wild stretch of terrain where vehicles are not permitted and where visitors are highly likely to experience physical challenge and solitude. Because such areas appeal to tourists seeking a wilderness experience, appropriate activities may include sports such as backpacking and canoeing.

Moving across the spectrum, rural areas within a site, for example farmland, can have varying degrees of human impacts and contact with other people is to be expected. Here activities such as wilderness backpacking would probably not be appropriate. On the other hand, bird-watching along rural roads may be an appropriate tourist activity.

Infrastructure development for different activities is closely related to an area’s opportunity class. The ROS system matches infrastructure objectives with the experiences on offer. For example, if an objective is to provide an isolated wilderness experience, only basic infrastructure would be needed in populated rural areas. Infrastructure may be more sophisticated, with accommodations that fit visitors’ expectations.

5.7 Implications and recommendations

• When formulating goals and objectives, the first step is to determine the purpose of tourism at a site. Questions such as the following can stimulate thinking about this issue: Is the purpose solely to generate foreign exchange, or will the site also be used to boost small local enterprises such as guiding or handicrafts?

Will revenue be used to support the site, for example to pay for additional guards? How will the site look and how will it be managed? Will it give special opportunities for local employment and provide educational opportunities for local residents? Will the site’s infrastructure design reflect the traditions of the area by using natural materials?

• Collecting and organising information from available resources, including library or planning department archives, and noting areas where information is lacking can save time and money. The exercise can facilitate the work of outside consultants and identify additional management data that may be needed. The tourism ministry, protected area staff and tour operators can provide information and statistics on fragile areas, areas of special interest, existing visitor impact, current and future demand and the mix of market segments. This information is useful for making decisions on the siting, design and cost of infrastructure.

• Familiarity with government tourism policies, current conditions of tourism development and studies or statistics on the country’s tourism markets, aids in the development of policies and management objectives. Management plans and visitation records, as well as accounts of tourism problems and solutions, help to illustrate environmental, cultural and archaeological conditions. Local guides are knowledgeable about social and environmental conditions and visitor preferences. Guides working for major tourist agencies and the owners and managers of hotels and pensions can give advice on management concerns and visitor preferences. Tour operators familiar with international travel markets can also aid in identifying and tracking user preferences and demand.

• Stakeholder concerns should be analysed in terms of how they will affect management costs. For example, concerns may include protecting and viewing a particular species of wildlife or minimising crowding at a ruin site. With this information a manager can decide whether sufficient funds are available to bring about and maintain the desired conditions.

• The manager should determine current levels of usage by asking the following sorts of questions: How many people visit the site? Are they local or foreign visitors? How do they gain access to the area and what do they do when they visit? What infrastructure already exists? Do existing attractions show signs of damage? Notes on site conditions, with accompanying photographs, can help in setting management objectives and in future monitoring and interpretation work.

• Listing the concerns and preferences of the various stakeholders will help analyse how these groups will influence goals and objectives. Differences of opinion and areas of agreement between the groups should be clearly identified. The common links will be important for establishing goals and objectives for development and man-
Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

- Comments should be reviewed, discussed and written into a final document endorsed by all concerned parties so that a common direction for tourism can be found. A policy statement will be the key to future decisions. Existing tourism definitions and policy documents such as the ICOMOS Cultural Tourism Charter (see Appendix 2) can guide the formulation of site policies.

- A stakeholder tourism advisory group made up of the various interest groups, tourism officials, local administrators, residents, site managers and others can be an important mechanism for the exchange of ideas. The group should meet regularly to discuss the purpose of the site’s tourism programme and how it will be managed. The process should yield consensus on a policy or vision statement. Pertinent questions include:
  - Does the site provide the opportunities for tourism that visitors want?
  - Does the cost of providing those opportunities seem reasonable given the needs of the site and the different stakeholders?
  - Are there differences among the various stakeholder groups that would prevent the success of a project?

- The ROS process should be used to map out the areas best suited to certain activities at large natural or mixed natural and cultural sites for discussion with the advisory group. Existing land use maps and baseline inventory information will provide the tools necessary to get started.

- An analysis of the comparative advantages of the site over neighbouring sites will help give direction to tourism goals and objectives. These should reflect the qualities that make the site competitive in the marketplace and meet social and economic objectives. ROS classifications should also reflect these comparative advantages. For example, the site may have more isolated beaches than a neighbouring site, giving it an obvious comparative advantage. A management objective might be to install little infrastructure and keep visitation levels low, perhaps by charging a higher admission fee for the privilege of using the relatively untouched area.

Suggested Activities

1. Analyse existing policy and management objectives
   - Review laws and policies including those at the national level related to visitor management;
   - Review the site management plan and analyse previous visitor management objectives;
   - Review the site’s tourism experience to date, including an outline of who has done what and the strengths and weaknesses of these efforts;
   - Identify gaps, i.e., what policies and objectives should be strengthened, and highlight future needs making preliminary suggestions on actions to meet these needs.

2. Gather visitor data
   - Determine whether visitors to a site are local residents or foreign tourists;
   - Determine how different groups use the site. For example, local residents may use springs for bathing, while foreigners may come to the same site to see a famous species of bird;
   - Collect existing visitation statistics on use, trends, travel patterns and activities;
   - Develop and implement a visitor survey asking tourists their perceptions and preferences and have them compare the site with neighbouring attractions; identify visitor problems or areas of specific concern and add these to the map;
   - Ask tour operators about tourist needs and preferences and have them evaluate the site against neighbouring attractions.

3. Meet with individual stakeholder groups, in interviews or by holding workshops, and develop a draft paper on the issues. Consult:
   - community leaders to obtain their ideas for planning, tourism development in neighbouring communities and the types of skills available in the community;
   - management and administration staff to identify their concerns and issues;
   - local guides for their views of social and environmental conditions at the site;
   - scientists and researchers to learn more about the site’s environmental and social conditions in relation to visitation impacts;
   - hotel owners and managers for their views on management problems, e.g., reservation systems and communication between the site and the hotels; and
   - tour operators to determine tourists’ needs and preferences.

4. Form a tourism advisory group
   - Ask each stakeholder group to appoint a representative to the advisory group and arrange a practical system for information exchange;
   - Supply the members with the draft issues and concerns and gain their consensual approval of the document;
   - Outline the responsibilities of the tourism advisory group representatives.

5. Write tourism policies
   - Develop visitor management policies in coordination with the advisory group. Base discussions on site policy needs, management parameters, stakeholder concerns, the site’s comparative advantage, and existing legislation and international conventions;
Setting Policy Goals and Management Objectives

- Generate consensus on the types and amount of visitation desired;
- Have the policy/vision statement publicly endorsed.

6. Develop management objectives

- Review the vision statement, stakeholder concerns and management preferences with the tourism advisory group;
- If appropriate, and considering the site’s comparative advantages, use the map developed in the preceding steps to identify and map different ROS opportunity classes;
- Reach a consensus on management objectives for either the whole site or each opportunity class, if ROS is being used; plan infrastructure development for activities accordingly.

Suggested Reading


Objectives-Oriented Project Planning (ZOPP). Deutsche Gesellschaft, fur Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH, Unit 04, Strategic Corporate Development, Germany (in English, French, Spanish and Portuguese), Eschborn, Germany, 1988

Carrying Capacity and Related Planning Issues
Carrying Capacity and Related Planning Issues

Understanding the subject of carrying capacity is essential for planning and decision making. Understanding the limitations of the concept and knowledge of methodologies that have replaced it is essential not only for implementing practical management plans but also for evaluating suggested projects. These methodologies generate impact indicators and standards that are linked to site policy goals and management objectives. They are essential for determining when undesirable change is taking place at a site.

6.1 General carrying capacity issues

6.1.1 The concept of carrying capacity addresses the question of how many people can be permitted into an area without risk of degrading the site and the visitors’ experience of it. It has generally been broken down into three categories: physical, ecological and social.

- Physical carrying capacity, called “facility carrying capacity” by the World Tourism Organisation, mostly has to do with available space the number of beds available to overnight guests, how many cars would fill a parking lot, how many campers in a campground, seats in a theatre, and so on. Concomitant to such considerations is the question of fresh water and electricity supply.

- Ecological carrying capacity is the degree to which an ecosystem is able to tolerate human interference while maintaining sustainable functioning. As noted in Chapter 3 a curvilinear relationship may exist between use and impact at a site, and wide variations in ecosystem resistance and resilience make ecological carrying capacity difficult to predict.

- Social carrying capacity is psychological and socio-cultural and refers to the limit beyond which the number of people in an available space would cause a decline in the quality of the recreational experience and the users’ satisfaction. Overcrowding is a prime example of a socio-cultural carrying capacity issue. Since different user groups have different social expectations and because of complicated issues related to cultural resistance and resilience, this factor is also difficult to assess.

6.1.2 The concept of carrying capacity has evolved completely with a better understanding of the relationship between the number of visitors and the impacts they cause. During the 1960s and 1970s, the main focus was on developing a system for setting limits to the number of visitors to parks, monuments and protected areas as a means of safeguarding natural and cultural resources. The aim was to determine the point at which adverse impacts were likely to begin. Experience has shown that such a simple calculation is not feasible. Several factors are involved:

The onset of environmental deterioration or adverse social impacts may come sooner or later depending on variations in visitor behaviour or the resistance and resilience of a given ecosystem. One destructive tourist can cause more damage than 50 conscientious visitors. Some areas such as meadows can handle less use than areas with more resilient vegetation; just a handful of tourists in a community may be responsible for most of the litter; some communities may accept larger groups of tourists while others reject them, and so on. For some individuals, a single fellow visitor at an archaeological site would be too many; for others, hundreds of fellow visitors would not diminish the quality of the experience.

Setting a specific carrying capacity figure may give the false impression that a protected area is safeguarded when it is not. Visitors to a ruin site may be limited to 100 at a time, while in an isolated corner some visitors may be helping themselves to priceless souvenirs. The carrying capacity of a nature trail may be set at 100, but that will not prevent some visitors from disturbing a colony of nesting birds as they approach to take photographs.

All activities cause environmental and social impacts. Site managers must set well defined and established goals for desired conditions that will serve as a baseline for determining an acceptable level of impact. For example, managers need to know how much litter is dropped along an interpretive trail before launching a visitor education campaign against littering, so that they can determine whether their efforts are succeeding. When visitors to a natural area desire an experience relatively free of fellow visitors, managers may establish a baseline number of people considered unsatisfactory.

Clearly, there is no magic number. Current models of visitor management involve setting goals and objectives, formulating indicators and monitoring results.

6.1.3 Planning for visitor management should be based on the idea of limits to acceptable change. The new planning methodologies assume that all activities cause impacts and that desired conditions should serve as the baseline for planning. Managers need to know not only how many people are in an area, but also how these users are affecting the area’s natural and cultural resources. The new models set limits to impacts rather than visitation. It is a matter of tracking ecological and social indicators through field studies and user surveys.

6.1.4 The methodology known as Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) sets standards and monitoring indicators based on management and stakeholder concerns. When the quantifiable standards are not met, impacts have become so negative that the management is prepared to take actions such as reducing access and restricting behaviours to avoid further degradation of resources, even if such actions would be unpopular. The idea is that environmental and social conditions help themselves to priceless souvenirs. The carrying capacity of a nature trail may be set at 100, but that will
management takes specific mitigating actions. LAC pro-
gammes may set numeric visitor limits, for example 100
people at a cultural site at any one time, but the overall
process provides a much more comprehensive and effec-
tive system for protecting resources. The challenge is to
define how much and what kind of change is “accept-
able” and set indicator limits or standards for any changes
that would degrade the conditions agreed upon.

LAC standards are established on the basis of stakeholder
and management needs, and follow legal and Convention
guidelines. For instance, stakeholder concerns may centre
on a desire to limit certain impacts by maintaining a clean,
safe, uncrowded environment in a particular area of a nat-
ural site. In this case, reliable indicators may include the
number of people on a site’s interpretive trail at any one
time, dangerous areas on the trail or the amount of litter.

Management objectives should lead to measurable
impact standards reflecting the desired conditions. For
example, one site indicator may be the number of unsta-
bile areas found on a tourist trail. In this case, the site man-
ger should define what is meant by an unstable area and
quantity the unstable areas along the trail. With this infor-
mation, the manager, in consultation with an advisory
group, can set a standard for keeping the area safe for vis-
itors. If overcrowding is a concern, visitors can be regular-
lly asked to report the number of fellow visitors seen on
the trail, producing data which can serve as an indicator.
Other indicators may be social or economic, measuring for
example the revenue generated by a site and the response
of the local community to visitors.

While the LAC methodology was the first of the new vis-
tor management methodologies, all the newer planning
methodologies such as the Visitor Experience and
Resource Protection Process (VERP) are applicable to both
natural and cultural sites and follow these basic steps:

1. Determination of goals and objectives derived from the
concerns of management and stakeholders and how to
achieve them.
2. Formulation of a set of performance indicators based
on the goals and objectives.
3. Monitoring to determine whether these standards are
being met.
4. Deciding on actions to mitigate problems if the stan-
dards are not met.

6.1.5 Tourism impact indicators should reflect stake-
holder concerns, policy or vision statements, man-
agement objectives and the needs of stakeholders
who are utilizing the information. These elements,
combined with field experience, should inform meetings
with the advisory group aimed at selecting indicators to
track changes in the ecological, physical and social condi-
tions. It is essential to inform those making decisions how
this information will be distributed. In general, it is not
necessary to monitor all indicators; some overlap with
others and some may be simply too expensive or imprac-
tical to monitor. Also, indicators should not be seen as a
full measure of an impact or problem, but more an
attempt to describe it. Not all problem areas and concerns
are conducive to monitoring through indicators.

Agreement on indicators is the single most important part
of a monitoring and evaluation exercise. Experience has
shown that animated and collaborative brainstorming ses-
sions are useful for identifying and agreeing on indicators.

6.1.6 An inventory of existing conditions provides
the baseline data needed for indicators. Inventory
information determines the degree to which existing con-
ditions vary from desired conditions. Information on cur-
rent conditions is the baseline for establishing realistic
standards, a step needed for all the LAC-type methodolo-
gies. So for example, if vandalism at a rock art site is an
indicator, a count of all the graffiti found around the site
will be necessary. Any inventory exercise should be carried
out according to established, written procedures, insuring
consistent monitoring practices over the long term. An
inventory will test the basic data collection techniques and
provide the information needed for a monitoring manual.
This involves the development of standardised monitoring
surveys and evaluation forms, along with instructions for
making decisions on implementing actions to correct
unacceptable conditions.

Recommended Criteria for Indicators

- Quantitative - The indicator can be measured quantitatively.
- Easily measurable - It can be measured by field per-
sonnel using simple equipment and sampling
strategies.
- Relevant to concerns - The indicator genuinely reflects
the concern being tracked.
- Significant - It can detect a change in conditions that
would disrupt the functioning of an ecosystem or
reduce the future desirability of an area to visitors.
- Sensitive - The indicator allows easy detection of
changes in conditions that occur within a year.
- Reliable over time - Monitoring of the indicator can
be carried out in the same way during each monitoring
cycle.
- Responsive to management actions - The indicator
can detect a change in conditions resulting from
management actions.
- Cheap to measure - It does not require excessive
expenditure on equipment or use of staff time.

6.1.7 Measurement standards for indicators provide
targets for measuring tourism impacts to keep them
within acceptable limits. The written descriptions of
conditions favoured in a site’s management objectives can
give direction to setting quantifiable standards. For exam-
ple, a trail managed to offer a more natural type of
experience may be maintained at a width of two metres,
Carrying Capacity and Related Planning Issues

while a trail in an established tourist area having to accommodate larger groups may have a standard width of three metres.

Monitoring Indicators: Some Examples

- Abrasion of monuments
- Status of vegetation
- Number of human encounters while travelling per day by number of groups and their sizes
- Signs of pollution from humans, litter, food in streams
- Tourists' complaints about conditions
- Number of disturbances to an archaeological site
- Erosion
- Disturbance of wildlife populations
- Graffiti or vandalism
- Complaints from community members on deteriorating community values
- Increase in the number of crime reports

Standards are usually set to prevent degradation of current conditions. An example would be a standard for maintaining the population of a particular bird species or water quality. In some cases, however, even while managers would never desire degradation, they may set standards permitting a deterioration of current conditions if they believe that this would be a lesser evil than, for instance, having to restrict access or impose widely unpopular rules. Meetings of the advisory group and/or stakeholders will be needed to reach consensus on setting standards.

In large natural and mixed sites, the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) system can be used to set standards for different areas within the same site, depending on the needs of different user groups. Experience in the field indicates that users may hold a wide range of opinions, and consequently managers should consider setting wider ranges of standards. In natural areas, priority should be assigned to users with the greatest need for an unmodified environment.

Once standards are set, an inventory will determine the degree to which existing conditions vary from desired conditions. For example, if a significant amount of an area's trails are found to be wider than the agreed standard, or if abrasions or damage to a monument exceed a particular standard, actions can be taken to improve conditions. This is an ongoing process in which indicators are monitored on a regular basis to track trends and changes in conditions.

6.1.8 Misunderstandings persist among international organisations and government agencies regarding carrying capacity. Calls continue for studies to provide policymakers with a technical limit, a number or range of numbers that will indicate negative change. Such studies can create the false impression that carrying capacity can be reduced to a specific number indicating a clear point at which negative impacts will start to be seen. For example, at Lake Baikal, Russia, consultants were asked to determine the number of visitors per hectare that the terrain around the lake could support. Figures were derived primarily from formulas involving soil impact and slope. The study also made predictions of cultural impacts based on the number of tourists compared with the number of local residents. While this methodology was easy to implement within the allotted time for the project, it failed to take into account variations in tourist behaviour, travel patterns and different stakeholder interests. Additional dialogue with interest groups would have made the report's figures more relevant to the day-to-day work of site managers. More important, such dialogue would have started a process for setting tourism goals and objectives among the stakeholders within the limits of legislation on the environment and protected areas.

6.1.9 Managers may still feel the need to set numeric limits to control people at their sites. Visitor numbers should be set in accordance with agreed upon standards. In the field, this is not an exact science, but a matter of tracking impacts through monitoring programmes and arriving at an approximate judgement of when limits are reached. In practice, several strategies will help managers justify decisions to limit visitation. Data on numbers of visitors and their preferences make up the best justification for actions restraining the number of people permitted to enter an area. This is especially true if an expert study can be shown to the stakeholders affected by the decision. Visitor surveys could demonstrate the negative effects of crowding and the desire for solitude at an archaeological or sacred site.

The staff available to carry out protection efforts in relation to the number of visitors can also be used to justify restrictions. For example, the number of tourists admitted to an archaeological site may be a function of the number of guards available for patrolling the site to ensure its protection. Numbers may be controlled simply by reducing the size of a parking lot or visitor centre. However, such a measure may detract from visitor satisfaction if it results in crowding.

A Case Study

A visitor management study was carried out using the Visitor Experience and Resource Protection Process (VERP) at the Petra archaeological site in Jordan. Developed by the US National Park Service, VERP is a LAC-type system that does not necessarily set specific numbers as long as resources and social conditions can be measured and maintained. To this end, a monitoring programme determines whether desired conditions are being met. The following table presents several of the indicators, standards and methods of measurement recommended by the
6.2 Monitoring issues

6.2.1 The shift to LAC-type methodologies has highlighted the importance of monitoring. Managers need to know when desired conditions are being threatened, for example, with increasing water pollution in a stream or when waiting lines become too long at an entrance. A well-developed and regular monitoring programme can provide resource managers with data to justify sometimes controversial actions such as limiting the number of people allowed into a site at a time. Monitoring visitors’ likes, dislikes and travel patterns, as well as their impacts, can help identify and justify needed actions in the changing tourist industry.

6.2.2 The most difficult aspect of monitoring is ensuring that it is carried out on a regular basis. Managers are faced with many pressing day-to-day problems and often have little time or desire to carry out monitoring exercises. However, monitoring is effective only if it is done regularly; if it cannot be sustained, its usefulness is severely limited, well as their impacts, can help identify and justify needed actions in the changing tourist industry.

6.2.3 Many types of monitoring procedures are possible depending on the level of accuracy desired and available resources. For example, soil erosion on a nature trail can be measured in several ways. One method is to identify eroded sections by walking the trail and counting variations in width, perhaps caused when visitors seek to avoid muddy sections. Another is to establish permanent checkpoints at problem areas along the trail to measure soil loss. Each approach has advantages and disadvantages. Examining trail conditions in a general fashion does not give a precise measurement, but provides a good overview. On the other hand, while permanent monitoring plots will provide a more accurate measure of soil loss, the method is more expensive and time-consuming.

The differences in approach can also be illustrated with bird population counts. One inexpensive method systematically records the number of bird sightings by local guides. A more accurate but expensive method of tracking population changes involves catching specimens with nets or setting up a transect, or a fixed corridor along which species are counted on a regular basis.

Fewer options exist for monitoring socio-economic conditions such as crowding and community attitudes. Most socio-economic information is obtained through questionnaires or interviews, work that is labour-intensive and time-consuming. A survey of community attitudes towards tourism, for example, takes large amounts of time to develop, implement and analyse. A monitoring procedure should be selected on the basis of what questions need to be answered and how much time and funding is available to carry out the work. At the Great Barrier Reef in Australia, travel distances made monitoring each campsite in detail prohibitively expensive. Managers decided instead on the more cost-effective tactic of sampling a cross-section of camping areas.

Finally, all monitoring programmes should be evaluated to determine how well they measure the indicators. This evaluation should also determine how large a measured change must be for management to be confident that it is the result of visitor impact and not errors in data collection.

6.2.4 Monitoring of historic monuments must take into account values of integrity and authenticity. Indicators of structural or engineering conditions cannot translate into an overview of the complete health of a site since they do not reflect values of integrity or authenticity. While it is important to monitor the use of a facility and visitor satisfaction, experts say more monitoring is needed to measure the effectiveness of communicating a site’s historic significance. The Canadian National Historic Sites authorities set a policy to protect “commemorative
Carrying Capacity and Related Planning Issues

The determination of carrying capacity is most realistically viewed as an ongoing process. LAC methodologies go far beyond the narrow purpose of setting a limit to the number of visitors to a site. The methodology should be used to determine range and conditions that management could treat as options for policy setting based on feedback provided by monitoring programmes.

6.3 Implications and recommendations

- The determination of carrying capacity is most realistically viewed as an ongoing process. LAC methodologies go far beyond the narrow purpose of setting a limit to the number of visitors to a site. The methodology should be used to determine range and conditions that management could treat as options for policy setting based on feedback provided by monitoring programmes.

- Management goals and objectives for controlling impacts caused by tourism must be supported by
quantifiable measures and other means of comparing current conditions against desired conditions. These should be the basis of a monitoring programme with well-defined indicators.

- To identify monitoring indicators, planners should review stakeholder concerns, the site’s policy/vision statement and management objectives, then hold meetings with the advisory group to agree on desired ecological and social conditions. Written management objectives help give direction to the development of measurable standards.

- While managers will have the final decision, standards should be set on the basis of discussions with key stakeholders. Wherever possible, standards should not allow a downgrading of current conditions. For example, a standard for maintaining the population of a particular bird species should not be set below current levels unless offset by overwhelming advantages. Standards should be set wherever possible to reflect ideal conditions.

- Baseline data is essential to the establishment of realistic standards. An inventory will reveal the degree to which existing conditions vary from desired conditions. Standards must match goals and objectives and the desired conditions of stakeholders. So for example, if local education is a management objective, a standard may be set after determining the number of school visits carried out by staff during the past year.

- Inventories should be conducted according to established and written procedures to ensure consistent monitoring over the long term. The procedures could provide a basic framework for a monitoring manual.

- To ensure a monitoring programme’s sustainability, indicators should be selected in accordance with practical considerations. Local guides may be able to help with monitoring, and private travel agencies interested in tracking visitor preferences could finance surveys. Tour operators may be willing to invest in training for managers and contribute to monitoring.

- An understanding of the causes of changes in indicators can point to management solutions. Problem analysis begins with the monitoring process, during which solutions are identified to bring about desired conditions or even surpass specified standards.

Suggested Activities

1. Identify indicators

- Review the list of impacts and their causes
- Develop a preliminary list of tourism indicators with justifications for their selection, and estimate associated monitoring costs
- Present the selected indicators to the advisory group for their review

2. Collect baseline data on the indicators selected

- Develop a monitoring programme and write a monitoring manual
- Train site staff in the agreed upon methods to collect the data
- Determine how stakeholder partners could be involved in the monitoring

3. Set standards for indicators

- Use the data from Step 2 to develop a preliminary set of indicator standards
- IfROS opportunity classes are being used, set standards reflecting the different experiences desired in different areas of the site
- In conjunction with the tourism advisory group, discuss the proposed standards, reach consensus and develop a final agreement

Suggested Reading


Eagles, Paul F.J., Stephen F. Mc Cool and Christopher D. Haynes. “Sustainable Tourism in Protected Areas, Guidelines for Planning and Management”. World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA), Best Practice Protected Areas Guideline Series No. 8, IUCN The World Conservation Union, 2002

Carrying Capacity and Related Planning Issues


Strategies and Solutions to Tourism Management Problems

Acropolis, Athens, Greece

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As long as a site meets established standards, a manager's responsibilities extend to routine maintenance and continuous monitoring. However, if ecological, physical and/or social conditions approach or reach unacceptable levels, action must be taken. Knowledge of management strategies and solutions will arm the manager with the options available for restoring the desired conditions. Decision-making is also helped by an awareness of the consequences associated with these strategies and actions.

7.1 General issues

7.1.1 Any management action must begin with identification of the likely causes of a defined problem. A decline in conditions is not necessarily caused by tourism. Coral may deteriorate naturally; litter at an archaeological site may be caused by locals, not tourists, and so on. Once the cause is clearly identified, corrective actions can be taken. Well-focused actions, attacking the cause of the problem, save time and money. For example, an ongoing campaign may maintain an area affected by litter, but it can be expensive and does not attack the cause of the problem. It may be more cost-effective to identify the source of the litter and combine a maintenance programme with an education campaign that attempts to affect people's behaviour.

7.1.2 Management actions can be direct or indirect. Direct management actions confront problems of human behaviour through regulations that may entail enforcement, restricting activities or rationing use. Indirect methods seek to affect behaviour through education, information and persuasion. Visitors can be informed about the impacts connected with a certain activity, or given information that encourages the use of certain areas over threatened areas. Other indirect actions include physical alterations, such as the redirection of a trail to a more resilient area of a forest, that influence the movement of visitors.

In general, indirect actions are more successful in remote areas, where visitors' freedom to explore is usually a primary goal. Direct approaches are often used to prohibit visitors from entering fragile or dangerous areas, for example at an archaeological site where they might damage a priceless fresco. Experts say regulations succeed in general, and can be implemented, and when visitors have some say in how they are implemented. Visitors must understand why a behaviour change is desirable. Once implemented, of course, regulations must be enforced.

In practice, a combination of methods is generally used. For example, both direct and indirect actions can be used to minimise visitors' impact on a coral reef. Site staff can design an extensive public information campaign that can include printed materials, direct advertising and school programmes. Tour operators can be managed through permits, regulations and enforcement actions aimed at concentrating recreation activities at resistant reefs. A combination of methods is also recommended for controlling vandalism, including physical protection of the resource as well as education, making a site inaccessible to vehicles, increasing admission fees and protecting sites by not promoting them.

7.1.3 Factors to consider when selecting management actions include whether they meet objectives, their likelihood of success and difficulties of implementation, particularly cost. Management strategies should be in line with objectives. For example, if a management objective at a Himalayan site is to offer visitors the freedom to explore, then a softer management approach may be appropriate. Here staff may wish to emphasise educating trekkers on low-impact expedition behaviour. On the other hand, if a site's objective is to protect a priceless mosaic at an ancient monument, a more direct approach may be appropriate such as the deployment of guards to protect the site from looters or vandals and to regulate tourism activity near the work of art.

Actions should have a high probability of achieving the desired outcome. Before taking actions that may face resistance, it is important to ensure that norms and regulations give managers the legal mandate to act, and that appropriate enforcement systems will support its application.

Awareness of the visitor profile helps to ensure success. For example, a large group of foreign visitors may be strongly motivated towards the protection of an endangered species but unaware that they are disturbing the animal during feeding times. In this case, educational materials explaining low-impact viewing techniques may be the best method for minimising impacts.

Actions should be relatively easy and inexpensive to implement. In general, direct methods are considered more time-consuming and costly, while indirect actions are thought to be cheaper in the long run.

7.1.4 Experts suggest limiting regulation to the minimum necessary to effectively accomplish management objectives. The most effective but least restrictive management actions should be implemented first. The results should be monitored, and more restrictive actions may be implemented if necessary until conditions improve. For example, to deal with uncontrolled dumping of garbage, an educational campaign may be launched describing the problem and inviting voluntary compliance with a regulation against dumping at the site. If voluntary methods fail, a fine can be imposed. If this doesn't work, the area may have to be closed.

At some sites, human and financial resource limitations may necessitate more direct approaches in the short term. Experts in both the North and the South stress the need to develop visitor education programmes and other indirect methods. However, managers often opt for direct
Methods when faced with problems such as proximity to high population centres and limited staff and finances. In these situations, the cost and time involved in implementing indirect methods is weighed against immediate problems, such as the need to prevent the rapid degradation of an archaeological site by visitors buying objects stolen from the site.

7.2 Reducing the number of people who enter an area

Reducing visitation in high-use areas is a justifiable means of avoiding social impacts such as crowding, but may not by itself substantially reduce some ecological impacts. Reducing the number of people in an area can effectively reduce crowding or congestion, for example at a historical monument. However, since some environmental impacts follow the curvilinear trend discussed in Chapter 3, in natural areas such measures may not solve environmental problems unless visitors are also directed to more resistant areas.

An Overview of Management Strategies

Management strategies affecting the level and nature of exploitation of a site and its physical and socio-economic environment seek to minimize or reduce the impact of each visitor. Factors, or variables that can be affected or controlled, include the number of visitors, the types of activity, visitors’ behaviour and the environment’s physical and social resistance and resilience. A number of strategies address these variables:

Visitor levels may be controlled by reducing the total number of people allowed at a site or reducing the number of people allowed in one or several areas of a site by dispersing them or by concentrating them in a specific area.

Types of activities can be changed or influenced by addressing the ways in which the activity is practised, offering incentives for people to practise particular activities or imposing direct actions to restrict certain activities.

A site’s physical environment may be altered to make it more resistant to impacts through the use of infrastructure.

A site’s social environment can be affected by reducing conflicts between visitors and between visitors and the local community.

Management options for reducing the number of visitors to a site can include:

- restricting entry or closing an area;
- limiting group sizes;
- implementing a quota or permit system;
- increasing fees; or
- not providing facilities.

Options for dispersing or concentrating people to reduce use in a particular area can include:

- restricting the number of people who can enter the threatened area;
- limiting the permissible length of stay in the threatened area;
- raising the entrance fee for the threatened area only;
- zoning an area for a particular activity and not permitting the activity in the threatened area;
- directing tourists to more resilient areas through zoning, visitor education and offering more facilities or fewer facilities;
- charging different entrance fees on certain days of the week; and
- using a promotion and interpretation campaign to influence the use of one area over another.

Visitors’ behaviour can be changed through:

- education programmes teaching low-impact ways to visit a site, e.g., techniques for observing wildlife without disturbing it;
- interpretation programmes teaching respect for a site’s resources and protection issues.

Site managers may encourage visitors to practise particular activities by:

- raising or lowering prices for certain types of visitors;
- restricting opening hours, e.g. opening a site early for bird-watchers or closing it early to discourage other clientele;
- offering or not offering infrastructure;
- prohibiting certain activities through regulation and enforcement.

A site’s physical environment can be made more resistant to impacts by:

- using infrastructure to “harden” a site, e.g., hardening a trail with a wooden boardwalk or installing permanent moorings;
- relocating infrastructure to more resilient areas, e.g., moving a mountain refuge to an area less prone to erosion.

Actions for reducing conflicts between visitors include:

- zoning an area for compatible activities;
- influencing the types of tourism activities practised at a site by providing or not providing facilities.
7.2.2 Limiting the length of stay at a site can reduce ecological impacts. People have a tendency to go to the same places and follow the same routes. However, once people arrive at an established site such as a camping ground, they tend to disperse within the limits of the camping area. Limiting use — for example by reducing the number of campsites around a lake — would reduce the number of visitors but not necessarily reduce their ecological impact as they spread out over all the campsites. Actions would be needed to both reduce the number of people and ensure the permanent closing of selected campsites. On the other hand, in lightly used areas, visitor reductions can minimize ecological impacts as long as use levels are kept low, visitors are instructed in low-impact techniques and they avoid fragile areas. Even small groups because they tend to spread out over a larger area. They can also disturb an area more rapidly than a small party. However, in an area that is already heavily affected, it makes little difference if a group size is 10 or 50.

7.2.3 Closing an area can be an effective way to protect or restore environmental quality. The measure encourages the recovery of vegetation and reduces wildlife impacts. For example, visitors to Big Bend National Park in Texas, USA, are excluded during the breeding season of peregrine falcons to protect their nesting sites. Closure of an area, however, is a direct action that can be controversial and have economic and social ramifications. Any closure should be explained to the local community, not just to would-be visitors.

7.2.4 Reducing numbers by limiting the size of parties can also help control ecological and social impacts. Large parties can cause overcrowding as well as visitor conflicts. In more popular areas, limits on party size and an educational campaign may be needed to reduce impacts and to ensure more privacy for each group of visitors. In such cases educational programmes should stress the importance of using existing areas and keeping them pleasant for the next visitors.

Big groups are likely to create wider disturbed areas than smaller groups because they tend to spread out over a larger area. They can also disturb an area more rapidly than a small party. However, in an area that is already heavily affected, it makes little difference if a group size is 10 or 50.

7.2.5 Quotas can be used to reduce visitor levels but raise several issues. A point to consider is the financial cost of implementing and administering the quota system. If staffing is insufficient, a quota system probably cannot be maintained over the long term. Also, quotas favor people who can book in advance, excluding other categories of potential visitors.

Any sort of limitation may annoy visitors who cherish their freedom. Quota systems may especially irk those who consider themselves traditional users of a site. As a result they may choose to go elsewhere, and other sites may not be able to cope with increased use. Thus, for a quota system to be successful, access should be limited to alternative sites and user groups need to understand and accept the rationing technique being implemented.

7.2.6 Increasing visitor fees and other charges can reduce visitor numbers. The laws of supply and demand dictate that higher fees at a site will reduce visitation. A factor to consider when raising fees is the elasticity of demand, or how sensitive visitors are to a change in the cost of entering an area. This information can be gleaned from surveys. Another factor to consider is that visitors want pricing schemes to be easy and straightforward. They tend to prefer an all-inclusive fee over a main fee plus separate charges such as for parking or taking photographs. Setting visitor fees may also involve setting different entrance fees for local people and foreigners.
7.3 Concentrating people can limit social and environmental impacts. The strategy offers a high level of control and protection for sensitive resources. By limiting use to a few selected areas within a site, particularly areas that are resistant to impacts or at least not as sensitive to impacts, the policy confines disturbance to a smaller area. So at sites with sensitive resources, a concentration strategy can be used to direct visitors to areas where resources are more resilient and resistant. For example, some corals are more resistant to impacts than others, so visitors may be concentrated at more resistant areas. At Stonehenge, except for certain religious groups who are free to enter at certain times, visitors are not permitted to cross the site’s outer perimeter.

Besides limiting impacts to certain areas, concentrating use may open up new opportunities. For example, the policy may provide a rare opportunity to experience an area in relative isolation, perhaps at an archaeological site. The chance to be part of a small group visiting an isolated, highly protected site may be unique, and one that people may also be willing to pay more for.

A policy of concentrating may help avert possible impacts on naturally fragile areas resulting from the tendency of tourism enterprises such as hotel chains and theme parks to grow and expand. In sites that are already heavily impacted, there may be no other alternative but to encourage or restrict visitors to existing use patterns. Since people tend to use the same areas and the same routes, implementing this measure is usually not difficult and can be accomplished through regulation or through indirect methods such as persuading visitors to use a certain area or providing infrastructure in specific areas.

Concentrating tourists may produce a positive social outcome by allowing local people to escape the pressures associated with tourism. For example, in community rural village encampments developed for tourists in Senegal, tourist accommodations are situated well away from the village centre. In Ujung Kulon National Park in West Java in Indonesia, tourism activities are restricted to a zone that is managed by a private company that provides accommodation and services.

A possible disadvantage of concentrating use is that it changes the social climate of an environment for the visitors. At many sites, when tourists are clustered together, for example in an enclave of small hotels, they lose the feeling of solitude. This may be contrary to the visitor experience that was originally planned and/or what originally attracted people to the site.

7.3.2 Dispersing visitors is seldom simple and may not mitigate impacts. Limiting environmental impacts in natural areas by dispersing use to different areas can be effective in areas where use levels are low and visitors are conscientious about their behaviour. A dispersal policy should be supported with programmes designed to control where people go and how they engage in recreational activities. The policy may not be feasible at natural sites with limited resources for educating or controlling visitors.
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In addition, careful monitoring of a dispersal programme is needed because of the high potential for spreading problems.

Dispersing visitors by extending the tourist season is an option that may have ecological consequences. For example, using quotas and visitor permits can reduce crowding but may concentrate use in a season during which vegetation and wildlife are more fragile. Wildlife is especially vulnerable during the reproductive months and when animals feed for winter. During periods of higher rainfall and snowmelt, the ground may be more susceptible to compaction and breaking. Plants are more vulnerable during growth seasons.

At cultural sites, such as monuments with well-developed and protective infrastructure where there is little risk of environmental impacts, dispersing visitors is an effective way to relieve crowding. Dispersing visitors to different areas of a site can be accomplished through regulations or through information and persuasion. It can also be accomplished through the strategic placement of infrastructure. If staffing levels allow, direct actions such as issuing permits may also be effective. A permit system increases the distance between parties and supports a management objective of providing an experience in which human encounters are infrequent.

7.3.3 The decision to concentrate or disperse tourism should reflect policy goals and management objectives. A frequent policy goal is to assure that the benefits of tourism flow to the communities around a site. This may lead to pressure to open up new areas of a site to visitors. Tourism has a tendency to spread, and can lead in turn to the spread of social and ecological impacts. If on the other hand local economic development is a key goal, and there is sufficient revenue-generating potential to replace current economic activities in a given area, then expanding tourism to the area may be appropriate.

But if the main policy goal is protection of an endangered species and promoting visits by biologists, expanding tourism within a park may limit opportunities for research because of increased tourism impacts in sensitive areas.

7.4 Changing the physical environment to resist impacts

7.4.1 Increasing a site's resistance to visitor impacts by installing or modifying infrastructure is generally referred to as site-hardening. Adding infrastructure, or "hardening" a site, strengthens its physical durability. This may involve surfaced access routes and trails, or building shelters for trekkers, or barriers to prevent people from touching priceless mosaics such as at the Taj Mahal. An example of extensive hardening of a cultural site is at the Great Temple of Abu Simbel, in Egypt, where the daily influx of 2,000 tourists was causing traffic jams. Inside the temple, their respiration increased the humidity and carbon dioxide in the air, causing salt deposits to form on the walls. To address the traffic problems, management implemented a one-way road system. A ventilation system was installed to reduce the humidity and the temperature in the burial chamber. Another way to avoid impacts is simply to move infrastructure away from sensitive areas.

7.4.2 Hardening has both costs and benefits because it changes the nature of the visitors' experience. Hardening can lead to a change in visitor profile. The Milford track in New Zealand and the Overland track in Tasmania, both popular backpacking routes, saw an increase in use during the 1980s. Management responded to the resulting impacts by rationing use and hardening the tracks surfaces. Consequently, some visitors considered the tracks too easy and stopped using them.

Making experiences easier by hardening a site can also increase the level of crowding. In Tasmania, a boardwalk was built to restrict access to parts of the Gorden River. For business reasons, tour group sizes were not reduced, and groups could number more than 50. Crowding onto the boardwalk, the visitors had difficulty photographing one of the site's star attractions, a famous 2,000-year-old Huon pine tree.

Another effect of site hardening is that added materials may not blend in with the surrounding environment, compromising the original values of the site. One solution is to use natural materials instead of intrusive man-made materials. For example, fast-growing plants can be used to block a trail leading to a fragile or restricted area, or an entrance may be filled in with natural debris and rocks.

7.5 Changing visitor behaviour

7.5.1 Interpretation and education programmes can mitigate environmental and social impacts. Educational programmes instruct people on how best to behave at a site. Interpretation programmes inform and explain the site's resources and significance to the visitor.

Visitors can be taught low-impact techniques at both cultural and natural sites. In the United States, a "Save the Manatee Campaign" involved distributing guidelines to tourists and resulted in a decline in manatee mortality and injury. At the Luxor site, in Egypt, authorities reported that by explaining management problems to visitors they succeeded in distributing visitor movements more evenly. Interpretation and education programmes, although they may take time to succeed, may be preferable to infrastructure development because they are less likely to change the visitor experience and displace original target groups.

Certain impacts can be almost eliminated by teaching visitors minimum-impact techniques. In Tasmania, on the Overland track in the Cradle Mountain-Lake St. Clair National Park, trekkers came down with gastroenteritis because they were burying their waste too close to camping huts, contaminating water and food supplies. At one
7.5.2 Interpretation and education campaigns need not be overly costly. Goals should be critically evaluated to determine whether they could be met just as effectively through modest means. Instead of allocating huge sums to large infrastructure projects such as sophisticated visitor centres, cheaper approaches may be more effective, for example, a programme involving personal contact between visitors and management staff. In some situations a team could travel from site to site to update and improve interpretation facilities and materials, and to train local managers and rangers. Educational and interpretation campaigns are possible at minimal expense. For example on a short nature walk, small signs giving the common and scientific names of the flora can suffice, while larger signs can be made on more general themes.

7.5.3 Changing visitor behaviour is not a simple process. Interpretation and education campaigns stem from a desire to change visitor behaviour, a simple principle in theory but complex in practice. Many factors have been found to influence visitor behaviour, including the following:

Visitors want to know why they should do something. A simple statement that an area is a low-use area does not provide enough information.

The interpretation programme must match the current reality, or confusion will result. For example, photographs and descriptions in promotional publications may not correspond to the visitor experience. A case in point was when the Tasmanian Forestry Commission, in educational and promotional materials, emphasised the recreational attractions of its forests. Feedback from visitors revealed that they had not expected to be able to see clearcutting from trails and picnic areas. One solution was to include images of forest production activities in the promotional literature.

The behaviour of staff including maintenance personnel must uphold the values reflected in educational and interpretation materials.

A visitor’s experience and prior knowledge may influence the effectiveness of educational materials. Research has indicated that educational materials are more effective for visitors with limited experience of a site or advance information about it. Special care must be taken with the content and delivery of interpretation materials for repeat visitors. Experts recommend that if two versions of the materials are not feasible it may be better to ignore the more experienced audience.

Visitors must believe that a given issue is real and serious, that a given action is necessary, and that they can make a difference. Materials should present an issue along with information on how to address it, linking visitors’ experience with future actions. The materials could include information on environmentalists’ clubs, other places to visit and learn about a subject, or other additional information.

A person has to believe that he or she is capable of contributing to a solution, such as by planting a seedling in a reforestation project or helping out at an archaeological dig. Individual rewards can be financial but “psychic rewards” – the gratification deriving from altruistic motives are often more meaningful.

7.5.4 Several other factors figure in the effective presentation of interpretation and educational programmes. Clear goals and objectives are needed to determine what is to be interpreted, for whom and how, and who will develop interpretation strategies. The crucial step of identifying fundamental messages and target audiences is reportedly the weakest link in the process of developing interpretation concepts and themes.

Materials should focus on the type of visitor whose behaviour is considered most in need of change. The message should clearly describe the critical problems and recommended behaviours.

The most effective educational campaigns use a combination of methods tailored for particular user groups and messages. They are based on specific visitor profiles cataloguing age, background, interests, origin (foreign or local), degree of skill in the activities the site offers, special needs, form of access to the site (road or waterway, public or private). Profiles also take into account whether visitors are on their own, in couples or families, or part of an organised group.

Interpretation criteria may change with societal changes such as shifts in ethnicity or local education levels. Such shifts may necessitate new messages, perhaps in different languages. An exhibit should satisfy the expectations of occasional tourists as well as those of local residents and repeat visitors. “Layered” signs offer detailed information in smaller print intended to pique the interest of repeat visitors.

Studies show the need for careful analysis of visitor interests. Many people visit World Heritage sites out of a general interest in heritage. Most visitors to World Heritage...
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sites have little specialist knowledge or interest; the particulars of a castle or other historical site are of secondary importance.

Interpretative programmes should be evaluated in terms of whether they are meeting management goals and objectives. If not, they are a poor investment of scarce resources, at the expense of other programmes and the management’s reputation. Experts warn against a tendency to produce new programmes rather than re-examine existing ones, leaving no arguments in favour of one or the other.

The easiest and most common way to evaluate the effectiveness of an interpretation programme such as an exhibit is to assess its ability to attract and hold visitors’ attention. In this case an exhibit is judged on how many people stop and how much time they spend looking at it and/or reading the exhibit material. Staff intuition concerning attitude change is generally reliable and can contribute to assessment studies.

The target audience may be reached in various ways, depending on the type of materials used. In general, visitors who must rely on public transport or a service provided by the site management for access to an area is a captive audience. Staff can inform visitors of park regulations and provide safety advice and orientation pointers.

To encourage return visits, exhibits should be changed regularly, or special exhibitions should be staged on occasion. The Royal British Columbia Museum in Vancouver saw a decline in annual visitation because the exhibits remained unchanged through lack of funds. Revenues declined as a result, compounding the problem.

Guides can be invaluable in imparting educational information to visitors. In large tropical rain forests, for example, tourists unaccompanied by an excellent guide may spend long periods without seeing any wildlife. Eighty to 95 percent of travellers to rain forest lodges in one region of Peru reported being unsatisfied with wildlife viewing.

Involving guides in the planning stages when developing educational and interpretation programmes helps to ensure consistency in visitor information. Guides and site staff should liaise closely so that guides do not compete with the aims of the site, and so that their information is correct and consistent.

7.5.5 Methods of presentation vary in their ability to attract visitors and change behaviour. The following materials have been found to be effective:

The Tasmania Parks Department found that the most effective presentation materials were fun as well as easy and quick to read. Videos were the most popular and the most effective. Because videos bring information to life and show how techniques work in practice, they are popular for use in schools and with inexperienced groups.

Comic posters, audio-visual materials and multimedia presentations have also proven effective.

Once materials raise visitors’ attention, the most effective method for changing behaviours is to add personal contact. For example, walkers are more readily convinced not to use stoves when rangers inform them face to face about regulations, reinforcing a strong educational campaign. Simply erecting signs saying “fuel stoves only” is far less effective.

In the absence of rangers, guides can be trained to present interpretation information. Workshops for commercial tour guides could cover low-impact techniques and other management issues. Local guides at Nan Madol, a South Pacific island with an important archaeological site, are crucial in educating tourists and controlling graffiti and other forms of vandalism.

Interactive interpretive programmes show great promise. Participatory exhibits are more popular than static displays and are highly effective in changing visitor behaviour. Active participation seems to foster a positive attitude, especially when combined with a rewarding experience. Interactive techniques giving opportunities for feedback include despatching roving staff or placing them at fixed points to provide information, holding conferences or discussions; offering entertainment events such as puppet shows, plays or musicals, or organising activities such as making and measuring things, games and re-enactments of historical events. Publications, signs, self-guided activities, visitor centres, audio-visual devices, indoor and outdoor exhibitions such as walks, drives and snorkelling trails in marine parks are less interactive — but less time-consuming for staff.

Hands-on workshops may be coupled with field trips and observational tours. One scientist-teacher from Puerto Rico recommended that coastal ecosystems are best understood through field trips during which participants can question and interact with the expert. The Tropen Museum in Amsterdam offers a programme in which people can seek advice from experienced travellers about current events in a particular country and various cultural do’s and don’ts.

Authentic displays based on economic activities using real artefacts and materials are increasingly popular. At the National Fishing Centre in Grimsby, England, for example, former trawler hands recount their experiences to the public and encourage participation by instructing visitors in knotting fishing line. Heritage centres increasingly offer authentic experiences through imaginative interpretations of local history. Since the 1980s, old established museums, thanks to new technologies, have been offering entertainment as well as education, blurring the distinction between the theme park and museum experience.

Oral history is a particularly useful research asset and an important source of interpretative material. The process
gets local people involved and makes them feel represented, which may be especially important if it turns out that the local interpretation is at variance with that of site materials. Including the voices of local people in interpretative programmes gives them a central role, encouraging popular support.

7.6 Offering incentives for practising certain activities

7.6.1 Visitors may be redirected through scheduling. For example, a site may be opened early for bird-watchers or closed early to limit other types of visitors. The Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve in Costa Rica opens early so that bird-watchers can enjoy their activity in relative calm. Extending a site's opening hours may depend on whether resources are sufficient to pay staff for the extra time. The extra expense could be offset through higher visitor fees or increased publicity.

7.6.2 Providing or not providing infrastructure for certain activities can influence the type of activity practised. Strategic construction and siting of infrastructure can encourage the use of certain areas over others. Signs can promote one site over another, while removing signs can discourage use. In areas where there may be conflict between different user groups or where separating the groups could enhance the visitor experience, low-cost infrastructure development could encourage separation. For example, signs could direct campers away from areas used by day visitors.

7.7 Changing types of activity through regulation

7.7.1 Regulations limiting activities and/or the way they are practised can radically affect ecological and social impacts. Some recreation activities produce more impacts than others. The types of visitor activities can be limited. For example, banning off-road vehicles and motorcycles reduces soil erosion, as does the use of horses. To limit traffic and pollution problems, Bermuda has adopted a policy of not recognising foreign drivers' licences, making car rental impossible. Similarly, non-resident cars have been banned on the Italian islands of Capri, Ischia and Procida.

To minimise negative impacts due to encounters between tourists and whales at Glacier Bay, Alaska, authorities have set limits on the number of cruise ships entering the bay and issued regulations for maintaining a minimum distance of 400 metres between ships and whales. Whale-watching regulations are also in place for local guides at Viscaino Bay in Baja, California.

Once again, such regulatory measures require sufficient resources to implement. Complementary indirect actions can provide support to direct actions. For example, at some game parks in Africa, drivers often fail to observe regulations for maintaining acceptable distances from the wildlife. To address this problem, culverts can be dug alongside roads to prevent vehicles from leaving them.

7.8 Changing the site's social environment by reducing visitor conflicts

7.8.1 Separating conflicting activities reduces conflict. Allocating specific activities to certain areas helps reduce conflict between different types of visitors. For example, groups such as snorkellers and sports fishermen would conflict if they tried to use the same areas. The concept of separating user groups is related to the Recreational Opportunity Spectrum. A key issue when using this technique is to ensure that the different areas for different activities remain in good environmental condition for the long term. Visitors and tour operators could be informed that if an area allocated to them is damaged, they won't be offered an alternative area.

7.8.2 Developing interpretation and education programmes in close cooperation with the community can help to avoid alienating local people who may otherwise feel their cultural identity is being misrepresented. The feeling of sense of place and the strong spirituality and identity which traditional people have for their land is not easily conveyed to visitors. For the local community, memory, attachment and symbolism are often of primary importance. In contrast, visitors may seem to diminish local values by being attracted to the unfamiliar, exotic and picturesque. Interpretation and education programmes, when developed in close cooperation with the community, can help prevent a devaluation of traditional local values.

7.9 Distributing benefits to communities affected by the site

7.9.1 Locals are more likely to participate in conservation when it is associated with an improvement in their standard of living. Managers at Ujung Kulon National Park in West Java in Indonesia report that local income-generating activities in tourism, resource management and protection encourage local support for park protection and conservation efforts. Environmental conservation and education programmes alone will not achieve results. In Gambia, West Africa, the local community's acceptance of the new Kiang West National Park was based entirely on the expectation that they would receive a portion of the economic benefits of tourism.

However, increasing local benefits — for example, by providing training for local guides — does not necessarily draw people into conservation and protection activities. Experience has shown that conservation and economic development should be linked. Thus guides should be recruited who have an ongoing interest in conservation or community participation. Evaluations of local guide training in Costa Rica indicated a need for a comprehensive selection process, in search of both talent and environmental and community consciousness.
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7.9.2 Experience has determined that community tourism projects are sustainable when people invest their labour and savings in them. Projects succeed when people have a stake in them. When people can see the project’s benefits they willingly contribute their labour or money. In Nepal’s Annapurna Conservation Area Project, people are expected to contribute cash or labour to community development projects. Lodge owners who upgrade their facilities are provided with technical assistance and training including help in the development of their standards.

7.9.3 Community tourism programmes may be more effective if introduced gradually and in conjunction with other economic development programmes. Gradual introduction is recommended in view of potential negative social and economic impacts. Communities may need time to adapt to the realities of the industry, to manage problems stemming from the influx of visitors, and to plan efficient ways to capture and retain economic benefits from tourism.

A community’s expectations of economic benefits are often disappointed because of inadequate local conditions. For example, foreign tourists may demand standards of accommodations and food beyond what the local community can immediately provide. Thus, locals may not begin to see direct economic benefits until certain basic problems are addressed. Gradual implementation can exacerbate the problem, as people become impatient for the economic benefits.

Such problems may be mitigated when other income-generating programmes are carried out concurrently and the community is not oriented solely towards tourism. For example, many projects at protected areas include agroforestry and other resource development programmes that can produce economic benefits such as crops and wood lots for firewood. Such options can lessen the need for more rapid tourism development.

7.9.4 Tourism’s potential for benefiting locals is a function of the existing resources and skills that can be used to generate income. Community tourism programmes should start with an evaluation of local resources and skills with which activities can be matched. For example, in many instances local transportation support is needed for tourism activities, or local knowledge is in demand because of difficult terrain, such as at Corcovado National Park in Costa Rica, where ground transportation to the park is difficult, and flying is more expensive. Other activities that may need local guiding and transportation skills include mountaineering, trekking, sport fishing, skin diving, and horseback riding. More specialised activities such as bird-watching and river rafting usually require more education and training. Opportunities for these activities often depend on the existence of government or NGO training programmes, and tour operators who are interested in involving local people.

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7.9.6 Experience has shown that tourism often fails.

If little or no capital is required to develop a guesthouse, for example, where rooms formerly occupied by children are converted into rooms for guests, the project may be attractive. Also, if the time spent on tourism enterprises could not be better spent on other pursuits, for example, if few work opportunities exist other than in tourism, then a community tourism project may be worthwhile even if the pay is low.

7.9.7 Raising site revenue to produce local benefits.

The costs and benefits of infrastructure and high-tech solutions should be reviewed in light of the goal of producing local benefits. Planners at the Copan Maya Ruins in Honduras realised that luxury hotels tend not to use local guides. In some countries and in specific protected areas, they are required to use under-skilled local guides, which they often see as a financial drain.

This problem may be mitigated through intensive training of local guides in language and interpretation skills. Guides with better skills are more readily accepted by tourist businesses. As tour operators and governments realise that site protection and the health of the tourist trade depend on local support, they begin to see that it is in their interests to support the hiring and training of local people.

7.9.5 Labour costs should be realistically evaluated when analysing community potential.

If little or no capital is required to develop a guesthouse, for example, where rooms formerly occupied by children are converted into rooms for guests, the project may be attractive. Also, if the time spent on tourism enterprises could not be better spent on other pursuits, for example, if few work opportunities exist other than in tourism, then a community tourism project may be worthwhile even if the pay is low.

Visitor fees can generate benefits for both protected areas and local communities. Most studies on protected area management recommend government policies authorising the collection of fees to offset costs. Fees can be charged for admission to parks or monuments, and for different activities such as diving and trekking, and for accommodation and rescue services.

User fees are equitable because the people who use the site pay for it. Fees for public areas such as parks or museums are kept low to permit access to a greater cross-section of the population. To capture more foreign exchange and increase revenues, some sites charge a higher rate for foreign tourists than for nationals (e.g., $5.25 for foreign visitors and 60 cents for nationals at the Copan Maya Ruins in Honduras). In countries where such a two-tier system is illegal, donations can be solicited from foreign tourists and tour companies. It should be noted that a chronic problem for many sites that collect fees is that the money is returned to a central treasury and does not go to site operations.

Experts report that the tourism industry may resist visitor charges even though visitors may be willing to pay more for entrance fees. Visitors tend to accept fee increases if they know the funds will go to site protection and conservation. They want to know where the money goes.

Concession fees charged to individuals or groups licensed to provide services to visitors can also generate revenues both for sites and local communities. Common concessions include food, lodging, transport, guide and retail services. Concession fees and royalties can generate significant income at highly visited sites. Since concession fees are generally low relative to overall profit levels, businesses may be willing to pay higher fees.

Longer stays may raise revenue and still keep visitor numbers manageable. The availability of an array of visitor services can increase the average length of stay at a site. At Copán, setting up an interpretation programme, installing new trails and a visitor centre, developing private guide services, and offering after-dark audio-visual programmes in the nearby town all helped increase average visitor stays. At cultural sites with excellent natural resources, interpretation programmes could emphasise the natural attractions.
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Tour operators may be willing to expand their itineraries to include other attractions and services and thereby raise local benefits. A base of operations such as a resort can have add-on attractions that tourists can visit within a day. Secondary attractions should offer visitors new experiences.

Hiring of local staff can improve site management and bring local benefits. Experiences in Australia have shown the importance of providing employment and training to indigenous people who work as wardens, policy advisers and liaison officers.

Permitting local people to sell products can help a community’s economy, but may be problematic. Tourists may feel threatened by aggressive hawkers, or locals who cannot afford to pay for concession privileges may use unauthorised areas at a site. At Grand Canyon National Park in the United States, Native Americans formerly sold handi-crafts near the entrance and at other strategic places; an indigenous marketplace was set up as an alternative.

7.10 Implications and recommendations

• In problem solving for management solutions, the first step is to analyse all indicators and determine why standards are not being met. Amazing information on user groups causing problems (e.g., day users as opposed to tourists staying for longer periods, etc.) will help to focus efforts.

• When evaluating possible actions, considering the various indirect and direct methods available can be a useful process. Valuable input can be obtained by reviewing the site’s goals and objectives during discussions with staff and advisory body members while considering the scenarios that could result from different strategies and actions. Begin by discussing indirect strategies such as education and interpretation campaigns. Then go progressively to direct actions such as enforcement, fines, permits, and so on.

• Indirect actions may be adequate initially for addressing problems that are not immediate, for example, when a potentially dangerous area need not be closed, or visitation is not increasing too rapidly. The effects of the measures can be evaluated before more restrictive measures are imposed. A site with limited staff and financial resources may be unable to afford anything other than indirect actions.

• Actions should be combined for best results. For example, an information campaign can be combined with a recreation opportunity spectrum (ROS) plan that separates users. An education campaign can encourage disparate user groups to practise their activities in separate areas. For example, mountain bikers can be recommended good trails and asked to avoid areas used by bird-watchers.

• Costing out different actions on the basis of available staff and other resources will also provide an idea of which actions will be effective.

• Management actions should not be taken without a thorough analysis and understanding of the socio-cultural and individual importance of a site to the people of the community, for example, when building infrastructure at a sacred site.

• A positive atmosphere for introducing management actions can be created by involving stakeholder partners in planning. Stakeholder partnerships foster dialogue either with a group causing a problem or with groups affected by a problem. These groups can be shown the needs of the site and the reasons behind certain policies. The tourism advisory board is an effective mechanism for involving a wide range of stakeholder partners in visitor management issues. Also, future regulations need public support if they are to be implemented successfully.

• In general, at natural sites with limited resources, strategies that concentrate visitors should be encouraged. Dispersal strategies should be avoided unless sufficient resources are available for educational campaigns and regulatory controls. If there is a need to open an area for a new user group, for example, a new trail for mountain bike riders, then at the very least, a friendly, non-confrontational dialogue with the new visitors should be started.

• At cultural sites, dispersal may be effective with enough staff to ensure the protection of resources.

• Involving stakeholders in management actions can aid the implementation process. Hotel owners may be willing to help implement certain educational programmes, distributing information on low-impact practices to users. School groups may contribute manual labour. Staff may have contacts with the media and launch education campaigns with the assistance of this stakeholder partner, disseminating news of site management policies and activities.

• Partnership relations can also contribute to enforcement efforts. Partners in local communities who are sympathetic to protection and preservation programmes are the best defence against illegal activities. Enforcement officers such as rangers or security patrols at archaeological sites can be expensive. Local people allied with the site may instead be counted on to signal illegal activities. Educating local residents about the site’s efforts to control illegal activities, while certainly not a panacea, can win friends and encourage cooperation in efforts to locate offenders.

• Identifying local skills will help determine which activities are feasible. Note that not everyone need benefit directly, revenue from a project may provide support for community development activities. The link between a tourism project, its benefits and conservation activities should be obvious.
Suggested Activities

1. If standards are not being met, determine why not.
   - Review the list of indicators and related cause-and-effect factors.
   - If the impact is caused by tourists, identify the group(s) involved.
   - Open a dialogue with the group and determine management actions.
   - Evaluate the effects of various indirect and direct methods on an impact, including local social, cultural and economic factors; start with indirect actions and move progressively to direct strategies.
   - Discuss with staff and advisory group members the scenarios that would result from the different actions.
   - Estimate the costs of different actions, taking into consideration staffing needs, and determine whether some actions can be combined.

2. Inform stakeholders of the actions taken.
   - Use the tourism advisory board as a platform for discussing the proposed actions.
   - Dialogue with those who may be affected to demonstrate the needs of the site and explain why certain actions are necessary and how they will be implemented.
   - Attempt to create partnership agreements and involve stakeholders in carrying out management actions.

Suggested Reading


Leave No Trace Programme Publications, c/o The National Outdoor Leadership School, Lander Wyoming USA


Murphy, Peter E. (ed.). Quality Management in Urban Tourism, John Wiley & Sons, 1997


Promoting a Site

Taj Mahal, India

© UNESCO
8 Promoting a Site

Promotion can play an important role in meeting educational and financial goals and objectives. If a site can accommodate greater numbers, and has a mechanism for retaining tourism earnings, it can be promoted to draw in additional visitors and generate increased revenue for sustaining operations, solving management problems and meeting goals and objectives. Many simple and low-cost promotional actions are possible; the manager can select those that are within the site's capacity to carry out. In addition, many of the skills and materials involved overlap with those used in interpretation programmes.

8.1 Promoting a site to help finance management operations

8.1.1 A portion of visitor fees should be set aside to help finance promotional activities. This will start the cycle of attracting additional visitors, thereby generating increased revenue for operations. A mechanism should be set up for retaining a portion of the earnings. This will create the necessary incentive to promote increased visitation. Even with such a mechanism in place, some sites may need outside funding to begin developing promotional materials; international organisations can be approached for such assistance.

8.1.2 The site manager should decide which type of visitors to target in a promotional campaign on the basis of the site's policy and management objectives. Certain types of tourism fit a site's goals and objectives better than others. As with any management action, promotional campaigns should reflect the site's stated policy vision statement and objectives. For example, at natural sites, where local economic development is an objective, managers may want to promote bird-watching or trekking where local people may be hired as guides or drivers. At an archaeological site affected by theft of objects destined for trafficking in stolen art, a promotional programme may be designed to attract better-off visitors who are willing to pay an extra fee to support an artisan cooperative making high-quality replicas of objects at the site. These can then be sold to satisfy a portion of the demand fed by trafficking.

8.1.3 Dividing visitors into groups according to their characteristics, referred to as market segmentation, permits managers to set up well-directed promotional links between different consumers and organisations. The segmentation process requires research into the characteristics and preferences of visitors who may want to come to a site. Distinct segments of consumers might include those belonging to museum associations or organisations for the protection of wildlife. Identifying people with similar motivations and needs enables the manager to pinpoint the types of promotional materials needed. A simple example is an elderly target audience, for whom promotional materials can be in larger print and may list special services for senior citizens.

To be selected for management action, a market segment must have three characteristics:

• it must be measurable,
• it should be easy to reach through promotional distribution systems, and
• it should promise increased earnings sufficient to more than repay the costs of targeting it with promotional materials.

8.1.4 Knowing how tourists inform themselves on a site they wish to visit will help identify where to focus promotional efforts. For example, since most “eco-tourists” wishing to see polar bears in Manitoba, Canada, seek information from travel agents, the site's managers are wise to send their promotional materials to travel agencies. However, since few travel agencies are able or willing to stock the full range of available brochures and are ill-prepared to deal with specialised inquiries, a more efficient approach may be to send agents a brochure and then contact them personally to brief them on the site's attractions and the logistics of reaching it.

8.1.5 Developing a theme using a site's central message for the park's promotion helps develop marketing and promotional materials. Combining a site's most attractive elements to develop slogans or “soundbites”, will facilitate the design and creation of brochures and interpretation displays. For instance, a park could be “the best kept secret in the Caribbean”, or the place where “billions of years of nature meet thousands of years of history”.

8.1.6 An analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) can be used to identify gaps between a site's promotion strategy and tourism trends. A SWOT analysis is a marketing tool used to evaluate a site's promotional abilities by examining the strengths and weaknesses of its promotional organisation, financial and staff resources, and existing promotional strategy. Strengths and weaknesses are considered factors over which the site has some control, opportunities and threats are external. The analysis results in a matrix comparing the results.

Strengths and weaknesses include:

• the ways in which the site is being marketed, the size of the marketing budget, performance measures and the degree and nature of the staff's involvement in marketing efforts,
• the site's tourism products, including the quality of service, image and reputation,
• a profile of current visitors,
• suppliers and the quality of goods and services they provide,
• the people who handle any marketing for the site and the image they promote, for example, the way it is presented by tour operators compared with the site's own promotional materials.
8 Promoting a Site

Opportunities and threats include:

• political factors, including government legislation
• economic factors
• social factors
• competition, identifying competitors and analysing their strengths and weaknesses

A known drawback of this analysis is that it is carried out at one point in time but may guide policy over several years during which both internal and external changes are likely that would necessitate modifications to the strategic plan.

8.1.7 Managers without sufficient time or staff to carry out promotional tasks may consider seeking outside assistance. Tasks such as writing to guidebook publishers, magazines and newspapers to publicise attractions and services distributed to a wide audience.

8.2 Strategies for promoting a site

8.2.1 International tourist guidebooks can be a free source of promotion. Guidebooks are a popular source of information for trip planning and are available for almost every country and region of the world. Because guidebook information is constantly changing, new editions are regularly updated, and editors are usually willing to publish information free of charge. This presents an opportunity to have information on a site and local attractions and services distributed to a wide audience.
8.2.2 Supplying information to travel magazines, newspapers, radio and the internet is another cost-effective way to promote a site. Travel magazines and newspapers publish information on tourism attractions free of charge and local radio and television stations broadcast such information as a public service. These can all be useful sources of free publicity for the site. In-flight airline magazines reach a large public, and because they are published quarterly or bimonthly, articles remain in circulation for considerable periods. Most publications can be accessed by the internet and the information transferred in this manner.

8.2.3 Brochures can be used to distribute site information to a wide range of audiences. They can be mailed to national tourism offices, included in promotional material sent to tour operators, newspapers, magazines, radio and television stations and distributed to hotels. However, unlike other types of promotional material, brochures are costly to produce, and should be designed to remain valid over a long period of time. Most people who receive brochures read them. However, research has found that brochures are likely to exert more influence on people who have not visited a site before and less likely to attract repeat visitors.

Compiling a Brochure

The size and layout of a brochure will depend on its purpose. For example, if the brochure is to be distributed internationally it should be formatted to the international mailing standard of 21x10 cm and be produced on lightweight paper to save on postage costs. If the brochure is to be displayed on racks at travel agencies in the United States, the standard size for a brochure is 4”x9”. If it contains a map or other practical information for the tourist visiting the site, it should fit into the pocket or handbag. Larger formats may be used if the brochure is not for mailing but, for example, handed out at the site. A vertical design with three outside panels opening to three inside panels is the most common.
8.2.4 Contacting tour operators directly is a useful means of interesting them in a site. Tour operators are always on the lookout for new attractions to sell to their clients. Operators, particularly companies that specialise in activities offered at the site, will appreciate receiving a brochure and any information about the local community. Direct contact with tour operators bypasses travel agencies and improves the chances of a positive response.

A Sample Visitor’s Guide

A pocket-size visitor’s guide to Indian sites in Alberta and British Columbia, Canada, describes businesses run by native communities and entrepreneurs, as well as partnerships between native people and non-natives. The guide also contains information about related attractions that are not necessarily Indian-run, such as museums. It gives practical advice on where and how visitors can enjoy positive encounters with Canada’s aboriginal culture.

8.2.5 Producing an information package to area attractions and services can help direct benefits to local residents. If one of the goals of a site’s tourism programme is to benefit local communities, a multi-lingual community guide sheet may be a valuable promotional tool. It can direct visitors to neighbouring destinations and attractions, providing a detailed picture of what the area offers, including dining, shopping and accommodations. The information is especially useful for attracting the independent traveller. Such a package should be distributed to key points such as hotels in major cities and at national tourism offices or embassies abroad. If a site has internet, it can be distributed electronically. A guide can also be used as a management tool for bringing about desired visitor behaviour, by for example discussing cultural rules and taboos and good conservation practices. Such a guide can be produced by the community with the help of site management. A local NGO may provide free computer time and translating services. Selling the guide even if it is very simple may help pay for future copying expenses.

Outside Financing Programmes

The tourism industry has shown growing interest in financing site management activities, through programmes such as the new UNEP-WTO-UNESCO Tour Operators’ Initiative. Increasing opportunities are likely to arise to involve tour operators in financing World Heritage site management efforts.

As a result, site managers are encouraged to suggest to the World Heritage Centre initiatives for visitor management and tourism; a record of these could be presented to tour operators seeking opportunities to fund World Heritage projects.
A 10-page guide which can be easily and cheaply copied may be all that is needed initially. The copy should be stored on a computer, so that the guide booklet can be easily updated whenever necessary. If and when the attraction becomes more popular, a more sophisticated guide could be written and sold to cover the costs of publication.

Outline for a Guidebook

Introduction
State the purpose of the guidebook, mentioning concerns for conservation and historic preservation of World Heritage sites, and the importance of tourism to local community development.

Background
• a brief historical, cultural and natural history of the site, using eye-catching facts
• a list of potential activities such as hiking, boating, river rafting, birding, wildlife photography, visiting historic buildings and archaeological sites
• information on the best time to visit, describing seasons and rainfall patterns, and giving temperatures in Celsius and Fahrenheit

Access
• routes, modes and frequency of available transport to the site and local communities, including honest assessments of safety and reliability
• where to obtain maps of the area in the capital city

Details of the site
• what it has to offer: cultural/historical attractions, wildlife, bird-watching, photography, archaeology, etc.
• fees and why they are charged
• desired behaviour at the site
• visitor safety
• local guides, transport
• a simple map of the route
• recommended clothing and equipment for the different activities
• outstanding fauna and flora
• rules for viewing wildlife, ruins and historical buildings, including suggestions on low-impact techniques

Details of the local community
• local customs, traditions and courtesies
• regional/local festivals
• places to stay, with current prices, quality of services, number of rooms and beds available
• restaurants, snack bars, etc., including advice on what to eat and what to avoid
• sanitary conditions (be honest), health precautions for visitors
• available medical carerswhere to buy food for hiking and other activities, equipment and other necessities
• where to shop for local products and crafts

8.2.6 National tourism offices or embassies can be a free and effective means of distributing promotional materials. Tour operators are always on the lookout for new attractions to sell to their clients. Operators, particularly companies that specialise in activities offered at the site, will appreciate receiving a brochure and any information about the local community. Direct contact with tour operators bypasses travel agencies and improves the chances of a positive response.

8.2.7 Holding a press day can be an effective way to introduce a site to the media. The day can be scheduled to coincide with a cultural celebration at the site, or it could be a yearly event held to mark the beginning of the tourist season. Tour operators, hotel owners and government officials who belong to the site’s advisory group can be recruited to play a role. These stakeholders usually have press contacts and may be interested in obtaining media coverage of their activities or businesses.

Familiarisation visits for the international media are most successful if the journalists invited have special interests that match the activities of a site, such as the theatre or marine protection. One method of identifying appropriate journalists is to find their by-lines in the international press.

8.3 Implications and recommendations

• A review of policy goals and objectives will give direction to a promotional campaign. Questions posed during the development of the promotional programme should echo those posed during the drafting of the vision policy statement and management objectives.

• Knowing how a particular market segment or group seeks out tourism destinations will help the manager decide where to focus promotional efforts. Discussions with the advisory group and other tourism contacts should provide guidance for determining the best ways to develop a promotional campaign for these markets and where the materials need to be sent.
Sample Letter to Tour Operators

(Use Letterhead)

(Tour operator's address)

City, state, post code Country)

Dear Sir or Madam:

I wish to invite you to visit a new tourism initiative recently launched at the _______ World Heritage site. The ________ (cultural heritage route) initiative is an economic development project endorsed by the regional and municipal governments and partially funded by _______ (e.g. UNESCO). The project aims to provide local residents with an economic incentive to preserve and retain the area’s rich cultural heritage.

The _________ (name of route) runs through the historic community of ________, which is located within the area of the World Heritage site and is well known by archaeologists as containing some of the best preserved Buddhist temples representative of the _________ period. The route starts at _________ and runs through the community for a total of 2.5 kilometres (1.5 miles), with signposts indicating historic sites and temples. A small brochure on the route is available in English, French, German and Japanese. Local guides who speak these languages are also available. The route offers opportunities to explore as well as to shop for handicrafts along the way. In addition, several community members can provide accommodation in (e.g., small hotels, guesthouses). Enclosed is a _________ (“fact sheet”, brochure, and regional guide) outlining the available attractions. I will be pleased to provide any further information about the site, the community or the region. In addition, we will accommodate you free of charge if you wish to visit the site and sample the route.

Please feel free to contact me at the above address or call me on _______ (telephone). I look forward to hearing from you and hope you can support our efforts to balance conservation and economic development.

Sincerely,

_______ Director

_______ World Heritage site

An analysis of market potential should begin with a fresh examination of the site’s attractions and resources. Does the site first need to increase visitation by targeting the independent market, or is it ready to reach out to tour operators geared towards a single specialised activity such as bird-watching? Do the site and the surrounding areas have enough attractions and infrastructure to appeal to a

more general tourism market? Could the site serve as a day attraction that could be included in a general tour of the region, in which case firms interested in this type of add-on attraction should be contacted? Next, to determine the types of promotional materials needed, existing or newly commissioned visitor data might be analysed for a better idea of market segments. If the steps in this manual have been followed, most such information will be readily available. A review of segmentation data and a SWOT analysis will help managers make decisions and devise strategies for entering these markets.

• If a site has few current visitors and limited funds, promotional efforts might begin by targeting the independent traveller, notably by seeking listings in guidebooks. Independent travellers are a valuable source of word-of-mouth recommendations that will be picked up by speciality operators. A mailing list of guidebook editors should be kept up to date so that they can be sent a new package of materials each year.

• A fact sheet should give a brief history of the site and describe surrounding communities, any interesting flora and fauna or archaeological or geological features, as well as the activities available to the tourist. It should provide a concise overview of attractions and services, including means of transport to the site, accommodations, local restaurants or cafes, and details such as the driving time from the nearest population centres. Local services should be described realistically and honestly if accommodations are rustic and the guides speak no foreign languages, the fact sheet should say so. Ideally, a multilingual contact person in the target country should also be listed, since potential visitors are often reluctant to call abroad for information.

• Promotional efforts can focus on developing an identity for a site, to be reflected in promotional materials in the form of a logo, mascot or slogan that help to give the site an image. Tourism professionals such as tour operators familiar with international markets can be a source of advice when developing this identity.

• Tour operators can be sent a fact sheet, brochure and guide, along with a covering letter, to provide a good overview of what is available at the site and the surrounding area. The mailing should target operators that match the site’s attractions, for example, firms specialising in bird-watching. Restaurant and guesthouse owners in nearby communities may be prepared to offer visiting tour operators complimentary accommodations and meals to add to the attractiveness of visiting a site. A tour operator may be willing to help by handling inquiries or providing information about the site on their website.

• A brochure can be a useful promotional tool both for the site and the surrounding communities. The brochure should be mailed or e-mailed to the national tourism board or commission, tour operators and newspaper and magazine editors. It can also be displayed in hotels and
Promoting a Site

guesthouses of tourism centres, as well as in neighbour-
ing towns and cities as well as foreign capitals. If the site
has many repeat visitors, the brochure should be updated
frequently, or new inserts can be printed to feature new
attractions. If local economic development is a priority the
brochure should highlight the unique features of both the
site and the surrounding communities.

• A tourist guide to a community should be geared to the
appropriate market segment, be it independent, special-
ity or general travel. The guide’s style will vary accordingly.
For example, a guide to a Nepalese mountain community
may highlight services available for adventure travellers.
Copies of the guide should be sent free or e-mailed to the
editors of guidebooks, magazines and newspapers as well
as to tour operators. Selling the guide elsewhere may help
pay for copying expenses.

• Direct contact with tour operators may prompt them to
visit the site to evaluate its tourism potential, and can
effectively increase name recognition. Ground operators
in the capital city should also be informed of a site’s activ-
ities, as they are in contact with tour operators abroad.
Scientists carrying out research at or near the site can also
be approached with the aim of attracting other special-
ised visitors.

• Mailings to the editors of travel magazines and news-
paper travel sections, and to the broadcast media if feasi-
ble, should include a covering letter and press release,
preferably in the target language. Faxing or e-mailing the
materials, if possible, is often more reliable.

• A press release should be no more than four paragraphs
long to be user friendly. Short sentences and bullet lists
are preferable to lengthy narratives. If high-quality pic-
tures commissioned from a professional photographer
can be included, so much the better.

• A mailing list of local newspapers, radio and television
stations can be compiled from the Yellow Pages under
headings such as the following:

  News services
  Newspapers and magazines
  Radio stations
  Television
  Satellite and cable systems
  Broadcasting stations - radio
  Broadcasting stations - television
  Cable television
  Publishers books and magazines
  Publishers directories and guides

The addresses of in-flight airline magazines can be
obtained by calling their local offices. Airlines to be tar-
geted should link the site to route points in the United
States and Europe, for example China Airlines and Thai
Airways. Newspaper and magazine editors like human-
interest stories, such as an article profiling a local guide, or
a site staff member.

A press trip should be arranged by formal invitation. One
of the sample letters shown in the boxes can be easily
modified for this purpose. Local operators from the advi-
sory group might be willing to follow up with phone calls.
A lunch or cocktail party possibly underwritten by a local
restaurant owner would give the travel writers a chance to
debrief and talk among themselves.

Suggested Activities

1. Outline the promotional campaign

• Review policy goals and management objectives and
determine how a particular market segment or group
selects destinations and makes travel bookings.
• Re-examine the site’s tourism potential and carry out
a SWOT analysis. Discuss with the advisory group and
other contacts how best to develop promotional mate-
rials for these markets and where they should be sent.

2. Contact the editors of tourist guidebooks

• Use the sample letter contained in this manual as a
guide.
• Enclose a separate fact sheet with the letter or e-mail.
• Maintain a mailing list and send or e-mail a new pack-
age of materials each year.

3. Create a brochure

• Describe community services and attractions.
• Include a copy in all mailings.
• Display brochures in hotels and guesthouses.

4. Write a community tourism guide

• Outline the services the community can provide for
each travel market segment.
• Provide accurate and honest information.
• Send and e-mail a copy to guidebook, magazine and
newspaper editors as well as tour operators.

5. Contact tour operators

• Send and e-mail a promotional package including a
covering letter, fact sheet, brochure and guide to spe-
ciality tour operators.
• Contact ground operators in the capital and scientists
carrying out research in or near the site to inform them
of available activities.
• Approach restaurant and guesthouse owners in near-
by communities for offers of complimentary meals or
accommodations for visiting tour operators.
6. Contact travel magazine, newspaper, TV and radio editors.
   - Write a press release and covering letter using the samples in this manual.
   - Fax or e-mail, and mail the material.

7. Submit an article to an in-flight airline magazine.
   - Contact the airline’s local offices.
   - Concentrate on airlines with route points in North America and Europe.
   - Offer human-interest stories.
   - Arrange a press trip, identifying members of the press who should have a special interest in the site.
   - Modify the sample letter shown on page 120 and send out a formal invitation.
   - Convince local operators from the advisory group to follow up with phone calls.

Suggested Reading


Appendix 3

Guidebook, Magazine and Newspaper Publishers

Upper Middle Rhine Valley, Germany

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Guidebook, Magazine and Newspaper Publishers

Note: Changes in names and addresses may have occurred since this list was made.
(specialities noted in parentheses)

GUIDEBOOKS

IN AUSTRALIA:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)
Lonely Planet Publications
A.C.N. 055 607 983
PO Box 617
Hawthorn, Victoria 3122
Australia
e-mail: talk2us@lonelyplanet.com.au
website: www.lonelyplanet.com

IN BRITAIN:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)
(for backpackers)
Bradt Publishing
41 Norton Rd.
Bucks, SL9 0LA
UK
Insight Guides
P.O. Box 7910
London SE1 8EB
UK
e-mail: insight@apaguide.demon.co.uk
website: www.insightguides.com

Lonely Planet Publications
Spring House
10A Spring Place
London NW5 3BH UK
e-mail: go@lonelyplanet.co.uk
website: www.lonelyplanet.com
(for independent travellers)
Mexico and Central American Handbook
Trade and Travel Publications Ltd.
6 Riverside Court
Riverside Road
Bath BA2 3DZ
UK
Moorland Publishing Co.
Moor Farm Road,
Airfield Estate
Ashbourne DE6 1HD
UK
(for independent travellers)
Rough Guides UK
62-70 Shorts Gardens
London WC2H 9AB
website: www.roughguides.com

IN CANADA:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)
Blue Guides
10 Alcorn Avenue
Toronto
Ontario, M4V 3B2
Canada

IN FRANCE:
(address correspondence to the Rédacteur en chef)
Ulysse, Éditeur du voyage
4176, rue Saint-Denis
Montreal, Québec, H2W 2M5
Canada
e-mail: info@ulyssca.ca
website: guidesulyssca.com

In Canada:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)

Guiltes Autrement
Editions Autrement
17 rue du Louvre
75001 Paris France
(for independent travellers)

Guides Bleus Evasion
Courrier des lecteurs
43, quai de Grenelle
75905 Paris Cedex 15
France

Guides Michelin
46, av de Breteuil
75234 Paris Cedex 07
France
website: www.michelin-travel.com

Guides du Routard
5 rue de l’Arrivée
92190 Meudon
France
e-mail: routard@club-internet.fr
Internet: www.routard.com

Le Petit Futé Country Guide
18 rue des Volontaires
75015 Paris France
e-mail: info@petitfute.com
website: www.petitfute.com

Lonely Planet Publications
1 rue du Dahomey
75011 Paris
France
e-mail: bip@lonelyplanet.fr
website: www.lonelyplanet.com

Objective Terre
211 bis, av Charles de Gaulle
92200 Neuilly-sur-Seine
France
Syros
9 bis rue Abel
Lovellacque 75013 Paris
France

IN GERMANY:
(address correspondence to the Chefredakteur)

Verlag Karl Baedeker GmbH
Postfach: 3162
D-73751
Ostfildern
Germany
e-mail: baedeker@mairs.de
website: www.baedeker.com

Polyglot Press
Neuser Strasse Str. #3
B0807 Munich
Germany

Reise Handbook
Veilingen
Verlag Martin Bahnhofstr 106 8032
Grafelfing, Munich
Germany

Reise Know How
Profil Buchvertrieb
Post Fach9
35463 Fernwald, Annewal
Germany

IN SINGAPORE:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)

Insight Guide
Hofer Media (Pte) Ltd.
Orchard Point
PO Box 219
Singapore 9123

IN UNITED STATES:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)

Berkeley Guide
505 Eshleman Hall,
University of California
Berkeley, CA 94720
USA

Blue Guides
WW Norton & Co. Inc.
500 Fifth Ave,
New York, NY 10110
USA

Fodor's Travel, specialty markets
201 East 50th Street
New York, NY 10022
USA
e-mail: news@fodors.com
website: www.fodors.com

Let's Go Publications
Harvard Student Agencies
Harvard University
Thayer Hall-II
Cambridge, MA 02138
USA
website: www.letsgo.com

Lonely Planet Publications
150 Linden Street
Oakland CA 94607
USA
e-mail: info@lonelyplanet.com
website: www.lonelyplanet.com

MacmillanTravel Guides
1633 Broadway
New York, NY 10019
USA
(for independent travellers)

Moon Publications
722 Wall Street
Chico, CA 95928
USA
e-mail: travel@moon.com
website: www.moon.com

Penguin Books USA Inc.
375 Hudson Street
New York, NY 10014
USA
website: www.penguin.com

Rough Guides USA
345 Hudson Street
New York, NY 10014
USA
website: www.roughguides.com

The Real Guide Series
Prentice Hall Press
15 Columbus Circle
New York, NY 10023
USA

MAGAZINES

IN FRANCE:
(address correspondence to the Rédacteur en chef)

(world travel)
Geo France
6 rue Daru
75379 Paris Cedex 08 France

(general French travel market)
Grands Reportages
6, rue ivory
38027 Grenoble Cedex 1 France
e-mail: info@grands-reportages.com
website: grands-reportages.com

Lonely Planet
Geo France
Guidebook, Magazine and Newspaper Publishers

Guidebook, Magazine and Newspaper Publishers

(for walkers/trekkers)
SRLA La Marche
21 bis, av Sainte-Marie
Saint-Mande 94160
France

(emphasises wildlife conservation)
Nature Magazine
15 rue Cassette
Paris 75006
France

(wildlife conservation issues)
Randonnée Magazine
26 rue des Amandiers Nanterre,
Paris 92000
France

(nature issues)
Terre Sauvage
3, rue Bayard
75393 Paris Cedex 08
France

(general French travel market)
L’art de Voyager
175, rue d’Aguesseau
92643 Boulogne-Billancourt
France
website: www.voyager.fr

IN GERMANY:
(address correspondence to the Chefredaktur)
(adventure travel)
Abenteur & Reisen
Lange Strasse 13
Frankfurt 60055
Germany

(general travel)
Freizeit & Reisen
OeverseestraBe 24-26
Hamburg 22769
Germany

(world travel)
Geo Germany
PostFach 110011
Hamburg 11, 2000
Germany
website: www.geo.de

(adventure travel)
Globo
Ring 212
Munich
Germany 81739

(walking, trekking, camping)
Outdoor
Postfach 2160
Weinstadt-Benzach 71371
Germany

Reise & Preise
PostFach 1342
Germany 21603
website: www.reise-preise.de

(adventure travel)
Safari Touristic Akt wel
Martin Berharm Str. #12
Neu Isenburg, 63263
Germany

IN SPAIN:
(outdoor adventure)
Aire Libre
P. Marques de Moristrol 7
28011 Madrid 479 86 61
Spain

IN THE UNITED STATES:
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor)
Backpacker Magazine
Rondale Press, Inc.
39 E. Minor
Emmaus, PA 18098
USA

Birder’s World
21037 Crossroads Circle
P.O. Box 1612
Waukesha, WI 53187-1612
USA
website: www.birdersworld.com

Birdwatchers Digest
P.O. Box 110
Marietta, OH 4875
USA
e-mail: bwd@birdwatchersdigest.com
website: www.birdwatchersdigest.com

(general travel)
Conde Nast Traveler
360 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10017
USA
http://condenet.com/mags/trav/

(outdoor adventure, general ecotourism)
EcoTraveler Magazine
9560 S.W. Nimbus
Beaverton, OR 97008
USA

(outdoor adventure, general ecotourism)
Escape Magazine
P.O Box 5159
Santa Monica, CA 90409-5159
USA
**Fancy Publications, Inc.**  
**WildBird**  
3 Boroughs  
Irvine, CA 92718 USA  
website: www.wildbirdmagazine.com

*(outdoor adventure, general ecotourism)*

**Outside Magazine**  
400 Market St.  
Santa Fe, NM 87501  
USA  
website: www.outsidemagazine.com

*(general travel)*

**Travel Holiday**  
28 West 23rd St.  
New York, NY 10010  
USA  
website: www.travelholiday.com

*(general travel)*

**Travel & Leisure**  
1120 Ave. of the Americas  
New York, NY 10036  
USA

*(wildlife conservation issues)*

**Wildlife Conversation**  
Bronx Zoo Conservation Park  
Bronx, NY 10460  
USA  
website: www.wildlifeconversation.com

**NEWSPAPERS**

**IN CANADA:**  
(address correspondence to the Managing Editor or the Rédacteur en chef)

**La Presse**  
7 rue St. Jacques  
Montreal, Quebec H2Y 1K9  
Canada

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Tourist Surveys: Techniques and Samples

Venice and Its Lagoon, Italy

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TIMING AND LOGISTICS

The timing of surveys or interviews depends on seasonal, weekly and daily visitor patterns. Bias will be avoided by studying visitor patterns over an entire year, then carrying out proportionally more surveys during busy periods than during quiet periods. If this is not possible, results may have to be weighted statistically.

The survey or interview environment should be relaxed, with limited stress and outside pressure such as by local vendors. The location, whether for filling in a questionnaire or giving a face-to-face interview, should also assure a reliable sample and a sufficiently high response rate.

- Interviews aimed at collecting information on visitor characteristics can be conducted before or after the site visit.
- Interviews soliciting opinions should be conducted after the visit.
- Interviews aimed at determining why the visitors decided to come to the site will yield more accurate information if conducted before the visit.
- Questionnaires seeking visitors’ evaluation of the site should be distributed at the exit. If the site has no official exit, its “natural” exits should be identified through observation.
- Questionnaires may be distributed either with the entrance ticket or by an attendant. Clear instructions should indicate where to return the form.

THE SAMPLING FRAME

The target sample of a survey depends on the objectives of the exercise. To compile an overall visitor profile, a cross-section of people coming to the site should be surveyed. For more specific questions, the survey can be limited to specific groups, for example, men carrying cameras. The sampling frame is determined by specific characteristics of a visitor, and a sampling unit is an individual who displays those characteristics, such as someone who has come to the site from Germany, or a female member of a tour group. Interviews or questionnaires may be given to every nth person crossing the gate. However, in order to avoid bias, guidelines on whom to interview have to be given to every nth person crossing the gate. However, such questions may irritate respondents because of the loss of spontaneity. Details can be lost as the set options limit responses.

SURVEY DESIGN

Questions used in interviews or self-completing surveys may be open or closed.

Closed questions offer a fixed set of possible answers. The responses to closed questions are easily coded, and the questionnaire format is faster and cheaper than other survey methods. With questionnaires, the respondent is asked to tick a box, and in face-to-face interviews the various options are read aloud or shown on a prompt card. Closed questions are especially appropriate for concrete information about visitor characteristics such as age, sex, education, mode of transport, accommodation etc. They can be a discreet way of gathering income statistics. Even with issues that would normally elicit more than a simple yes or no response, closed questions can offer a set list of opinions. However, such questions may irritate respondents because of the loss of spontaneity. Details can be lost as the set options limit responses.

Open-ended questions have no fixed choices and allow respondents to express a wide array of points of view. They are useful for assessing visitors’ feelings and views and solving mysteries such as why visitors do not visit a particular area of a World Heritage site. A key advantage of open questions is that respondents can be spontaneous and provide in-depth answers. These can inform an exploratory phase leading to the design of a closed-question survey. A disadvantage of open questions is that they are more difficult to code and analyse. They are also more time-consuming to record, and the risk of interviewer bias is greater.

Wording of questions can minimise bias and maximise response rates. Questionnaires should be attractive, user-friendly and require a minimum amount of time to complete. The simpler the questions, the less room for misunderstanding. However, the survey questions should not be too general. For example, questions such as “how often”, “how much” and “how far” can yield results that cannot be compared. Leading questions and those that make assumptions should also be avoided. A pilot questionnaire can uncover potential problems with the wording or content of questions and gauge the visitor’s overall reaction to the survey. Interviews can distinguish indifference from indecision and help fine-tune the wording of questions in a survey. When translating the questionnaire into the local language, it is worth consulting with the translator to ensure that the translation does not skew the result.

Question sequencing should be designed to maximise the rate of response. Any interview or survey should begin with an explanation of the objective as well as an assurance of confidentiality. The first questions should capture the attention of the respondent, while sensitive questions should be asked at the end. Personal details should also be left for the end and the respondent should be assured
Tourist Surveys: Techniques and Samples

that the answers to these are confidential. Important questions are best asked in the middle of the survey/ interview, and sudden jumps from one topic to another should be avoided.

SAMPLE QUESTIONS

Establishing the individual visitor profile

Which of the following groups would you place yourself in?

□ Local resident
□ Tourist on independent holiday
□ Tourist on inclusive/package tour
□ Visiting friends/relatives
□ Business
□ Other __________

If on holiday, since the beginning of the year, is this trip your —

□ only holiday?
□ one of two main holidays?
□ a minor/secondary holiday?

What is the main purpose of your visit?

□ Leisure, recreation and holiday
□ Visiting friends and relatives
□ Business and professional
□ Health treatment
□ Religion/pilgrimages
□ Other __________

Are you in an all-inclusive tour?  □ Yes  □ No

How many nights do you intend to stay in the area?

□ 0 (day visitor)  □ 1-3  □ 4-7  □ 8-28
□ 29-91  □ 92-365

Is this your first visit?  □ Yes  □ No

How many people aged 15 and over, including yourself, are in your immediate party?

□ 1  □ 2  □ 3  □ 4  □ 5  □ more _____

How many children aged 15 or under are in your party?

□ 1  □ 2  □ 3  □ 4  □ 5  □ more _____

Establishing the visitor’s motivation for coming

What are the main characteristics of the site that made you decide to visit (rank the top three)?

□ Accessibility  □ Historical interest  □ Peace and quiet
□ Entertainment & recreation  □ Quality of accommodation  □ Scenery and countryside
□ Particular activities  □ Friendliness/hospitality
□ Visiting friends and relatives
□ Just passing through
□ Specific attractions
□ Other __________

Sample questions on transportation

How did you get to (name of country) ____________?

By air  □ Scheduled flight  □ Charter  □ Other

By waterway  □ Passenger line or ferry  □ Cruise  □ Other

Overland  □ Railway  □ Organised bus  □ Public motor coach, bus or other road transport
□ Private vehicle (up to 8 persons)  □ Rental car
□ Other means of land transport

Sample questions on activities and attractions visited at the site

In an interview, the respondent can point to a map to show parts of the site visited, and the interviewer can record the answers. A self-completing questionnaire would ask the respondent to list the features visited, or present a list of all attractions with boxes to tick. If the questionnaire can be completed before or after the visit, the question should offer the choices of “intend to visit” and “already visited” to avoid bias. A third choice could be “heard of”. The following sample format could be used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>heard of</th>
<th>already visited</th>
<th>intend to visit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attraction A</td>
<td>Attraction B</td>
<td>Attraction C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction D</td>
<td>etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participation in events at a cultural site can be recorded using a question such as:

During your stay at the ____________ World Heritage site, did you attend any of these events?

□ Theatre  □ Dance  □ Festival etc.

At a natural site, the range of available activities can be presented in a question such as:

During your stay at the ____________ World Heritage site, which of the following activities did you engage in?

□ Climbing/mountaineering  □ Walking
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Sample questions on accommodation

Where are you staying for your visit to the __________ World Heritage site?

- Hotel/motel/inn/lodge
- Guesthouse
- Bed & breakfast/farm accommodation
- Rented self-catering
- Caravan
- Camping
- Timeshare
- Youth hostel
- Home of friends/relatives
- Second home
- Other

Where did you make your booking?

- Tourist information centre or tourist office
- Directly with the accommodation establishment
- Travel agent
- Central reservation service
- Other

When did you make your booking?

- Before departure (when?) __________
- On arrival

Sample questions for evaluating promotional materials

Which of the following, if any, influenced your decision to visit this site?

- A previous visit
- Advice from friends/relatives
- Advice from a Tourist Information Centre
- Brochure
- Tourist guidebooks
- Newspaper/magazine articles back home
- Newspaper/magazine advertisement back home
- Newspaper/magazine advertisement in (name of country)
- Radio programme (where?) __________
- TV programme (where?) __________
- Other: _______________

If you obtained information (leaflets, brochures) about this site prior to this visit, where from?

- Travel agent at home
- Travel agent in (name of country)
- Tour operator prior to departure
- Friends/relatives
- Holiday/tourism exhibition
- On the plane
- Tourist Information Centre elsewhere in the country

When (what month) did you start seriously thinking about coming to (name of country)?

When (what month) did you start requesting information?

When did you make your booking? __________

Sample questions on visitors’ expenditures

Ask about expenditures only in exit surveys. The respondent should specify the number of people in his or her party. Provide clear instructions on which expenses to include, for example, advance payments, payments made on your behalf (for example by your employer), cost of booking, credit card payments.

Thinking about your visit to the site, how much have you spent for yourself and other members of your party up to this point?

- Accommodation (if not already included) __________
- Food and drink __________
- Recreation, culture and sporting events __________
- Shopping __________

What did you buy in the way of local goods and services during your visit?

________________________________________

In a face-to-face interview, the question could be phrased, “What is your best guess as to how much you spent for certain items?” At the end of the interview add up all the items and have the respondent approve the total.

Sample questions for evaluating the visit

Closed questions can be used to obtain a visitor’s evaluation of the site, commonly with a consistent five-level scale, from 1 (very good) to 5 (very poor). Open questions may complement closed questions to collect explanations for poor ratings, as follows:

If you used any of the following facilities and visited any of the following attractions at the site, how would you rate them?

1 Very good 2 Good 3 Average 4 Poor 5 Very poor

- Facility A __________
- Facility B __________
- Facility C __________ etc.
- Attraction 1 __________
- Attraction 2 __________

If you answered Poor or Very Poor to any of the above, please explain further in this space:

________________________________________

________________________________________

________________________________________
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Any other comments?
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________

How likely are you to come back to the site in the future?

□ Very likely
□ Likely
□ Unlikely
□ Very unlikely
□ Don’t know

If you answered Unlikely or Very Unlikely, please explain why in this space:
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________

Other open questions could include:

Are there any specific ways in which we could improve this site to make the visit more enjoyable?
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________

What would you say was the most enjoyable part of your visit to (name of the site)?
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________

And what have you enjoyed least?
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________

Would you recommend this site to someone else?
Yes ____ No ____

If you answered No, please explain further in this space:
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________
_______________________________________________

How likely you are to recommend (name of the site) to someone else?

□ Very likely
□ Likely
□ Unlikely
□ Very unlikely
□ Don’t know

Personal questions

Some respondents who may have been fearful of giving offence in earlier more direct questions may be more honest in this section.

This section should come last with a restatement of how the information will be used. An introduction could be phrased:

We would appreciate it if you could answer the following short questions about yourself. This information will enable us to compare the views and experiences of different groups of people who visit this site. All information you provide will be held in the strictest confidence.

Are you:
□ Female □ Male

What is your age range?
□ 15-24 □ 25-34 □ 35-44 □ 45-54 □ 55-64 □ ≥ 65

What is your marital status?
□ Single □ Married/cohabitant □ Widowed □ Divorced/separated

Please indicate which of the following categories applies to you:

□ full-time employee (≥ 30 hours a week)
□ part-time employee (< 30 hours a week)
□ student
□ unemployed
□ pensioner
□ homemaker
□ other (please specify) _____________

Questions on income levels can offer ranges, as with age. The US dollar is the currency used most often in the travel and tourism industry, but some respondents may prefer to answer in their own currency.

Assorted tips for survey work and interviewing

Self-completing questionnaires tend to be completed by visitors who are not satisfied.

Interviewers should be trained to guarantee consistency. Questions should be reviewed carefully to avoid any misunderstandings, and interviewers should be familiar with the survey objectives and methodology, particularly the guidelines for determining whom to survey.

Interviewers should avoid:

Chatting about other subjects
Misleading respondents about the length and/or content of the questionnaire
Giving opinions about the respondent’s answers
Allowing the respondent to see the questionnaire
Interviewing children without appropriate permission.
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Common sources of interview bias include:

Cheating — the interviewer may falsify the data by making up the responses.
Influencing the interviewee, especially on sensitive questions; the interviewer's appearance may also influence the respondent.
Errors when asking questions.
Errors when recording the answers — carelessness in ticking boxes and/or inaccurate or incomplete recording of responses to open questions.

Analysing the data

Processing the data need not be complicated. Simple percentage calculations can provide extremely useful information on the situation at the site. As with monitoring, data processing should be consistent over the long term so that patterns can be observed.

A benchmark should be set before the exercise begins stating a minimum percentage of completed questionnaires needed to consider the survey valid.

Statistics

Statistics are the result of specific calculations of quantitative data. Many computer software packages can perform statistical analyses, but require knowledge of the main analytical principles and techniques.
International Cultural Tourism Charter

Principle 1

Since domestic and international tourism is among the foremost vehicles for cultural exchange, conservation should provide responsible and well-managed opportunities for members of the host community and visitors to experience and understand that community's heritage and culture at first hand.

1.1 The natural and cultural heritage is a material and spiritual resource, providing a narrative of historical development. It has an important role in modern life and should be made physically, intellectually and/or emotively accessible to the general public. Programmes for the protection and conservation of the physical attributes, intangible aspects, contemporary cultural expressions and broad context should facilitate an understanding and appreciation of the heritage significance by the host community and the visitor in an equitable and affordable manner.

1.2 Individual aspects of natural and cultural heritage have differing levels of significance, some with universal values, others of national, regional or local importance. Interpretation programmes should present that significance in a relevant and accessible manner to the host community and the visitor, with appropriate, stimulating and contemporary forms of education, media, technology and personal explanation of historical, environmental and cultural information.

1.3 Interpretation and presentation programmes should facilitate and encourage the high level of public awareness and support necessary for the long-term survival of the natural and cultural heritage.

1.4 Interpretation programmes should present the significance of heritage places, traditions and cultural practices within the past experience and present diversities of the area and the host community, including that of minority cultural or linguistic groups. The visitor should always be informed of the differing cultural values that may be ascribed to a particular heritage resource.

Principle 2

The relationship between heritage places and tourism is dynamic and may involve conflicting values. It should be managed in a sustainable way for present and future generations.

2.1 Places of heritage significance have an intrinsic value for all people as an important basis for cultural diversity and social development. The long-term protection and conservation of living cultures, heritage places, collections, their physical and ecological integrity and their environmental context should be an essential component of social, economic, political, legislative, cultural and tourism development policies.

2.2 The interaction between heritage resources or values and tourism is dynamic and ever changing, generating both opportunities and challenges, as well as potential conflicts. Tourism projects, activities and developments should achieve positive outcomes and minimise adverse impacts on the heritage and lifestyles of the host community, while responding to the needs and aspirations of the visitor.

2.3 Conservation, interpretation and tourism development programmes should be based on a comprehensive understanding of the specific but often complex or conflicting aspects of heritage significance of the particular place. Continuing research and consultation are important to furthering the evolving understanding and appreciation of that significance.

2.4 The maintenance of the authenticity of heritage places and collections is important. It is an essential element of their cultural significance, as expressed in the physical material, collected memory and intangible traditions that remain from the past. Programmes should present and interpret the authenticity of places and cultural experiences to enhance the appreciation and understanding of that cultural heritage.

2.5 Tourism development and infrastructure projects should take account of the aesthetic, social and cultural dimensions, natural and cultural landscapes, bio-diversity characteristics and the broader visual context of heritage places. Preference should be given to using local materials and take account of local architectural styles or vernacular traditions.

2.6 Before heritage places are promoted or developed for increased tourism, management plans should assess the natural and cultural values of the resource. They should then establish appropriate limits of acceptable change, particularly in relation to the impact of visitor numbers on the physical characteristics, integrity, ecology and bio-diversity of the place, local access and transportation systems and the social, economic and cultural wellbeing of the host community. If the likely level of change is unacceptable the development proposal should be modified.

2.7 There should be ongoing programmes of evaluation to assess the progressive impacts of tourism activities and development on the particular place or community.
Principle 3
Conservation and Tourism Planning for Heritage Places should ensure that the Visitor Experience would be worthwhile, satisfying and enjoyable.

3.1 Conservation and tourism programmes should present high-quality information to optimise the visitor's understanding of the significant heritage characteristics and of the need for their protection, enabling the visitor to enjoy the place in an appropriate manner.

3.2 Visitors should be able to experience the heritage place at their own pace, if they so choose. Specific circulation routes may be necessary to minimise impacts on the integrity and physical fabric of a place, its natural and cultural characteristics.

3.3 Respect for the sanctity of spiritual places, practices and traditions is an important consideration for site managers, visitors, policy makers, planners and tourism operators. Visitors should be encouraged to behave as welcome guests, respecting the values and lifestyles of the host community, rejecting possible theft or illicit trade in cultural property and conducting themselves in a responsible manner which would generate a renewed welcome, should they return.

3.4 Planning for tourism activities should provide appropriate facilities for the comfort, safety and wellbeing of the visitor that enhance the enjoyment of the visit but do not adversely impact on the significant features or ecological characteristics.

Principle 4
Host communities and indigenous peoples should be involved in planning for conservation and tourism.

4.1 The rights and interests of the host community, at regional and local levels, property owners and relevant indigenous peoples who may exercise traditional rights or responsibilities over their own land and its significant sites, should be respected.

4.2 While the heritage of any specific place or region may have a universal dimension, the needs and wishes of some communities or indigenous peoples to restrict or manage physical, spiritual or intellectual access to certain cultural practices, knowledge, beliefs, activities, artefacts or sites should be respected.

Principle 5
Tourism and conservation activities should benefit the host community.

5.1 Policy makers should promote measures for the equitable distribution of the benefits of tourism to be shared across countries or regions, improving the levels of socio-economic development and contributing where necessary to poverty alleviation.

5.2 Conservation management and tourism activities should provide equitable economic, social and cultural benefits to the men and women of the host or local community at all levels, through education, training and the creation of full-time employment opportunities.

5.3 A significant proportion of the revenue specifically derived from tourism programmes to heritage places should be allotted to the protection, conservation and presentation of those places, including their natural and cultural contexts. Where possible, visitors should be advised of this revenue allocation.

5.4 Tourism programmes should encourage the training and employment of guides and site interpreters from the host community to enhance the skills of local people in the presentation and interpretation of their cultural values.

5.5 Heritage interpretation and education programmes among the people of the host community should encourage the involvement of local site interpreters. The programmes should promote a knowledge and respect for their heritage, encouraging the local people to take a direct interest in its care and conservation.

5.6 Conservation management and tourism programmes should include education and training opportunities for policy makers, planners, researchers, designers, architects, interpreters, conservators and tourism operators. Participants should be encouraged to understand and help resolve at times conflicting issues, opportunities and problems encountered by their colleagues.
International Cultural Tourism Charter

Principle 6

Tourism promotion programmes should protect and enhance Natural and Cultural Heritage characteristics.

6.1 Tourism promotion programmes should create realistic expectations and responsibly inform potential visitors of the specific heritage characteristics of a place or host community, thereby encouraging them to behave appropriately.

6.2 Places and collections of heritage significance should be promoted and managed in ways which protect their authenticity and enhance the visitor experience by minimising fluctuations in arrivals and avoiding excessive numbers of visitors at any one time.

6.3 Tourism promotion programmes should provide a wider distribution of benefits and relieve the pressures on more popular places by encouraging visitors to experience the wider cultural and natural heritage characteristics of the region or locality.

6.4 The promotion, distribution and sale of local crafts and other products should provide a reasonable social and economic return to the host community, while ensuring that their cultural integrity is not degraded.
Managing Tourism at World Heritage Sites: a Practical Manual for World Heritage Site Managers

By Arthur Pedersen